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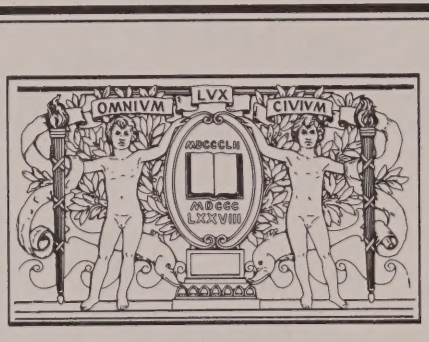

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VOLUME XXV.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1877.

The Week.

THE Iowa Republicans have come out in revolt against the President's policy in a resolution which we have quoted and commented on elsewhere. After calling for the "complete protection" of the citizen in all his rights by the Federal Government, in language which if used by a foreign commentator on American institutions would call forth much ridicule from the press, they go on, not inappropriately, to call for the depreciation of the currency below even the greenback, by demanding that silver should be made a legal tender "for all debts both public and private," and at the same time protest against any redemption of the greenbacks by requiring that "the present volume of the currency should be maintained until the wants of trade and commerce demand its further contraction;" but they refrain from saying who is to decide when the wants of trade and commerce demand its further contraction. As Iowa is *par excellence* a Republican State, the resolutions suggest the question, What is the Republican party at present? What does it advocate as distinguished from the Democrats, except that Packard and Casey and Whipper and Elliott should have offices at the South?

The order forbidding office-holders to take part in managing caucuses and conventions is, as might be expected, exciting more or less indignation in official circles, and there is among many outsiders more or less doubt as to whether it can be carried out. General F. C. Barlow has written a letter to the New York *Times*, maintaining that it can only be enforced by a system of "espionage" and "tale-telling"; that the participation of office-holders in conventions cannot be prevented by prohibiting their attendance in the flesh; that it will bring the public service into discredit by destroying the self-respect of its members; that it will not be supported by public opinion; and that it is not necessary to the reform of the civil service, which is a very simple matter: all we have to do to bring it about is to introduce a sound system of appointments which will make the office-holder independent of Congressmen and Senators. This done, General Barlow thinks the evil of the present system will cease, and the office-holder will attend conventions simply as a public-spirited citizen, and his presence at them will do good, or, at all events, no harm.

We trust the President will not be influenced by talk of this kind from any quarter. Nine-tenths of those who discuss civil-service reform think it can all be accomplished by some one thing. Some say, forbid the office-holders to act as political managers, and Congressmen will have no use for them, and then you have the reform at one stroke. Others say, make the office-holders independent of Congressmen by a good system of appointment, and then you may let them do what they please in politics. Others again say, the system of appointment is not the important thing, but the nature of the tenure. Make this secure, and promotion dependent on good behavior, and you need not trouble yourself about the mode of appointment. These are all suggestions of the devil. The civil service is in such a condition, and its abuses are so closely connected with all other political abuses and have sunk so deep into public sentiment, that no one thing will accomplish a reform. Everything that can be thought of is necessary—a good system of appointment, a properly regulated tenure, and a rigid prohibition of conspicuous political partisanship. Not only has the reform to be made, but it has to be maintained, and it can only be maintained by satisfying both parties that it is genuine.

President Hayes may rely on it that no party out of power in this country will ever submit tamely to the political activity of Government officials, or will ever believe that they only appear at Administration conventions as individuals, and are not using the public service and public funds for party purposes. Such spectacles will always, even if the reform be now brought about, make its permanence impossible, because they will exasperate the Opposition and make them determined to oust the office-holders whom they see working against them as soon as they get a chance; and flesh and blood cannot blame them. It is not in human nature to expect a Democrat to accept Mr. Arthur, for instance, as a reformer, and believe that when he goes to a convention he goes as a private gentleman and leaves the Custom-house behind him. Therefore the President's order is one of the measures which goes to the root of the abuse, and perhaps the one which will best prepare the reform for the acceptance of those who will come after him. That it will degrade the service is fiddlesticks; it will degrade it no more than abstinence from politics degrades the Army or the Coast Survey. That it will be hard to enforce against such a large body of tricky persons as now hold places in the public service, we admit, but this is only one of the inevitable difficulties which time and patience will remove. Catch and punish a sufficient number of tricksters, and this evil will soon cure itself. Besides, the country is swarming with men who are ready to serve the Government, and do not desire to go to conventions, and like to be "degraded" by staying away.

A passage in the after-dinner speech of Mr. Carl Schurz at the Commencement of Harvard College may yet come to possess a political significance equal to that attached to the proceedings of the Iowa Convention which took place on the same day. "Do you know what that means?" enquired Mr. Schurz, referring to the now famous order of the President. It means "the disestablishment of the 'machine' in party politics. It means that every one shall be told to go to the caucus or the convention without feeling himself helpless at the door, knowing that things have been 'fixed' by the Postmaster and the Custom-house." Mr. Schurz connected the order, somewhat fancifully, with a recognition of the necessity of the scholar in politics and a desire to open a way for him. Be this as it may, however, the declaration itself, made in the presence of the President and considered in connection with other attending circumstances, may be accepted as an authoritative public explanation of the real intent of the order, and as second in importance, therefore, only to the order itself. So far as orders and the mere expression of desire can go the President may now be said to have done all that is necessary. What remains for him is to prove that he has the discernment and nerve requisite for putting his opinions in practice.

The origin of the Indian troubles in Idaho is not clear, and is variously attributed to dissatisfaction with the reservations, encroachments and violence of the whites, and to "pure cussedness" on the part of Chief Joseph and his band of non-treaty Nez-Percés. About the middle of June these savages appeared with hostile intent on the Camas Prairie, on the east side of Cottonwood Creek, and began killing the settlers there, at Mount Idaho above, and in the valley below. They next attacked the settlers along the Salmon River, of which the Cottonwood is the lowest northern tributary. In all, some eighteen persons, including one woman and two children, were massacred. Mount Idaho is situated almost exactly at the intersection of the 116th meridian and the 46th parallel. The nearest military post, Fort Lapwai, is sixty miles to the northwest, on a branch of the Clearwater, which, like the Salmon River, is an eastern tributary of the Snake River. The commander, Col. Perry, as soon as he heard of the outbreak, set out for Mount Idaho, and thence followed the retreating Nez-Percés to the head of Whitebird Creek (another tributary of the Salmon). His attack, either owing

to bad conduct of the troops or to the superior arms and position of the enemy, was quickly turned into a rout, in which thirty-three of his command were left upon the field to be stripped and mutilated in Indian fashion. This was on the 17th or 18th of June. Meantime Gen. Howard had arrived at Lewiston, a border town at the junction of the Snake and Clearwater, and at once began a campaign of which it is difficult to foresee either the extent or the end. He has reoccupied the disastrous battlefield and buried the dead, and has established his headquarters at the mouth of Whitebird Creek. Chief Joseph occupies the opposite bank of Salmon River from this point eastward to Slate Creek, and is in a very strong natural position formed by the precipitous banks of the river. The region behind him is almost wholly unexplored and is in any event extremely difficult, being mountainous and without roads. An attempt to fall upon his rear is making from Boise City by way of the Weiser valley, but the inhabitants of the valley are not disposed to confide too much in the expedition as a defence to themselves, and are already fleeing elsewhere for safety. Whether the war is to be confined to the present combatants depends on the fidelity of the treaty Indians, the Cœur d'Alenes and others, to the north and south of the Nez-Percés. The alarm has spread into Montana, among the settlers in the Bitter Root valley in the Columbia basin; and the Flatheads who live there are threatened with a "cleaning-out" if they do not join the hostile Indians. Naturally, the diminished army appropriation is hindering our soldiers from being rapidly concentrated in great numbers and properly equipped.

The election in Charleston county, South Carolina, last week, of a new county delegation to the Legislature in place of the members who were refused seats at the last session, shows that the Republican party in that State is, for the present at least, completely broken to pieces. At the last election the Republicans chose seventeen delegates by an average majority, as was alleged, of about 6,500. The Legislature, however, refused to admit the delegation then elected, on the ground chiefly, we believe, of intimidation of colored Democratic voters by Republicans of the same race. At the present election the Republicans proposed at first to put in the field a ticket bearing the names of ten Democrats and seven Republicans. The offer, however, was rejected by the Democrats, who nominated seventeen men of their own party, three of whom were colored, whereupon the Republicans seem to have given up entirely, and on the day of election remained at home, not taking the trouble even to print a ticket. There were no "outrages," but the voting was almost unanimously Democratic. Darlington county, which is also said to be Republican by 2,000 majority, elected on the same day a Democratic successor to the notorious Whittemore. We do not suppose that the result of these elections is a surprise to any portion of the Northern people, or that it can be necessary to enter upon any detailed explanation of the reason for this apparently marvellous change in the Republican vote. For some time to come there will be no Republican party in South Carolina, and the only consolation we can offer to party men is that to be found in pondering the question, Will there not be under the new administration of affairs greater order throughout the State, more justice done upon the whole to both whites and blacks, and greater honesty and economy in public expenditures—in short, a better government—than when the State was in different hands?

Mr. Fairchild in his report to the Governor says that there was no agreement for an unconditional acceptance of Tweed's confession or his release; that it was, as sworn to by Mr. Townsend in the Woodin investigation, distinctly understood that the document was to be shown to such persons as it might be necessary to consult; that it was as a matter of fact shown to several Democratic politicians, connected either with the Ring matters or with the government of the State or city; that the confession was from its source open to suspicion; that when made it was found to be untrustworthy, to contain offers of evidence which lacked corroboration, and to be on the whole worthless; lastly, no information derived from the statement was used in the Sweeny case. With regard to the Sweeny case, Mr. Fairchild shows, as we explained in these columns at the time, that there was no criminal charge against Peter B. Sweeny; that his plundering was carried on through his brother James M. Sweeny, and was very difficult of proof; that his property liable to seizure on execution would have been, under the most favorable circumstances, not more than $100,000; and that therefore $400,000, the amount paid in settlement, was four times as much as there was even a probability of getting in the courts. He says nothing about Judge Westbrook's exoneration of Sweeny, but as a matter of fact the counsel for the prosecution were entirely opposed to it. With regard to Mr. Townsend, Mr. Fairchild incidentally refers to two or three matters which occurred during the negotiations of rather a grave nature—1st, that he, while acting as Tweed's counsel and urging his release in order that he might be used as a witness against Sweeny, accepted a retainer from Sweeny; 2d, that on the production by Tweed of a large number of checks, said to be connected with the latter's corrupt transactions, he suggested as one mode of settlement that the checks should be offered to the drawers of them on payment of their face value, and that he volunteered to collect the money himself for ten per cent. Mr. Fairchild's statement is a complete vindication of his own acts, and he at the same time makes it sufficiently clear that the publication of the outline of the confession in the *World* was the work of our faithful Comptroller, Mr. John Kelly, or Mr. Townsend.

The feature of the week at the New York Stock Exchange was the advance of 13¼ per cent in Morris and Essex stock and 5½ per cent in Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western stock, and a sympathetic improvement in coal-company shares. The impetus to the rise was given by the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Company's directors, who authorized the issue of $10,000,000 7 per cent 30-year bonds, to be a lien on the main road of the company. Of this sum $2,800,000 are to be held to take up the same amount of bonds now outstanding, and which now are the only mortgage on the property. The remaining $7,200,000 are to be used for purposes not named. It is easy to see how the procurement of such a sum of money by a company which stands in the position of guarantor of another company's obligations would improve those obligations, but why it should advance the price of the shares of the company which borrows the money is not apparent, unless it be construed as saving the company from bankruptcy. Notwithstanding the sale of $1,000,000 gold by the Treasury and the beginning of the payment of $25,000,000 gold interest, the price of gold during the week advanced ½ of 1 per cent. The sales of 4 per cent bonds have increased, and on one day amounted to nearly $2,000,000. The paper dollar at the close of the week was worth about 95 cents gold; the 412½-grain silver dollar would have been worth about 91¼ cents gold.

The honest gentlemen who compose the "Society of the Holy Cross" must have been somewhat surprised at the excitement caused throughout England by Lord Redesdale's exposure in the House of Lords of 'The Priest in Absolution'—the manual circulated by them among the Ritualists for the guidance of spiritual directors in hearing confession and administering the "sacrament" of absolution. What to the unsophisticated layman seems wanton indecency and a most culpable suggestiveness of impurity and sin, is to the spiritual physician merely an exploration of the disease which he seeks to cure—an exploration which he flatters himself that he can make without allowing human infirmity to pollute it with aught of human passion. Men who have familiarized themselves, as Mr. Mackonochie and his colleagues doubtless have done, with the literature of the Latin Church on such subjects; who have studied the long series of the 'Penitentials,' from that attributed to Archbishop Theodore down to those of the present day, and perhaps have not omitted to look into such treatises as Suarez's celebrated 'De Matrimonia,' must have become so blunted by their hideous investigations into

every conceivable form of human depravity that the passages which have so shocked the gentle British public have unquestionably seemed to them the most commonplace and colorless incidents in the daily business of the confessor. The moral deducible from the affair is this: If the confessional is to be used at all, it can only be used in one way. The spiritual physician must have the privileges accorded to his brother of the flesh; he must be familiar with all of the diseases that he may be called upon to cure, and must fearlessly pursue his diagnosis, untrammelled by conventional or natural restraints, or by the delicacy indispensable in other relations of life. The world has long since reached the conclusion that in the practice of medicine the good to be obtained outweighs the possible evil arising from this course, especially as the patient does not call for aid as long as he is in health. In Protestant countries it has decided that in spiritual therapeutics the benefit is problematical, while the suggestions of sin inseparable from the diagnosis are an evil real and incontrovertible, seeing that the system requires the innocent to be submitted to investigation as well as the sinful. In Catholic countries, the benefit is considered to be absolute and indispensable to salvation; but the evils are not denied, as may be seen by the endless series of canons to check what is technically known as "solicitation." Meanwhile the British public is startled by what seems to it a new revelation of spiritual nastiness, and the "Society of the Holy Cross" is assailed as though it had invented a new source of corruption, instead of having apparently performed its volunteer functions with a degree of delicacy very far superior to that of its models.

The crossing of the Danube began on the night of June 20–21 from Galatz, and the troops there thrown across, not without serious losses, ensured the crossing in force two days later at Ibrail, and the consequent capture of Matchin. On the 25th another crossing, higher up, at Hirsova, gave the Russians possession of that town and of the entire right bank of the Danube as far as Tultcha, which had also to be surrendered, and with it all control of the northern end of the Dobrudsha. Tchernavoda and Medjidshe were next abandoned, and Kustendshe, at the eastern end of the line, depopulated in a panic. The Russian left, to which these operations were confided, consisted of two army corps, the 11th and 14th, under Gen. Zimmermann. Its objective point is Silistria and the line of communication between Rustchuk and Varna. The bombardment of Rustchuk began on the 24th, and has been exceedingly destructive. Nikopolis has also been rendered untenable, and a crossing has been daily expected at that point, but the main object of the bombardment appears to have been served by drawing off attention from the crossing from below Simnitza, which was accomplished by the 8th Army Corps, under the Grand Duke Nicholas, in the early morning of June 27. The resistance was feeble, and, as there were no works of any consequence at Sistova, the place was at once occupied. This achievement was followed by a significant proclamation from the Czar to the Bulgarians, promising them protection, and announcing the setting up of a Russian administration in place of the dispossessed Turkish régime. In fact, we already hear of a new municipal council at Matchin and of a Russian vilayet of Rustchuk. The Grand Duke's forces did not halt long, but the particulars of their march to Tirnova have not yet transpired. The occupation of this important civil station is said to have cost nine hours' fighting.

We have given above the details of the operations on the Danube as well as the confused and often contradictory despatches and letters of correspondents will permit. Accurate accounts of the crossing of the river are, however, not necessary to enable us to say that the ease with which the Russians have effected the operation is another illustration of that Turkish incapacity for field operations to which we have so often called the attention of our readers, and which will probably now exert an increasing and decisive influence on the fortunes of the war, and that the problem offered by the campaign in Bulgaria has become one of exceeding simplicity. The composition of the Russian army of the Danube is now very well known. Seven corps at least, supposing the 15th not to have reached the Danube, have crossed and are crossing the river. The corps ought to contain 38,000 men, inclusive of non-combatants; but supposing it to contain only 32,000 effective men, we have a total of 224,000 men, with, allowing 108 guns (the regular complement) to each corps, 756 guns, which by this time have entered or are entering Bulgaria—a most formidable force, containing a large body of cavalry. This is a low estimate, because it leaves a margin of three corps out of the European army for Odessa and the Crimea and the communications, though we have no idea, now that the impotence of the Turkish fleet has been demonstrated and the Rumanians have thrown in their fortunes with the Russians, that so large a body as this will be held back from the invading force.

Now, the Turks cannot oppose to this, at the largest estimate yet made by their most sanguine friends, over 140,000 men, and it is as certain as anything is in war that not a single division of this force is fit to march two days in the open or fight a battle. Detailed estimates of their strength by corps and divisions are useless, because, although descriptions of the army organization are kept on paper at Constantinople, they are well known to have no sort of relation to the facts. The regular Turk does not care to come much nearer to a return of the force under his orders than by saying, to use Kinglake's humorous account of his mode of giving his "morning state" to the Allies in the Crimea, that "by the blessing of the Almighty his servants are as the leaves of the forest." The great extension recently given to the works at Shumla makes at least 50,000 men necessary to garrison that position—40,000 was the old estimate in 1853, when it was not so well fortified as now. It is certainly not too much—in fact, it is a great deal too little—to assign 50,000 more to Rustchuk, Silistria, and Varna. Consequently Abdul Kerim Pasha, who is old, in delicate health, and never has been enterprising, has before him one alternative: he must either weaken his garrison, abandon the shelter of the quadrilateral and come out and fight a great battle against superior forces, the loss of which would close the war instanter, or else allow himself to be shut up in the fortresses by a force which would leave the Russians, say, 100,000 men free to rove about Bulgaria or drop down across the Balkans by easy marches to Constantinople. Whichever horn of the dilemma he chooses, the end is certain and not far off.

The failure of the Turks to offer a vigorous resistance to the passage of the river has apparently caused more or less excitement, both in Austria and England, as an indication that the Turkish collapse is near at hand, and that it is time to get ready for a settlement with Russia. That Austria has entire confidence in Russia's good faith is evident from the mere fact that she allows her to enter Bulgaria; but a semi-official article in a Government organ makes it plain that she will not rely wholly on moral forces, and will enter into the council over Turkey's remains sword in hand. The probabilities are that the settlement will be much easier than was at first supposed, because the breakdown of the Turkish strength on the Danube will prevent an advance on Constantinople, and preclude any irritating discussion about the fate of that city. Russia's terms of peace will probably be a slice of Armenia, including at least Batum and Kars, and perhaps Erzerum and Trebizond, and a rigid supervision of Turkish government in Europe by a Christian force. In England, there is again talk of a division in the Cabinet, between Lord Beaconsfield and (probably) Lords Salisbury and Derby, which may lead to the retirement of the latter; and more or less fear among the Liberals that Beaconsfield may place the country in a position where fighting would be imperative. But Sir William Vernon Harcourt shows by copious extracts from Beaconsfield's somewhat recent speeches that he too considers the danger of Russian advances to India as a mere bugbear. Mr. Freeman will have it, however, in his recen book on Turkey, that he is drawn by irresistible impulse as a Jew to come to the relief of his brother monotheists.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE PARTY.

THE opposition to the President within the party has been openly begun in Iowa by the adoption of resolutions which, though marked by the usual vagueness, were evidently intended to be a condemnation of the President's dealings with South Carolina and Louisiana, and by the tabling, by a large majority, of a resolution expressing approval of his course. The Convention points out what is needed at the South in the following lucid language:

"*Third.* The permanent pacification of the South and the complete protection of all citizens in the free enjoyment of all their rights are duties to which the Republican party stands sacredly pledged. The power to provide for the enforcement of the principles embodied in the recent constitutional amendments is vested by the amendments in Congress, and we declare it to be a solemn obligation on the Legislative and Executive departments of the Government to put in immediate and vigorous exercise all their constitutional powers for removing any just causes of discontent on the part of any class, and for securing to every American citizen complete liberty and exact equality in the exercise of civil, political, and public rights. To this end we imperatively demand of Congress and of the chief Executive a courage and fidelity to duty which shall not falter until these results are placed beyond dispute or recall."

What is most of all needed from those who find fault with the President's course at the South is, however, a particular description of the thing or things which they think he ought to do; but, for obvious reasons, from this they have from the beginning carefully refrained. What the Iowa Convention ought to have done was to draw up an address to the party, pointing out the exact line of conduct which their chairman, for instance, would have followed had he been in the Presidential chair since last March. This address would have begun by explaining in what way the condition of the States of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Arkansas, which all fell into the hands of the Democrats during General Grant's administration, with his concurrence, differed and differs from the condition of the States of South Carolina and Louisiana as regards "the complete protection of all citizens in the enjoyment of all their rights," and as regards the duty on the part of the President to engage in "the immediate and vigorous exercise of all his constitutional powers for removing any just causes of discontent on the part of any class, and for securing to every American citizen complete liberty and exact equality in the exercise of civil, political, and public rights." Having shown in what manner the American citizen was better off in the former States than in the latter, and why the Iowa Republicans made no protest when they were captured by the enemy, the address would have taken up "the vigorous exercise of their powers," on behalf of the negro, made by the various Republican Congresses from 1865 down to 1874, and have shown how much of this legislation was now left standing by the Supreme Court, and what should be done to supply the place of what the Supreme Court had swept away; and particularly how the denial by the Supreme Court of the right of the Federal Government to exercise general police powers in any State was to be got over. It would then have gone on to explain by what construction of the Constitution, and at what period, "the *complete* protection of all citizens in the free enjoyment of *all* their rights" was assigned as a duty to the President and Congress, giving a list of the jurists and politicians who have held any such doctrine, and to describe particularly the process by which the original organic arrangement by which the duty of protecting the citizen in some of his rights was imposed on the Federal Government, and the duty of protecting him in the remainder was reserved to the States, was done away with, and to give some of the reasons which actuated the power, whatever it was, that deprived the American people of this cherished peculiarity of their political system.

The address would next have described in detail the losses as regarded protection in "civil, political, and public rights" which the negro had sustained in consequence of the refusal of the President to uphold the Chamberlain and Packard governments by force; publishing, say, Packard's testimony as to the condition of the State of Louisiana under Kellogg's rule, showing, as would doubtless be easy, that before Mr. Hayes's "policy" peace and order reigned in every parish, that the laws were faithfully executed, and crimes of violence rare; that the courts were always open and justice freely administered without sale, denial, or delay, and that the negro's sense of security was perfect. This one passage in the document would have made the President thoroughly ashamed of himself. It would then, after exhibiting the awful consequences to "civil, political, and public rights" of the withdrawal of the troops, have closed by a neat calculation, say from General Sheridan, of the force that would be required to make things as pleasant in Louisiana as in Iowa, under the precious Packard—that is to say, to police the State thoroughly, so that every negro had a quiet night, voted freely, and got his fair share of the offices. If General Sheridan had put it down at 200,000 men, as we have no doubt he would, the address would have pointed out how the money was to be raised, and have given some reasons for thinking that the present Congress would vote it. The peroration would have very properly contained a description of the state of things which would probably have existed in South Carolina and Louisiana this winter with Chamberlain guarded, in General Grant's style, by five hundred men in a room in Columbia, and Packard guarded by five hundred more in a room in New Orleans, and some reasons for giving such concerns the name of civilized Anglo-Saxon government.

The Convention apparently, however, never thought of doing anything so practical and manly and forcible as we have here described; they confined themselves to a resolution, vague enough, windy enough, and having little enough connection with the facts of the day, to have figured in a high-school oration on "The Statesmanship of the Present Age"; and it was no wonder they voted down the resolution approving of the President's course—the wonder is that they did not all burst into tears, and exclaim through their sobs that they would never forgive him.

It is not at all unlikely that the example of Iowa will be followed in other States. The Republican party showed very clearly in the late canvass how largely it has fallen into the hands of Sentimentalists controlled by knaves, and how largely the mere factious desire to keep the party organization in power has overridden the earlier and better intention to use the party for noble ends. The men who manage conventions care little what becomes of the South, but they see, or think they see, how useful the South may be made in working on Northern opinion for party purposes, and they are shocked by the President's apparent determination to get rid of the old and skilled hands, who have long made "offices" serve the place of wisdom and patriotism and progressive energy. The threat of the Camerons in Pennsylvania, that they will "punish" him by giving the State to the Democrats at the next election, is useful in showing how completely these men have forgotten that there is such a thing as a public conscience. The fact is that they judge "the policy," as they call it, not at all by its practical effects at the South, but by its effect on the party organization. The New York *Times*, which is the most moderate and sober of the malcontents, acknowledges this in a passage of much naïveté:

"The outlook would have been different had the South responded more generously to the overtures of the President. Its ungracious resolve to take all it can get and to give nothing in return, suggests a grave blunder in his calculations. He assumed, undoubtedly, that his own superiority to the traditions and passions of party would call forth evidence of a kindred spirit on the side of the South. Experience has not verified his expectations. The South receives his concessions as a matter of course, and employs them to consolidate the strength of the Democracy. From this source, therefore, he obtains no help whatever. The consequence is that the Republicans throughout the North find themselves mocked by a surrender which brings not a single countervailing advantage. They have been deprived of a strong position without any prospect of obtaining an equivalent. This view of the subject may not be a very lofty one, but it is the view entertained by the great body of the party, including its most active workers, and in a State like Iowa its most influential men. Their politics are practical, and they care very little for a sentiment which benefits only their opponents."

In other words, had the President's action resulted, as was at one time hoped, in dividing the Democrats at the South, or bringing

accessions to the Republican ranks, it would have been approved; but the South having accepted it as a right and not as a boon, and refused to come over, the Republicans find themselves "mocked by a surrender which brings not a single countervailing advantage." In other words, the poor fellows have been "euchred" in a game in which they expected to have everything their own way. Their sleeves being full of excellent cards, in the shape of the Army, the Navy, and the offices, they were willing to settle on "mutually advantageous terms"; but to give up everything, and then be told by the "heathen Chinee" that he has only got his rights, is hard for human nature to bear; so they fall to weeping over the poor negro.

As to the President, he, doubtless, when he announced that he would not be a candidate for the second term, had in his mind just such difficulties as he is now called on to face. The only good reason for refusing a second term in advance was the anticipation that the men who in the present state of party management have the power of bestowing nominations would either make base compliances a condition of their favor or would throw obstacles in the way of just and necessary reforms. He cannot have expected to go very far in the course he had traced out for himself without coming into collision with them. Now that the banner of revolt has been raised, he may rely on it that they will flock to it from every quarter. At every State Convention the machine will be converted into a catapult, and made to hurl missiles at the man who seeks to destroy it. Those who manage it are not the men to die without a struggle. The interests at stake are too valuable for them to allow them to be swept away without at least one great exhibition of their power. But Mr. Hayes did not owe his election to them, and he can now afford to defy their rage, and trust to the sober judgment of the people for the confirmation of his acts. They were unable in November last, even by working the machine into a white heat, to secure him a popular majority. It is not in their power now to take from him the solid approbation and support of a popular majority, which we feel assured he will have before long if he stands firm to the end and makes his reforms "thorough, radical, and complete."

COMMENCEMENT ADMONITION.

IT is quite evident that with the multiplication of colleges, which is very rapid, it will, before long, become impossible for the newspapers to furnish the reports of the proceedings in and about commencement which they now lay before their readers with such profuseness. The long letters describing with wearisome minuteness what has been described already fifty times will, undoubtedly, before long be given up. So also, we fancy, will the reports of the "Baccalaureate Sermons," if these addresses are to retain their value as précis of parting advice to young men. There is nothing in the newspaper literature, on the whole, less edifying, and sometimes more amusing, than the reporter's précis of pulpit discourses, so thoroughly does he deprive them of force and vigor and point, and often of intelligibility. The ordinary sermon addressed on Sunday to the ordinary congregation deals with a great variety of topics and from many different points of view, and with more or less diversity of method. The Baccalaureate Sermon, on the other hand, consists, from the necessity of the case, in the main of advice to youths at their entrance on life, and the substance of such discourses can, in the nature of things, undergo no great change from year to year, and must be strikingly similar in all the colleges. Any freshness they may have they must owe to the rhetorical powers of particular preachers, and even these cannot greatly vary in dealing with so familiar a theme. What the old man has to say to the young man, the teacher to the pupil, the father to the son, at the moment when the gates of the great world are flung open to the college graduate, has undergone but little modification in a thousand years, and has become very well known to all collegians long before they take their degree; so that to make the parting words of warning and encouragement tell on ears that are now eager for other and louder sounds, everything that can be done needs to be done to preserve their freshness and their pathos, and certainly nothing could do so much to deprive them of both one and the other as hashing them up annually in a slovenly report as part of the news of the day.

It is not, however, the advice contained in Baccalaureate Sermons, but all advice to young men, that needs in our time to be dealt out with greater circumspection and economy. Authority has within the last hundred or even fifty years undergone a serious loss of power, and this loss of power has shown itself nowhere more markedly than in the work of education. It has indeed almost completely changed the relation of parents and children, and teachers and scholars, so that it is now almost as necessary to prove the reasonableness and utility of any course of action which is required of boys as of mature men. Persuasion has, in other words, taken the place of command, and there is nobody left whose dictum owes much of its weight to his years or his office. Boys as well as their elders now expect advice to be based on personal experience, and do not listen with any great seriousness or deference to admonitions the value of which the utterer has not himself personally tested. It follows, therefore, that the persons whom the young men of our time hear most readily on the conduct of life are those who have had practical acquaintance with the difficulties of living up to the ideals which are so eloquently painted in the college chapel, and who have found out in their own persons what it costs to be pure and upright, and faithful and industrious, and persistent in the struggle that goes on in the various callings which lie outside the college walls. For this reason, probably, no addresses at Commencement have the value of those which are delivered now and then by men who have come back for a brief day to tell the next generation of the way life looks to those who for years have been wrestling with its problems, and have had actual experience of the virtues and defects of that early equipment and training on which such enormous sums are now spent in this country. The more advice from this quarter young men get the better. Nobody can talk so effectively to them at the moment when they are about to face the world on their own responsibility as the lawyers and merchants and ministers and politicians who have been facing it for twenty-five or thirty years with all the outward signs of success. If it were possible for every college in the country to get one such man at Commencement whose powers of expression would do justice to his experience, and who for this one day in the year would without fear or favor tell what he thought about success and about the conditions of success—about the kind of troubles which beset men in the callings with which he is most familiar—we should probably soon have a body of advice so impressive and fruitful that it would serve the needs and excite the interest of more than one generation. The young have been told to be good until they have grown weary of hearing it, particularly as it is always represented to them as a comparatively simple matter, and when they go out in the world and find what a hard and complex thing duty is they are very apt to look back to the ethical instruction of their college as when in college they looked back to the admonitions of the nursery, and return to their Alma Mater in later years with much the feeling with which a man visits a kindly old grandmother.

But commencements certainly draw forth nothing so curious as the newspaper article addressed to the graduating class, and which now seems to be a regular part of the summer's editorial work. It seems to have one object in view, and only one, and that is preventing the graduate from thinking much of his education and his degree, or supposing that they will be of any particular use to him in his entrance on life, or make him any more acceptable to the community. He is warned that they will raise him in nobody's estimation, and prove rather a hindrance than a help to him in getting a living, and that it will be well for him to begin his career by trying to forget that he has ever been in college at all. Not unfrequently the discourse closes with a suggestion or hint that the best university is, after all, the office of "a great daily," and that the kindest thing a fond father could do for a promising boy would be to start him as a local reporter, and make him get his first experience of life in the

collection of "city items." There is in all this the expression, though in a somewhat grotesque form, of a wide-spread popular feeling that nothing is worthy of the name of education which does not fit a man to earn his bread rapidly and dexterously. Considering with how large a proportion of the human race the mere feeding and clothing of the body is the first and hardest of tasks, there is nothing at all surprising in this view. But the preservation and growth of civilization in any country depends much on the extent to which it is able out of its surplus production to provide some at least of its people with the means of cherishing and satisfying nobler appetites than hunger and thirst. The immense sum which is now spent every year on colleges —misspent though much of it may be—and the increasing number of students who throng to them, regardless of the fact that the training they get may make them at first feel a little strange and helpless in the fierce struggle for meat and drink, show that the increasing wealth of the nation is accompanied by an increasing recognition of the fact that life, after all, is not all living, that there are gains which cannot be entered in any ledger, and that a man may carry about with him through a long, and it may be outwardly unfortunate career, sources of pleasure and consolation which are none the less precious for being unsalable and invisible.

THE LONDON PRESS.

London, June 15, 1877.

IF it be true, as I suppose it is, that "men make the laws and women make the morals" of a country, I should like to know who makes the taste that regulates the production of the periodical literature of this country, and more especially of the newspapers. The daily newspapers which are published in London and in the provincial towns are as good as, perhaps better than, any daily newspapers in the world. The tone is high, the literary character is good, and the news, if it be occasionally biassed by the political view of the journal in which it appears, is, on the whole, truthfully produced and intelligently arranged. In some of the metropolitan papers the news department predominates. In others, and more particularly in the *Times*, the resources of the paper are applied more to the acquisition of a high standard of criticism upon the events of the day than to the marshalling of these events. The *Times* regards news as a secondary object. It aims primarily at securing the best ability in the country for its leaders, and the most skilled short-hand writers for its reports of important speeches. No one thinks of reading the report of a great debate in the House of Commons or a great speech delivered in the provinces except in the *Times*, provided he can lay his hands upon it. The verbal accuracy of the report can be trusted, and the speech is certain to be given at length. Similarly, if you wish to read a fair, common-sense review of the proceedings at such a meeting as that held at Birmingham the other day, you go to the *Times*. The other papers may give you their view of it; the *Times* alone will give you an impartial view. On the other hand, if you want the earliest rumor of an engagement in Asia Minor, or a sensational account of a fight between a man and a dog, or the first hint of a vacancy in a remote constituency, or the description of a new Bulgarian horror, you will not go to the *Times*. You will find the first, if it is authentic, in the London correspondence of the Manchester *Guardian* or the *Scotsman*, the second in the *Daily Telegraph*, and the third and fourth in the *Daily News*. These papers lay themselves out for early information, and for news that any man may read as he runs, or as he is hurried from one station to another in the underground railway. They beat the *Times* in the news department, but the *Times* holds its own in every other department; and in one department that I have not alluded to, the permanent foreign correspondence, the *Times* keeps the lead. The information contained in the letters from the principal capitals of Europe to the *Times* may always be trusted. It has the smack of authenticity about it, and not unfrequently is official. It is not picked up in the streets and cafés of the Boulevards. It comes, if not from headquarters, from some place very near headquarters, and it generally aims at convincing rather than exciting attention. The foreign correspondence of half a dozen other English papers may be better reading, more amusing and enticing, but in none are the views so sensible or the facts so trustworthy. When you get to that enterprising product of modern journalistic life—the Special Correspondent—the man who, with no impedimenta but a portfolio and an ink-bottle, is ready at an hour's notice to start off to the remotest parts of the globe where anything worth chronicling is going on, and who is willing to endure the discomfort and hardships of an explorer or a camp-follower for the purpose of supplying his employers with graphic pen-and-ink pictures of an exciting life, I do not know that the *Times* is superior to other newspapers. The Crimean War produced this new literary plant in its modern development, and in that war the *Times* was better served than the other journals; but since the success of Dr. Russell's letters at that time, the rival leading papers, both in the metropolis and in the provincial towns, have not been behindhand in looking out and employing a staff of special correspondents quite as talented and energetic as the staff of the leading journal.

So much for the English daily newspapers. The best of them are, as a rule, conducted in an honorable and high-minded manner, and with a due sense of responsibility and an appreciation of the virtue of patriotism and right feeling. I have not a word to say against the taste exhibited in them.

I wish I could say the same of our modern weekly press. Since the extinction of the scurrilous newspapers of half a century ago, of which the *Satirist* and the *Age* were the most notorious, our weekly press, until quite recently, has been unexceptionable, both in taste and in literary execution. Such papers as the *Saturday Review*, the *Spectator*, the *Economist*, and the like, have been almost without parallel in journalistic enterprise. The *Saturday Review* is frequently bitter, though its fangs seem to have been drawn of late; the *Spectator* is frequently wrong; and the *Economist* is frequently dull. But the tone of all these papers, and of one or two others founded on their model, is high, the ability with which they are conducted is conspicuous, and the capacity for judging of events and criticising men and things displayed in their leading articles and reviews is of the first order. Can one speak in similar terms of admiration of the new school of weekly prints? To that question a decided negative answer must, I fear, be returned.

Some twelve years ago one or two cleverish young men, lately launched on London society from college, started, with the co-operation of the editor of one of the daily fashionable papers, a coquettish little print called the *Owl*. They did it more as a bit of fun than for any other motive. It appeared only during the London season. It was elaborately printed on delicately-scented note-paper, and it contained the gossip, the scandal, and the good things then current in society. Fashionable receptions were at that time, as they are now, in vogue, and everybody that was any body used to meet once a week in the salons of one particular leader of society. Access, somehow or other, was got to this lady's visiting-book, and a copy of the first number of this enticing little periodical, the *Owl*, appeared one Saturday morning at the breakfast-table of every one whose name was entered in this visiting-book. That evening they all met as usual in the salon, and the one and universal topic of conversation was the *Owl*. Its success was assured, and it lived its naughty, amusing, gossipy life during a couple of seasons. After that the promoters of it got some work to do in the world, the fashionable public got tired of the leaflet, and it died. It was conducted by gentlemen, and, though it sailed close to the wind occasionally, it never did anything malignant or disreputable. If its existence was neither useful nor respected, it was harmless, and if it had left no imitators it would have done no ill. Unfortunately, this has not been so. Four or five weekly newspapers have been started since its demise under very different auspices, and conducted by a very different class of men, but somewhat after the model of the *Owl*. These prints live on personalities. Gossip, scandal, innuendo, and insinuation are their meat and drink. Their managers or proprietors keep detectives hovering about the lobbies of the House of Commons, flitting about the back-stairs of houses where the great world congregate, attending popular churches, frequenting the easier kinds of clubs, pushing their way into the private houses of the humblest among our public men. They pay these detectives for all the garbage of fashionable or domestic life that they can rake together. They fill their pages with familiar notices of the personal habits of members of the royal family and their immediate surroundings: how often the Prince of Wales dined at the Orleans Club, and what he had for dinner; what the Duke of Teck does when he goes for a stroll in the streets; how the Marquis of Lorne employs himself of a morning—and so on. They photograph in writing the tricks and ways of members of Parliament—what Mr. Forster does with his legs or Mr. Goschen with his hat; the color of Mr. Gladstone's necktie or the shape of his waistcoat; the character of the polish on Lord Barrington's boots; and even the less pleasing personal peculiarities of individual members. They have their men waiting outside the door among the footmen at a rout, to pick up the gossip of the servants' hall and to describe the domestic doings

of the various households, and the jewelry and dresses of the ladies. They hunt out the names and colors of the vestments in which the Reverend A. B. and the Right Reverend C. D. deck themselves for their several performances, and they tell you how they look when they say their prayers. They pick up the tittle-tattle of the clubs, and advertise the squabbles of the managers and their shoeblacks. They libel the cook of this club, and insinuate malversation on the part of the secretary of that. They tell you how such a baronet treats the servants in one place; how a member of Parliament is treated by his club colleagues in another; how a privy councillor has lost his own and borrowed his brother-in-law's money in a third. They throw a transparent disguise over the persons in question, behind which they hope to shelter themselves from legal proceedings, but take care to have no doubt as to whom the allusion refers. Nothing is sacred from these harpies of the new weekly press. Men are not ashamed to lay themselves out for this sort of dirty work, and to prostitute their sons and grandsons to the trade. They thrust themselves into private houses to describe the furniture and surroundings of a man of letters. They fee the servants to let them see their master's private rooms and supply them with details of their mistress's daily life. A tribe of literary Peeping Toms is growing up amongst us whose vocation in life it is to see as many public people as they can stripped of the garments of conventionality, in order that they may gratify their curiosity and exhibit the results of it before a congenial audience of enquiring spirits. For there are congenial audiences who take pleasure in these exposures, otherwise they would not be given. Who these people are, or of what kind they are, who read with anything but contempt this new form of periodical literature I do not know, nor do I care to enquire. Till quite lately it had no place in England. But it is now growing like a noxious weed and spreading over all the country. Provincial papers begin to think it pays, and provincial editors demand such stuff as this from their London correspondents, and copy piquant extracts from the four or five papers to which I have alluded. No feature of our social life is more suggestive of evil, or more calculated to fill one with misgiving, than this craving for an insight into the private life and indoors habits of men of eminence. But it is extending beyond the circle of these ephemeral and contemptible prints. It is invading the higher region of contemporary fiction, and worming itself into the periodicals of the better class. In a future letter I shall allude to this later development. For the present you have probably had enough of it.

THE BROGLIE FAMILY.

PARIS, June 15.

THE two volumes of the correspondence of M. Doudan have met with such an extraordinary success, even at a time when all minds are absorbed in politics, that Madame du Parquet, their editor, has published a new volume of the letters, and promises to publish soon a fourth. This correspondence is not read, however, chiefly for its great literary merit; people try to study in it the little society of the Broglies. M. Doudan belonged, as it were, by adoption to this extraordinary family, the head of which has now again for the second time taken in his hands the destinies of France. The present Duc de Broglie made the revolution of the 24th of May, and hurled M. Thiers from power. Though he did not dictate the famous letter addressed the 16th of May this year by Marshal MacMahon to M. Jules Simon, and contented himself with accepting the presidency of the present Cabinet after the Marshal had made up his mind to dismiss his Republican Cabinet, it cannot be denied that he has always remained the chosen adviser of MacMahon. It was natural that the Marshal should trust more than any other the man who had placed him in power, to whom he is drawn by great and well-deserved personal respect, as there is no statesman whose life is more dignified and virtuous than the Duc de Broglie's. The duke had advised him after the last general elections, which gave an overwhelming majority to the Republicans, to give a fair chance to that party—to try M. Dufaure, then M. de Marcère, then M. Jules Simon; at the same time he had always urged him to use his constitutional rights as soon as he found that the ministers were disorganizing the administration of the country. I doubt whether the Duc de Broglie was not himself much surprised when the Marshal spoke his "non possumus" and dismissed M. Jules Simon in an off-hand manner. He could not, however, refuse to take office, and he has accepted the responsibility of a situation which is full of peril. Few people know him well, as he is shy and proud; the majority of Frenchmen have taken it for granted that, being a duke, he must be a monarchist; that, being his father's son, he must be a doctrinaire. But it is not so; the ruling passion of his life is his sincere Catholicism; it has made him a Conservative, quite independently of the form of government. I remember the time, when Emile Ollivier came into power, when he leaned towards the Empire, as did also Montalembert, though they had both spent the best years of their lives in opposition to it. After the 24th of May, in his first circular to the prefects, he said distinctly that "nothing would be changed in the existing laws," thus showing that he had no objection to M. Thiers on monarchical grounds. He never favored the scheme of the fusion, and remained quite neutral during the negotiations between the Chamber and the Comte de Chambord. The position he assumes now is this: "I work for the interests of conservatism; I am the head of a Conservative union or coalition against Radicalism; I will not upset the Constitution nor the Republic; but my Republic will not be the Republic of Gambetta or even of Jules Simon." If it could last it would be a MacMahonian Republic, the "république sans républicains," as M. Thiers said one day. Such a Republic is in danger of being also called "l'Empire sans l'Empereur," as it would be a form of personal government, helped by official candidatures in the elections, and by the numerous laws against the press and against public meetings which are still in existence; it would be that "strong government" which has been the dream of so many of our statesmen, who, perhaps, did not reflect that there can be no strong government with weak men, and that with strong men all governments are strong.

I have allowed myself to go a little too much out of my subject; the personality of M. de Broglie is so interesting, and, in many respects, so little known that I may be pardoned for saying what I think of him. Let us see if we can get a little more light in M. Doudan's correspondence. I am sorry to say that this correspondence leaves the present Duc de Broglie in the background. M. Doudan does not often write to him; he sometimes speaks of him in an affectionate manner, but without much detail. It is clear that Albert, as he always calls him, appears to him always as a boy; he has known him as such, and when the boy grows older, when he studies the fathers of the Greek Church, when he prepares himself for politics, when he marries, M. Doudan does not much change his style and manner towards him. He was a great moralist, and had discovered in his pupil a tinge of conceit which he was always trying to destroy, and in his effort he became sometimes unjust towards him.

The charm of the new volume is of that exquisite and delicate kind which it is very difficult to express; the fluency of the style, the delicate shading of the expressions, the refinement of all the feelings—a sort of dilettanteism without any affectation or pretension. You feel in reading these letters the same sort of pleasure you feel when you look at a charming landscape, where the shadows and the lights, the ripples of the water on a lake, all sorts of delightful sensations, compose a sort of semi-intellectual and semi-material happiness, which is like a succession of pleasant dreams. Doudan's soul was not a dormant soul, as his intellect was constantly alive and occupied, but it was never much agitated; the events of the revolutionary times only make a ripple on its surface. The revolution of 1848 had completely overthrown the edifice on which the Broglie family stood, like a statue on a great portico. He would have read books on the ruins of Carthage, not sat, like Marius, dreaming of vengeance. He took refuge in the past, in history, or in the world of imagination.

"Je ne veux plus d'un monde où tout change, où tout passe."

He hears from a distance the clashing of the arms of the parties which are disputing and threatening. He is very sceptical; speaking of a Republican prefect who had made it a crime to doubt "the greatness and the stability of the Republic," he says: "As for its stability, I know not, and it seems to me that Louis Napoleon knocks at the door with a mixture of force and of discretion." He enjoys his quiet life at Broglie, where the squirrels continue to go up and down the trees without enquiring for Paris news. "There is not one of them who subscribes to the meanest newspaper"; the cows in the field ignore the Ledru-Rollins or Louis Blancs who speak of recommencing the universe on a better plan. He is a fatalist also, and knows that a revolution has its laws, like a projectile which follows its parabola. He sees very early that the Republic will end in an Empire. When the heart is empty, the first comer will storm it without difficulty. "This Prince Napoleon, . . . for whom nobody ever had a thought six months ago, has suddenly become an object of humanitarian love." When he sees certain people trying to attack the revolutionary and socialist spirit in books and pamphlets, Doudan shrugs his shoulders: "The new spirit cannot be conjured with pen and ink. The only thing is to remain in the ark, when one has a little ark to himself, to

converse with friends of things eternal, to open the window from time to time to see if some head of a mountain is emerging from the waters."

In the 'Femmes Savantes' Molière has a small valet who makes a hasty movement and falls to the ground; upon which one of the ladies exclaims, and explains to the poor boy the theory of the centre of gravity: "Did you not perceive, young man, that your centre of gravity was no longer in the proper place?"

"Je m'en suis aperçu, Madame, étant par terre."

It is evident that Doudan looks upon all his doctrinaire friends with a slight feeling of pity and contempt. They also "s'en étaient aperçu, étant par terre"; the same may be said of the Republicans. They did not understand that Prince Napoleon was altering the centre of gravity of the Republic. All M. Doudan's letters during the period of the *coup d'état* have been suppressed, and I deplore it, for they cannot but be extremely interesting. In the first letter after this event which is allowed publicity we find this judgment (11th February, 1852): "When the dust of the batttle shall have settled, we shall all of us take our natural course again. As for myself, who have never lived except with the liberty of thinking, of speaking, of writing, I shall, I dare say, have much difficulty in getting accustomed to the beneficent régime inaugurated on the 2d of December. It seems to me that I live in a new planet, in a planet where there is a great silence, a dry and cold wind. The profound spirits say that this is the condition of order; I am quite incapable of contradicting them." Doudan was too much of a philosopher not to understand that reason in politics is not different from reason in morals; that it ought to be neither violent, nor unjust, nor injurious. He disliked what he called the "possessed." The evil one, says he in one of his letters, puts a good idea into a mind, and with some heat he dilates this idea till the unfortunate mind is like a cow who has eaten too much clover. "All systematic minds are, more or less, under the rule of the evil one, who inspires them with an imperious tone, contempt of all others, contempt of all ideas different from their own. This is the worm at the bottom of this rose which you call M. de Montalembert; of this flower which you call M. de Maistre." A most admirable book of thoughts and maxims could be extracted from Doudan's correspondence. His was not only a noble and generous mind, it was deeply imbued with that sense which is the rarest of all—common sense.

Notes.

HURD & HOUGHTON announce 'Arizona as It Is,' by Hiram C. Hodge.——'Oriental Religions and their Relation to Universal Religion,' by the Rev. Samuel Johnson, will shortly be published by J. R. Osgood & Co.——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'The Johnson Manor,' by James Kent.——S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, publish immediately an American novelette called 'Tangled,' and have in press 'First Lessons in Latin,' by Prof. Elisha Jones, of the University of Michigan.——Dr. Henry E. Turner's interesting paper on the "Greenes of Warwick in Colonial History," read before the Rhode Island Society last February, has been printed in a thin volume (Newport). The Greenes in question were the descendants of the eldest son of John Greene, the founder, a different line from that which Gen. Nathanael Greene made illustrious. They were altogether a remarkable family, and can be cited as proof of hereditary character, if not hereditary genius. John Greene, by the way, was a surgeon, and his only daughter (who survived her infancy) "married James Sweet, and is reputed to be the progenetrix of the well-known race of bonesetters."——Lockwood, Brooks & Co., Boston, whose Harvard Book-rack was a very useful and ingenious contrivance, have now devised a Field Portfolio for the use of botanists, whether professional or amateur. It can be easily packed in a trunk, and contains twenty-four pages of porous paper, with room for more. Strips of gummed paper for fastening the plant to be preserved make the outfit complete.——The English papers report the discovery in South Australia of a copy of Charles and Mary Lamb's 'Poetry for Children,' a little work that appeared in 1809 in two volumes, was sold out rapidly, and then disappeared. Specimens of the eighty-four poems are to be given in this month's *Gentleman's Magazine*, but it cannot be doubted that a new edition of the work will be speedily brought out.

—Mrs. Elizabeth Thompson, of this city, already known for judicious gifts of money in aid of public objects, offers through the *Library Table* three prizes for essays on any phase of the "'Labor Question' considered in its widest scope." They are to be prepared as if for publication in newspapers, and therefore have a length assigned them of about 2,000 words; and after the three best have been rewarded with one hundred, seventy-five, and fifty dollars gold, respectively, Mrs. Thompson reserves to herself the right to accept as many of the remainder as she chooses at twenty dollars each. The articles should be sent to the office of the *Library Table*, 47 Lafayette Place, before October 1. The committee to pass upon them will be designated by the American Social Science Association at its approaching meeting. Mrs. Thompson has been led to make this offer from having been informed that there are three millions of unemployed persons in the United States. She does not expressly call for an answer to the questions: "Who can tell us why or how this appalling situation arose?" "Is there no remedy?" "Can anything be done for these idle millions?"—but they may serve to keep the essayists within bounds, and some good might be accomplished if the truth of the statement that one in every fourteen of the total population, or one in every four and a half of the working population, is out of employment, were investigated. For ourselves we do not believe it. The prescribed limit of the articles makes it certain, we fear, that the majority of them will be pure rubbish. A great many assertions and assumptions can be uttered in two thousand words; but hardly any remedy can be broached and none can be discussed so briefly.

—Some of the statistics of the graduating class of Cornell University have the curiosity of novelty. The class numbered 68, of whom 7 were women. It will scarcely be credited that these seven all expressed themselves in favor of co-education. Twenty-six of the young men did likewise; but they were outnumbered by the neutral, the non-committal, the indifferent, and the undecided. The "oldest man" (28 years of age) was a woman, and so was the "lightest man." The professed Republicans of the class were 32; the Independents, 13; and there was 1 Whig, but unfortunately for his usefulness he came not from the South but from California, where we know of no other member of the party except the Calaveras skull. Not a dozen men of the class could agree on the subject of religion; the list begins with 10 Liberal, and ends with 1 undecided and 1 doubtful, and includes 3 Spiritualists. Not a single graduate proposes to enter the ministry; 17 will follow engineering—civil or mechanical; the law claims 11, and teaching 10. The New-Yorkers in the class numbered 39; the Ohioans, 6; the New-Englanders, 4 (Maine and New Hampshire unrepresented). Among the civil engineers were three Brazilians.

—There is much good reading in *Lippincott's* for July. We can recommend Mr. Gibbs's "Edinburgh Jottings" (one of the illustrated articles) and Mrs. Wister's "Last Words from Sainte-Beuve" as being entertaining, and Mr. Harding's "Primary and Secondary Education in France" for its timely instructiveness. Mr. Sidney Lanier's "From the Flats" calls for more than one reading, perhaps, to master the full sense of it, but is still to our mind one of his least affected and most enjoyable shorter poems. A yearning akin to Mignon's finds very similar expression, but it is Georgia and not Italy

"Where white the quartz and pink the pebbles shine."

Certainly the best of the prose articles in this number is Mr. Henry James, jr.'s "An English Easter." It neither begins nor ends exactly as one might anticipate from its title, for the opening discourse on the arbitrariness of British customs is not at once seen to be a mere prelude to the remark that everybody quits London at Easter; nor that again to be introductory to an account of the writer's own flight into Kent, with which he concludes. But both the beginning and the end are delightful in different ways, the one full of picturesque description, the other of striking and original observations of men and manners. Mr. James grumbles a little, as it is his right in England, at the practice of keeping the servants out of the room at breakfast, and of depriving one of his napkin at luncheon, a meal which "differs from dinner only in being several degrees more elaborate and copious." But he has plenty of praise of English manly and womanly beauty, even among the lower grades of society; and in the rabble which followed Mr. George Odger's body to the grave, Mr. James could still see more to charm than to revolt him. Here is another compliment which might be called left-handed, but which on the whole will not excite British displeasure. He is speaking of the universal church-going on Sunday, and says:

"In this great exhibition there is something very striking to a stranger, something which he hardly knows whether to pronounce very sublime or very puerile. He inclines on the whole to pronounce it sublime, because it gives him the feeling that whenever it may become necessary for a people trained in these manœuvres to move all together under a common

direction, they will have it in them to do so with tremendous force and cohesiveness. We hear a good deal about the effect of the Prussian military system in consolidating the German people and making them available for a particular purpose; but I really think it not fanciful to say that the military punctuality which characterizes the English observance of Sunday ought to be appreciated in the same fashion."

—The late Robert Dale Owen, who died at his summer residence on Lake George on June 24, was son of the famous philanthropist, Robert Owen, and will be pronounced of the two the greater man. He was born in 1804, at New Lanark, in Scotland, the scene of his maternal grandfather's experiments in reconciling labor and capital, and accompanied his father to America at about the age of twenty, assisting in the foundation of the community at New Harmony, Indiana. This was the beginning of the Socialist furor in this country, though not actually the first community, since Robert Owen bought out the Rappites, and changed their Harmony to New Harmony. The enterprise, in spite of its being bolstered with seven "constitutions," broke down at the end of three years. The New Harmony *Gazette* was transferred to New York in 1830, and was edited for several years by Robert Dale Owen and Fanny Wright, his gifted and independent countrywoman, whose communistic effort among the blacks near Memphis, in 1825–28, and subsequent lecture tour through the States, had given her a notoriety which has perhaps too soon passed away. To her influence upon him may be traced his advocacy of the rights of women—a cause with which he was identified to the very last. When the opportunity came, in 1850, to give practical effect to his opinions, he succeeded, as a leading member of the Indiana Constitutional Convention in 1850, in making great changes in the laws respecting the property of married women, and is said to have been responsible for those loose provisions for divorce which have become the scandal of the State. At the same time, however, he rendered invaluable service by introducing the free-school system and by other measures of constitutional reform. His political career began in 1840 as a Van Buren elector. In 1843 and 1845 he was elected to Congress. In 1853, under Pierce's Administration, he was made chargé d'affaires at Naples, where he spent five years and first came in contact with Spiritualism, which completely mastered his convictions. Returning to this country in 1858, he published in the following year his 'Footfalls on the Boundary of Another World,' and this, with his 'Debatable Land' (1872), remains the most respectable and impressive contribution to the subject that has ever proceeded from a believer in the reality of Spiritual phenomena. At the outbreak of the rebellion, he threw himself unreservedly on the side of the Government, and strenuously urged the emancipation of the slaves. In defence of the policy already resolved upon, he published in 1864 'The Wrong of Slavery and Right of Emancipation.' Since the war he has been prominent chiefly as a Spiritualist, and his deception by the Katie King imposture and subsequent derangement, from which he quickly recovered, are still fresh in everybody's remembrance. Mr. Owen was a gentleman in the best sense of the word, and his early education in Switzerland and life-long scholarly habits, joined to native moderation of character, secured for him a sphere of usefulness and a degree of public esteem which his more radical and less dispassionate associates failed to attain.

—It would be unfair to assume that the President's appointee for Commissioner of Agriculture is destitute of all fitness for the place, though he might as well be for aught the public can judge. Gen. William G. Leduc, of Minnesota, is, we learn, a native of Ohio, a graduate of Kenyon College, and a special friend of the President's private secretary, whose qualifications for filling offices of such importance as that of Commissioner of Agriculture are unknown to us. Gen. Leduc is further described as a "practical farmer"—which is not reassuring—and as having taken part in the construction of the Northern Pacific Railroad. His executive ability is to be inferred from these facts, and from his service in the army as a quartermaster, brevetted brigadier. The appointment, however, is to be judged not merely by itself, but as a selection, and a selection from actual candidates. Regarded in this light, it seems to be a rejection of the scientific view of the functions of the Department which has been urged with so much force during the past few months, and which every one hoped would find favor with the President and result in the choice of Dr. John Le Conte. As Dr. Le Conte's executive capacity is unquestioned, we know no principle of selection except that of "caste" which should make Gen. Leduc outrank him. At all events, the country will be surprised if the new incumbent introduces any material changes in the administration of the Department.

—We remarked the other day that the Boston in which Mr. Motley grew up existed no longer, though a good many Bostonians had yet to discover the fact. As the most significant change which has come over the city has been the altered ratio of the native and foreign population, so that the latter now greatly preponderate, one might naturally ascribe to this the decay of municipal feeling evinced by the desperate struggle to preserve the Old South. This theory is at least invalidated by the attitude of the Church itself towards its cast-off meeting-house; and there is besides plenty of evidence that the Bostonians *pur sang* are no longer united on questions of local sentiment. The Common, for instance, used to be peculiarly the pride of the city. No description of any other park could make his forty acres seem to the true Bostonian either petty or ill-kept. In its place certainly it is not petty, and if it has been ill-kept, this has been due more to ignorance on the part of the city foresters than to wilful neglect. Of late years there have been numerous attacks on it by and through the city government, but hitherto they have not been successful in cutting off any portion of it, or in running streets through it, or in building permanently upon it. The thoroughfare project was headed off by an act of legislature; but the schemes for buildings of a more or less temporary and popular character for shows, festivals, etc., had not yet received a similar quietus when the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanics' Association, whose annual exhibition is a great occasion in Boston, endeavored to secure the training and ball-ground as a place to erect a building for that purpose. This very wealthy and respectable society found no difficulty in presenting a strong petition, which the Board of Aldermen incontinently granted; and then the Boston of other days woke up and began its remonstrance. The story is too long to rehearse here. It is fully told in a report of the committee of the remonstrants, forming an interesting pamphlet under the title of 'The Public Rights in Boston Common.' The result was a division in the city councils, followed by another successful appeal to the legislature for a general act prohibiting such use or abuse of commons. Without going into the merits of the controversy, we simply remark the curious fact that the wealth, intelligence, and blue blood of Boston were by no means confined to the remonstrants, and that, as far as we can judge by names, the Irish aldermen and councilmen mainly voted against the petition and actually defeated it. A Catholic priest made a very forcible argument in committee against the proposed building as an injury to his poorer parishioners; while the Rev. E. E. Hale, so zealous on behalf of the Old South, appeared as one of the Association's witnesses. Mr. William H. Whitmore, chairman of the citizens' committee, has appended to the report a short history of the Common, which shows it to have been part of the land assigned in 1633 to William Blackstone, that worthy squatter who had anticipated the settlement of Boston by the Massachusetts Bay Company, and who was thus bought off.

—As a political satire not much can be said of 'Humors of the Times,' a pamphlet play, "printed for the author," which reaches us from Chicago. Its first act consists of conversations that might have taken place among the leading Republican machinists at about the time of Hayes's inauguration, if they had been the shallow rascals some of their opponents declared them to be. Of the second and final act we have only the argument, and naturally enough, since it includes the restoration of the Democratic candidate by the Supreme Court, the abdication of the President, and "a general hegira of officials and barnacles; all showing how retributive justice never sleeps, and how the whirligig of time brings its own revenges." The pamphlet is anonymous. In a crimson cover, bordered with black and adorned with skull and cross-bones, we have 'The Ku-Klux-Klan; or, The Carpet-Bagger in New Orleans,' a play in three acts, by Mrs. E. A. Merriwether, of Memphis, Tenn. This is written in far better temper than the Chicago burlesque, and indeed has some pretensions to literary merit. The plot, although disjointed, is possible, and the dialogues, while showing a lack of experience, might in the hands of a good amateur company make the piece as amusing as the "Spirit of Seventy-Six." There is throughout a curious mixture of allegory and fact. The names of the characters are a little too suggestive of the once popular but empty novel 'Ten Thousand a Year'; the *Widow Secesh*, for instance, has five sons—*Generl*, *Kernel*, *Major*, *Cappen*, and *Ku-Klux*, and the carpet-bagger, *Oily Unctuous*, is a lineal descendant of the junior partner in Quirk, Gammon & Snap. There is both humor and good humor in the little piece, and if the carpet-baggers are bad men, the ex-rebels very unfortunate, and the negroes put on airs, the one ex-Union soldier is a fine fellow who finally marries the young and lovely heroine. The one illustration is characteristic; in a Ku-Klux case ten negroes and two carpet-baggers form the jury, and the legend beneath is: "1*st Juryman*—'We'll bulldoze 'em.' 2*d Juryman*—'We'll 'timidate 'em.'"

—The "Convention of Geneva" of 1864 has been eclipsed in the popular mind by the later transactions, at the same city, in the direction of international reform—the Arbitration Commission of 1867 and the meeting, in 1874, of the two rival associations for international law reform. It marks, nevertheless, a distinct and important step in this reform, having been devoted solely to the object of protecting what may be called the hospital department, in all its branches, in time of war. We have received from Mr. L. W. Schmidt a prize essay upon this Convention by Prof. C. Lüder, of Erlangen, in the French translation made by authority of the "International Committee of the Red Cross"—the red cross on a white ground being the badge adopted by the Convention to designate the department in question. The discussion is complete—historical, critical, and dogmatic—and in a closing chapter the author suggests certain additional provisions, of a nature rather to define than to extend that of the Convention. In the war of 1870 some difficulties were found in the way of the practical working of the rules, and the author says in his preface that he "has attempted to resolve the conflict—apparently and to a certain extent really insoluble—between war and humanity by the establishment of fixed international rules. His point of view rests upon this idea, that the Convention of Geneva, as well as all international legislation, can have a durable life or be of a real utility only by lessening and combating exaggerated and illusory demands. . . . The Red Cross can be in war only servant, not master." An appendix contains, in a tabulated form, certain statistics bearing upon the subject, and the various other propositions intended to secure the same end.

—Under the title of 'Letters from Philadelphia' a number of occasional letters, contributed to a Vienna journal by the wife of Dr. Migerka, chief of the Austrian Commission to the Centennial Exposition, have been published in a neat pamphlet of about 200 pages ('Briefe aus Philadelphia (1876), an eine Freundin, von Catherina Migerka.' Vienna, 1877). The writer has evidently been a careful and not unfriendly observer of various American traits, and has given us a graceful and charming record of her impressions. She seems to have had good opportunities of studying our domestic life in its more favorable phases; is astonished by the number, variety, and extent of our beneficent institutions—by the fact that, in this country, so much of such work is done by women, and that all, or nearly all, of it is accomplished by the unaided efforts of private citizens. There are, also, chapters devoted to the Quakers, Sunday-schools, the American observance of Sunday, brief notes of travel, etc., etc. Without for a moment forgetting the real or imagined superiority of certain German ways, Madame Migerka is so cordial in her approval of what has pleased her that her little book must needs put American readers, and notably Philadelphians, in a good humor with themselves and the author.

—Amid the numerous publications—most of them of a very special and technical nature—that betoken the activity of the German mind in the department of Teutonic philology, we single out two or three more important or more attractive to the general reader than the rest. First, Lachmann's essays, under the title, 'Kleinere Schriften,' edited, vol. i., 'Deutsche Philologie,' by Müllenhoff; vol. ii., 'Classische Philologie,' by Vahlen. The value of such a collection is almost self-evident. No man played in his day a more important part than Lachmann, no man had more devoted followers, more determined and bitter opponents. Some of his earlier and *epoche-machend* essays have long been out of print, and are scarcely procurable on any terms. Müllenhoff, moreover, having access to Lachmann's manuscripts and private copies, has been able to supply the corrections that would have been made by the author himself, and in some instances even to add new matter that has never heretofore been printed. A notable instance of this is the second part of the celebrated essay on 'Old German Accent and Metres.' But, aside from corrections and additions, it is of interest to know that we have now for the first time an opportunity of studying Lachmann's essays in a compact, uniform, and comparatively inexpensive shape. The range of subject is wide and the treatment masterly. However much opinions may differ concerning the soundness of Lachmann's views, for instance upon the ballad-structure of the 'Nibelungenlied,' there can be no question as to his originality and vigor. He it was who first put the metrical system of Old and Middle High German in a clear light; who showed, by example and by criticism, how the early monuments of the language should be edited and interpreted, and who put an end for ever to the dilettanteism of such men as Von der Hagen. It is a pleasure and a stimulus to glance over the pages of Müllenhoff's volume and encounter on every side views that have long since become common property, but which here come to us with a touch of their original freshness.

—Wilmanns' 'Beiträge zur Erklärung und Geschichte des Nibelungenlieds,' a pamphlet of ninety pages, is the latest (of course not the *last*) word upon this inexhaustible theme. The author, an earnest but not blind adherent of Lachmann, attempts to apply the latter's views to the solution of some of the problems offered by the last third of the poem. The conduct and actions of Dietrich of Bern, as depicted by the poem in its present shape, are not self-consistent. Instead of attacking the Burgundians in revenge for the slaughter of his friend Rüdiger, he acts at first as a sort of peace-maker, and is finally goaded on only by the taunts of Hagen and the frenzy of Kriemhild. Wilmanns' theory is that that part of the Lied which relates to Dietrich is an interpolation in an earlier poem in which there was no Dietrich, but in which Rüdiger and Kriemhild were the chief figures.

—Weinhold's 'Mittelhochdeutsche Grammatik' is the most valuable production of its kind that we have had occasion to chronicle for some time. It is a full, we might almost say an exhaustive, treatise of 500 pp. The only defect that a somewhat cursory examination has revealed is the absence of anything relating to syntax. This, doubtless, was not within the author's intention. We are fully aware, of course, of the difficulties, many of them insuperable, that would beset any attempt to treat of mediæval syntax. The subject is in itself extremely complicated, and, furthermore, it cannot be mastered until much more has been accomplished in the study of general Indo-European syntax. The efforts of Erdmann in his 'Syntax bei Otfried,' although meeting with universal approval, are little more than a beginning. But while we make these concessions in favor of Weinhold, we cannot refrain from expressing our regret that he has not at least attempted to group under general headings a few of the more striking phenomena of mediæval German syntax. For instance, the use of the genitive case, adverbial forms, the government of verbs and prepositions. There are occasions upon which, as Grimm has quaintly expressed it, "one must have the courage to fail." And we think that a treatise upon the syntax of such a language is precisely one of the occasions where honest failure can bring no reproach and may lead to greater success. There are few languages that can vie with mediæval German for beauty of style and smoothness of versification. In fact, we go to the extent of believing that no language since the days of ancient Greece is its equal in the perfect adaptation of form to sense, of metre to movement. And we can imagine no pleasanter recreation for the professed scholar than to take with him, for the long vacation, Brockhaus' set of German classics of the Middle Ages, and give himself up to the æsthetic luxury of a quiet "read." Herein Weinhold's grammar will be an indispensable companion. It is clear, thoroughly scientific in its arrangement, fully abreast of the latest discoveries, and wonderfully copious in its illustrative examples. The chapter of thirty pages on "Word-Composition," for instance, leaves almost nothing to be desired, and a careful study of it will throw much light upon the same subject in modern German. To illustrate the author's advanced scholarship, we may state that he gives German *e* and *o* (the weakenings of primitive *a*) as earlier in development than the Gothic *i* and *u*. This view, in direct opposition to Grimm's, was first broached only twenty years ago, and has been fully established only within five years. Thus it is adopted in the last (third) edition of Fick's 'Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen,' but not in the earlier editions.

—A paper published three years ago by Drs. Deecke and Siegismund was so much of an advance on previous knowledge of the Cypriote characters just then being deciphered, that any thing in the way of research on that or kindred subjects by Dr. Deecke is to be received with respect. In his two papers, however, on the Cypriote and Phœnician alphabets he has entered on such a field of wild conjecture that one is compelled to conclude that the regretted death of Dr. Siegismund while exploring one of the tombs of Cyprus is a loss which his associate cannot make good. Dr. Deecke attempts, in his pamphlet on 'The Origin of the Cypriote Syllabary,' to show that it was adapted about the end of the eighth or first half of the seventh century before Christ from the cuneiform syllabary of Assyria, whose kings Sargon and Esarhaddon received the homage of the kings of Cyprus. To prove this notion Dr. Deecke gives tables of the Cypriote syllables, placing beside them the Assyrian characters corresponding in sound. Unfortunately, it takes great imagination to detect any resemblance, except in the case of *ki*, *pa*, and *mi*. But the sound of the cuneiform character which he makes *ki* does not begin with a palatal, but with the aspirate *cheth*, and there is no proper phonetic correspondence. The cuneiform syllable which he compares with the Cypriote *mi* is not *mi* in the Assyrian but *pi* turned over, and the Archaic *pi* at that;

which leaves us only *pa*, in which case the resemblance is striking and was noticed by Brandis. It is, however, in all probability purely accidental. It is utterly improbable that Cyprus, placed in the midst of the teeming commerce of the Mediterranean coasts for at least five centuries, and probably ten or fifteen, before the time of Sargon, with its cities and kings, had to wait for its alphabet till after the fall of the kingdom of Israel. Even if the Cypriote syllabary was taken from the cuneiform it is against all analogy to suppose that it would have been immediately altered out of all likeness to it. It probably had its source in some hieroglyphic system, possibly that of the Hamath or, more properly, Hittite inscriptions. At least three Cypriote characters, *ti*, *si*, and *mo*, are absolutely identical with the Hittite hieroglyphics, which gives a vastly better basis for conjecture than Dr. Deecke can find in the cuneiform. He makes a few suggestions as to the origin of the Aramaic characters which seem even more baseless, and the only really plausible suggestion is that the Greek upsilon, the first of the supplementary letters, was taken from the Cypriote *u*, with which it is identical in form.

—Dr. Deecke's paper on "The Origin of the Semitic Alphabet" appears in the journal of the German Oriental Society. In two tables he puts against the Phœnician letters whatever cuneiform characters he may select out of the whole number, from twenty to a hundred, that represent a syllable beginning with that or a kindred sound. Out of so large a field for choice it is not strange that he generally finds one having the desired number of strokes, no matter how arranged, and, considering the Assyrian polyphony, something like the desired meaning. In seeking for an Assyrian character, for example, to derive the Phœnician *k* from, he selects the most feasible form for transposition from the series—*ka, ki, ku; ga, gi, gu; qa, qi, qu; kab, gab, qab*, etc.—through the whole series of closed syllables. As if this were not sufficient, he even takes the entire range not of the ordinary cuneiform only, but also of the Archaic and the Median forms. When he finds one with the right number of straight lines in it he rearranges them into the requisite form. Of course, he succeeds in finding the little he wants. But to do it he goes to one of the Assyrian *kafs* for his *qof*, and to a *qof* for *kaf*; his *lamed* is from a character that is always phonetically pronounced *nu*; his *yod* is from an *ayin*, and so through the most of his list. His Assyrian characters are less trustworthy than might be desired, being derived largely from De Chossat, whose syllabary is full of blunders. The Assyrian characters are polyphones, it is true, but in ordinary use they had their fixed value, and the scribe or priest whom Deecke imagines to have made them over into Phœnician in the ninth century B.C. would really have been much more limited than Deecke imagines in his choice of characters. Even in the Phœnician Dr. Deecke shows himself too little of an epigraphist to treat the subject intelligently. The oldest Phœnician shows in certain letters, as in *beth*, *vav*, *lamed*, and *pe*, as written in the ninth century B.C., a curve element which Dr. Deecke does not at all comprehend. This unfortunate essay will certainly strengthen the confidence felt in the generally accepted theory of the Egyptian origin of the Phœnician alphabet.

LIFE AND LETTERS OF CHOPIN.*

IF music is the most subjective of the arts, the most subjective of musicians is F. Chopin. His works are so much the reflex of his own personal feelings, joys, and sufferings, that for an adequate appreciation and interpretation of them one must either have a natural affinity with the composer, or else be thoroughly familiar with the facts and peculiarities of his life, the circumstances under which his works originated, and the manners, customs, and fate of the Polish nation. In view of this, and also of the fact that next to novels biographies are perhaps the most popular class of books, it seems strange that so many years should have elapsed before any one undertook the task of preparing a biography of the Polish pianist and composer for that large body of readers who greedily swallow every detail of the lives and doings of great men. We know of only two sketches of the life of Chopin. Franz Liszt, his great admirer and friendly rival, has written a memoir of him in French (also translated into English), which, however, does not supply many facts, and is written in a too hyperbolical and sentimental style for the taste of the present day. It also contains several misstatements, two of which may be here corrected. Chopin was not from his fifteenth year a sickly and nervous youth, but only became so ten years later in Paris, in consequence of his irregular life. His eyes were dark-brown and not "light blue," as Liszt several times styles them. It is strange that Liszt, who associated so much with Chopin, should have made such a mistake. His memoir, however, is of value and interest because it gives the reader a vivid idea of life in Poland, and hence of that *milieu*, or surrounding circumstances and associations, a knowledge of which is so important in forming an estimate of an artist's activity. The other sketch is by La Mara, in the first volume of her interesting 'Musikalische Studienköpfe,' but is too brief and incomplete to deserve any other name than that of a musical reverie. Material for a biography of Chopin is also scattered through the works of George Sand, Heine, Hiller, and Schumann.

"Chopin is and remains the boldest and proudest poetic spirit of his time." This opinion of Schumann's M. Karasowski has used as the motto of his interesting biography, which embodies all that is known of the life of Chopin, with remarks on his works, and contains all his letters to his parents and friends up to the year 1831, seventeen years before his death. The remainder of the letters, unfortunately, were destroyed during an insurrection at Warsaw by a band of soldiers, who used them, together with a number of other relics of the composer, to keep up a fire at which they were brewing a punch. The loss of these letters is all the more to be regretted as they contained a record of the most brilliant period of the author's career—his sojourn at Paris, where he came into contact with the most distinguished men and women of the period, such as Liszt, Mendelssohn, Cherubini, Rossini, Heine, and George Sand. Chopin was not very fond of writing letters. It is known that sometimes he would run over half Paris to save himself the trouble of writing a note. But in his letters to his parents and one or two intimate friends he used to give unreserved expression to his thoughts and feelings. There is sometimes in them a touch of humor that reminds one of Heine; and great men he often characterizes admirably with a few strokes of the pen. One citation may serve as a specimen. In a letter dated Vienna, December 25, 1830, he says: "Thalberg is also here at present and plays admirably, but he is not my man. He is younger than I, is a great favorite with the ladies, writes *potpourris* on 'Masaniello,' plays his *forte* and *piano* with the pedal and not with the hand, strikes tenths as easily as I do octaves, and wears diamond studs in his shirt. Moscheles he does not at all admire, and it is, therefore, no wonder that he likes merely the *tuttis* in my concerto. He also writes concertos."

Closely connected with this felicity in sketching was his great gift of mimicry, which was developed early in his youth. His first letters were written from Berlin, where his father had sent him that he might become familiar with the best German and Italian music. His natural timidity and diffidence prevented him from seeking an introduction to Spontini, Zelter, Mendelssohn, and other great musicians he saw there. Instead of this he took the liberty of making caricatures of them, which always remained one of his favorite amusements. Some good stories are told in the book of how he used to amuse his friends by imitating various peasant dialects, as well as the manner and style of playing of Liszt, Kalkbrenner, Pixis, and other eminent pianists. A distinguished French actor once confessed that he had never before met with such great imitative talent. Another faculty which was developed in Chopin at an early age was that of improvising, in which he always greatly distinguished himself. Often, for hours at a time, he would keep a company spell-bound, performer and hearers being alike unconscious of the lapse of time. At his first concert in Vienna he improvised on an air from the "Dame Blanche," and subsequently on a Polish song—a feat which pianists nowadays would scarcely venture upon in public.

Although Chopin spent the greater part of his life at Paris and his father was of French birth (Nancy), yet his compositions show scarcely a trace of French influence. Such an original and deep nature as his was not likely to be carried along by the noisy and foaming, but superficial, current of French music. Nor, on the other hand, does he seem to belong to either of the two other great branches of musical development, the German and the Italian. His compositions are Polish in body and spirit, in structure and sentiment, and one recognizes their nationality as easily as one does that of a Japanese silhouette. The compositions of Rubinstein often betray a Russian, those of Liszt a Hungarian, origin, but not to such an extent as the compositions of Chopin betray their native soil. In his moral character and mode of life, however, the French element was much more prominent. Schopenhauer might have pointed to him as confirming his pet theory, that a man of genius gets his intellectual faculties and tendencies from his mother, but his will, or character, from his father. Chopin's mother was Polish, and to Poland his father emigrated as a young man, where, in course of time, he obtained a professorship of the French language

* 'Friedrich Chopin: Sein Leben, Werke, und Briefe. Von M. Karasowski.' 2 vols. Dresden: F. Ries. 1877.

in the Lyceum at Warsaw. Here Frederic Chopin was born, in the year 1809 (not 1810, as his statue in Père-la-Chaise at Paris erroneously indicates). He had two sisters, one of whom died young, while the other is still living and has distinguished herself as a writer on educational subjects. Nicholas Chopin enjoyed such a good reputation that a number of the best Polish families had their sons educated at his house, and the constant intercourse with these families could not but contribute to form those refined and polished manners which afterwards so characterized his son Frederic. The musical talent of young Chopin, as has been the case with perhaps all the great pianists, was developed very early. Like Rubinstein, he was eight years old when he appeared for the first time on the concert-stage. The concert was for the benefit of the poor, and it is remarkable that his last concert, given in Paris thirty-three years subsequently, was also for a charitable object—the proceeds being devoted to the Polish fugitives in that city. The only teacher Chopin ever had was the composer Elsner, who showed his sense and liberality by not attempting to force the genius of his pupil into the Procrustes-bed of traditional forms and usages. He seemed to recognize the principle that every genuine artist is like a new kind of crystal, which must be allowed to crystallize in its own original way. "Leave him alone,' he used to say; "he does not follow the usual path because his talent is of an unusual kind. He will in his works discover an originality such as has been shown by no one up to his time." And Elsner was right. Not only does Chopin never repeat himself, but in all his works there is scarcely a bar which has a parallel in the compositions of any other composer excepting his imitators. His horror of antiquated phrases and cadences and of superannuated forms is as great as Wagner's. Another peculiarity of his compositions is that there seems to be little development in the direction of maturity from the earliest to the latest of them. From beginning to end there is the same wealth and gorgeous brilliancy of ideas, the same well-rounded form. This may partly be accounted for by his habit of severe self-criticism, which induced him to consign to the waste-paper basket many pieces that other composers would have saved.

Frederic was at first destined by his parents for no higher position than that of a first-class piano teacher. But when his talents began to unfold themselves so rapidly, steps were taken to provide him with the education necessary for the career of an artist. He was sent to Vienna. His journey took him through Dresden, where he was fortunate enough to witness the first performance on any stage of Goethe's "Faust," with Devrient as *Faust*. To be sure of getting a ticket, the young artist took his stand at the ticket-office before five o'clock. The performance lasted five hours—that is, just as long as Wagner's later music dramas. "A fearful but grand imagination," is the only remark he makes on it. In all of his letters, much as he speaks of performances he heard, it is a peculiarity of his that he discusses merely the actors and scarcely ever the work. The Dresden gallery made a great impression on him. "If I lived here," he writes, "I should go to it every week, for there are in it pictures at sight of which I imagine I hear music." At Vienna he was at first well received, although his playing made a greater impression than his compositions.

The prejudices arising from the political disturbances in Poland, the jealousy of rival pianists, and financial embarrassments, finally induced Chopin to leave Vienna and go to Paris, which was then the first, as it is now the last, of the musical capitals of Europe. Even here it took him two months to make arrangements for a concert, which was ultimately attended almost solely by the richer Polish residents in Paris, and did not even pay expenses. This so discouraged him that he for some time entertained the idea of emigrating to America, but finally made up his mind to go back to his native city. But, on the eve of his departure, he accepted an invitation to an evening party at Rothschild's. He was invited to play, and his improvisation produced such an impression that on the same evening his services as teacher were requested by some of the first families of Paris, his pecuniary embarrassments ceased, and in a short time he found himself the lion of the day, overwhelmed with honors and petted by the ladies. As a teacher Chopin never took less than twenty francs a lesson, and no consideration, pecuniary or otherwise, could induce him to take any but pupils of talent. All his pupils had to begin with Clementi's 'Gradus ad Parnassum,' and the formation of a delicate touch was his principal aim with them. He himself always practised Bach when preparing for a concert. His æsthetic tastes led him to join the so-called "romantic" school of Liszt and Berlioz. We must refer to the book itself for the interesting and romantic account of his connection with George Sand and their final separation, chiefly through the medium of her novel, 'Lucrezia Floriana,' in which Chopin and George Sand figure as hero and heroine. The influence of these two remarkable minds on each other was very great. A French writer says of George Sand: "When she was writing she would often ask Chopin to sit down by the piano and improvise, and, inspired by his playing, she wrote some of her finest novels."

Some of the peculiarities of Chopin's life, character, and works not yet touched upon must be summed up in a few words. His last years were as full of mental anguish and nervous suffering as those of Heine, with whose genius his own had much affinity. This is especially shown in that peculiar sudden change from a sad to a humorous, from a humorous to a sad tone, which characterizes the work of both. It has often been remarked that in the expression of refined Jewish ladies there is always a feature of sadness and melancholy, like an impress or shadow of the great sufferings to which their race was for so many centuries subjected. In the same manner the proverbially unhappy fates of the Polish nation are reflected in the works of Chopin. In all of them, even the most gay, there is an undercurrent of deep sadness, which swells to a torrent of tears when we come to his divine nocturnes, those priceless musical jewels, each of which in depth and polish is an imperial diamond of the purest water. Melancholy, fantastic, dreamy, solemn—who has ever realized what these psychological qualities are in their essence before making the acquaintance of these nocturnes? They are, in our opinion, his greatest works, those on which his immortality will chiefly rest. But yet how few can play them as they ought to be played? Next in beauty and importance are his mazurkas, in which he has worked up the folk-songs of Poland, as German and Greek poets have worked up the legends of their nation into some of their finest poems. His Polonaises explain themselves by their name. His very *études*, or studies, are characterized by great poetic beauty. Chopin wrote much dance-music, which, however, as he says himself in a letter, is not meant to be danced to. His waltzes are as superior to those of Strauss as Wagner's music-dramas are to the operettas of Offenbach. He composed only for the piano (he is the parlor-musician *par excellence*), but he has done for the parlor instrument what Wagner has done for the orchestra, in the development of new resources of coloring. Second only to the Bayreuth master in his command over new harmonic progressions and combinations, he stands alone among modern composers for originality of rhythmical invention. Every year adds to our appreciation of the orchis-like Polish composer, but yet what George Sand says in her 'Histoire de ma vie' is still to a great extent true of the present day: "We must make great progress in our taste and appreciation of the musical art before the works of Chopin can attain that popularity which they deserve."

LODGE'S CABOT.*

THIS book is a considerable addition to the historical literature of the United States; in fact, it is a direct continuation of Mr. George Gibbs's 'Memoir of Oliver Wolcott,' which is better known as the 'History of the Administrations of Washington and Adams.' Both are histories of New England Federalism, but Mr. Gibbs stopped short at the year 1801, while Mr. John C. Hamilton's 'Memoir of Alexander Hamilton,' which is also better known under the more ambitious title of 'History of the Republic,' stops with the death of its principal character in 1804. The 'Life of George Cabot' carries the story down to the extinction of Federalism in the peace of Ghent. There remains to be written only the life of Rufus King to place Federalism in one complete picture before the eyes of historians.

All these works are, in reality, biographies, and avowedly partisan. Mr. Lodge aims, like the others, at presenting his side of the picture, and, naturally, the view of his ancestor, in the most favorable light; but he writes with good temper, and, as a rule, is disposed to let his characters speak for themselves, which is a great virtue in a biographer. But, what is of more consequence, Mr. Lodge, like Mr. Gibbs, has had the courage and the honesty to conceal nothing and to print all his documents without omission or amendment. How rare this virtue is among biographers is shown by an example drawn from Mr. Lodge's own book. Many of his most interesting and most important documents, and the greater part of his proofs, are drawn from the Pickering MS. in the Library of the Massachusetts Historical Society; yet not one of these is to be found in the late life of Timothy Pickering by Mr. Upham, from which not the faintest conception of Mr. Pickering, as presented in Mr. Lodge's book, can be drawn. Mr. Upham, acting, as he doubtless supposed, in the interests of

* 'Life and Letters of George Cabot. By Henry Cabot Lodge.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877.

peace and good feeling, calmly suppressed a most important chapter of our history. This is not altogether surprising, since the papers, if published, must have shown Pickering in the light of a most indefatigable and successful plotter against the Union; but the suppression renders the book nearly worthless.

George Cabot is now principally remembered as the head of the Essex Junta and the president of the Hartford Convention. Next to Hamilton, and side by side with Rufus King, he was revered in his time as the oracle of Federalism. His public life was of little importance. Natural indolence and dislike of the rough personal collisions of politics led him to resign his seat in the Senate in the year 1796, after only five years' service, and to decline a seat in the Cabinet in 1798, but he was not the less a party leader; his friends invariably came to him for advice, and, whenever it was possible, they pushed him into responsible positions in spite of his obstinate resistance. He was Federalist to the core. He hated two things with all the vehemence of which his indolent and liberal nature was capable, and these two antipathies were democracy and France. He held the firm conviction that democracy must, in the end, overthrow society and itself, and that from the ruins a conservative government must arise. Like Hamilton and Fisher Ames, he believed that a "crisis" was inevitable, but the difference between him and his more ardent friends was that while they always thought the crisis at hand, he passed his time in convincing them that the fated moment had not yet arrived.

The two most valuable portions of this book deal with two of these supposed "crises." The first of these was in 1804, when many Federalist leaders, exasperated by Jefferson's removals from office, his purchase of Louisiana, his amendment of the Constitution relating to the mode of election of Vice-President, and his, or John Randolph's, impeachment of Judge Chase, formed a scheme for dissolving the Union and establishing a Northern Confederacy, with New York for its capital. The plot was hatched in Washington in the winter and spring of 1804. Timothy Pickering, Roger Griswold, Uriah Tracy, and half a dozen other New England Senators and members were privy to it, and by common agreement wrote to their friends to prepare the necessary measures. Griswold wrote to Oliver Wolcott a letter which has been printed in J. C. Hamilton's 'History of the Republic.' Wolcott seems to have sent the letter to Hamilton, and indeed there was reason enough why Hamilton should have been warned, for this wild scheme involved the entire disregard of Hamilton and the substitution of Burr as the Federal leader in a plan of disunion. To Hamilton was left only the possibility of an ultimate military leadership. Burr was to be made the Federal candidate for Governor of New York, and, if successful, the conspirators believed that he must go with them to the end. Hamilton naturally opposed this absurdity, defeated Burr's candidacy, exposed himself by bitter and unnecessary personal attacks on Burr's character to a challenge, and in July, 1804, fell under Burr's pistol. The plot came thus to an end, but the correspondence it caused is still most interesting reading, and Mr. Lodge gives a new instalment of it.

This episode, one of the most dramatic in our history, is as yet little familiar to the public, and indeed the subject has never been one of those on which New England is fond of talking. As a statement, therefore, of Essex-Junta Federalism, nothing can be more interesting than the two letters of Pickering and Cabot, dated, respectively, Jan. 29, 1804, and February 14, following. Here are a few extracts from Pickering's letter:

". . . I do not believe in the practicability of a long-continued Union. . . . I believe, indeed, that if a Northern Confederacy were forming, our Southern brethren would be seriously alarmed, and probably abandon their virulent measures. But I greatly doubt whether prudence should suffer the connection to continue much longer. . . . But when and how is a separation to be effected? . . . It must begin in Massachusetts. The proposition would be welcomed in Connecticut. And could we doubt of New Hampshire? But New York must be associated, and how is her concurrence to be obtained? She must be made the centre of the Confederacy. Vermont and New Hampshire would follow, of course, and Rhode Island of necessity. Who can be consulted, and who will take the lead? The Legislature of Massachusetts and Connecticut meet in May, and of New Hampshire in the same month or in June. The subject has engaged the contemplation of many. The Connecticut gentlemen have seriously meditated upon it. . . . Perhaps a crisis may occur to mark the moment for decisive measures. Perhaps the violation of the Constitution in the arbitrary removal of the judges may hasten such a crisis. The signal, a bold but safe step by members of Congress."

To all of which Mr. Cabot answered as follows:

". . . I greatly fear that a separation would be no remedy, because the source of the evils is in the political theories of our country and in ourselves. A separation at some period not very remote may possibly take place; the first impression of it is even now favorably received by many; but I cannot flatter myself with the expectation of essential good to proceed from it while we retain maxims and principles which all experience, and, I may add, reason too, pronounce to be impracticable and absurd. . . . We are democratic altogether, and I hold democracy in its natural operation to be the government of the worst, . . . If no man in New England could vote for legislators who was not possessed in his own right of $2,000 value in land, we could do something better; but neither this nor other material improvement can be made by fair consent of the people. I incline to the opinion that the essential alterations which may in future be made to amend our forms of government will be the consequence only of great suffering or the immediate effects of violence. . . ."

All Pickering's other correspondents answered in the same sense, approving the principle but dissuading from immediate action, so that on March 4, Pickering, writing to Rufus King to urge the support of Burr, could say: "I do not know *one* reflecting Novanglian who is not anxious for the GREAT EVENT at which I have glanced." It is amusing to observe that not one of these correspondents or principals ever raised, or seems even to have thought of the objection, that the scheme proposed was treason.

The second important moment in Mr. Lodge's book is, of course, the Hartford Convention. He shows how, after the collapse of the plot in 1804, Mr. Pickering and his friends remained quiet for three years. When the embargo excitement began Pickering was again the stormy petrel of the Federalist party, and in his letter to Governor Sullivan, of April 16, 1808, made the first call for a combination of the New England States against the national Government. Jefferson was a second time forced to abandon his policy from fear of disunion, and Mr. Pickering was a second time reduced to silence. But when war was declared in June, 1812, he immediately got together a convention in Essex County which recommended a State Convention, and chose delegates to it. "This measure was defeated 'at the headquarters of good principles,'" a phrase which means Mr. Harrison Gray Otis, who, for many years, had stood in Pickering's path. How the extreme Federalists disliked Mr. Otis is amply shown by these letters; but as an example of the manner in which a whole respectable and honorably distinguished family may be swept into one common mass of carrion by party friends, the following letter of Pickering's, dated February 3, 1814, is worth attention:

"Conversing to-day with Mr. King on H. G. Otis, and his capital defect—timidity, he told me that his uncle, James Otis, who made so great a figure in the first contests with our parent country—while they rested on paper—was of the same cast of character; and added, that the whole race was distinguished by the same features. As for Sam. A. Otis, the Secretary of the Senate, I do not know a poorer creature under the sun, being alike destitute of understanding and independence. Of Jemmy Otis, as H. Gray Otis's uncle used to be called, Mr. King told me this anecdote: that after he had written his pamphlet on the rights of the colonies, he, under the influence of his fears, wrote another pamphlet taking back the substance of the former; all that was bold in character. This second pamphlet he met with in England. Massachusetts must select and support patriots of a different stamp from the Otises, if she would be relieved from present oppression, and secured against a confirmed tyranny."

Only eight months after this letter was written Mr. Otis made the one mistake of his political life, and became the "putative" father of the Hartford Convention. From the papers published by Mr. Lodge, it is now an easy task to settle the long-standing controversy in regard to the purposes of that body, and to see why it might be looked upon as a conservative and patriotic measure by Mr. Otis, and by Pickering and his friends as merely a stepping-stone to their long-expected "crisis." How startlingly close the Union then was to this "crisis" Mr. Lodge's book proves; and if the collapse of the plot of 1804, in the blood of Hamilton and the flight of Burr, was theatrical, the crash of the conspiracy of 1814, under the news of the peace of Ghent and the battle of New Orleans, was the final and culminating situation in this great historical drama.

It only remains to add that the papers are excellently edited, and the book admirably indexed.

The Ottoman Power in Europe: Its Nature, its Growth, and its Decline. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.)—Mr. Freeman says in his preface that he "wishes this little book to be taken as in some sort a companion to his lately reprinted 'History and Conquests of the Saracens.'" He sees, however, the difficulty which most readers will find in complying with his request, and adds that, "in ordinary language, my former book would be said to be primarily historical; it would be called political only secondarily and to

a small extent. My present book may be thought to be—and in the eyes of those who draw a distinction between history and politics it will be rightly thought to be—political rather than historical. But between history and politics I can draw no distinction. History is the politics of the past; politics are the history of the present. The same rules of criticism apply to judging alike of distant and of recent facts. The same eternal laws of right and wrong are to be applied in forming our estimate of the actors in either case." This is all true, and we think generally acknowledged; but there is, nevertheless, this important difference between the politics of the past and those of the present, that for the most part the former do not appeal with the same force to our feelings, and do not touch our interests at all, and therefore we are able to form an estimate of the actors in the one case with a judicial-mindedness which is by no means within our reach in the other. It is for this reason that the public does not follow writers, even of the highest mark, with the same confidence when they are treating contemporaneous questions as when they are dealing with the men and measures of the far past. It makes allowances for what it considers the inevitable influence, even on the clearest head, of the passions of the present hour, and, though it would be sorry to see the judge devoid of them, they none the less weaken its respect for his decisions.

In the case before us Mr. Freeman brings to the discussion of Turkish history the same great powers and attainments which produced the 'History of the Saracens,' and his conclusions—if the Turks had been driven out of Europe in 1609—would probably be received with equal respect. But it so happens that the Turks are still in Europe, and are playing to-day the part they have played for four hundred years; and the preservation of their empire is in the minds of large numbers of people associated with the continuance of the prosperity and greatness of their own country, and in the minds of large numbers of others with the hideous oppression of men of their own race and creed. No such conflict of passions and interests can be bred in our time by any political question of past ages. No such conflict could be bred by any discussion about the Turks if their power had passed away, were it only ten years ago. In 1862-3-4, who was the man in England who brought to the discussion or even description of the war in this country a calm or even unbiassed judgment? There would be no difficulty now in finding thousands who could do so. In short, it may be truly said that, though the subject-matter of history and politics may be essentially the same in character, there are difficulties in the way of forming sound opinions in the one which do not exist in the case of the other, and which no historian should ask us to overlook.

No one who is interested in the present Eastern Question could go to a better source than Mr. Freeman for an account within brief compass of its origin and history. He always writes as only a man can write who is saturated with his subject. Every line shows that he knows all about it, and that his knowledge is not of recent date, but is of long standing and has been thoroughly digested. The effect of this mastery of his subject, too, is heightened by his well-known love of iteration as an aid to clearness—iteration which is often, for readers of quick perceptions, carried to the point of weariness, though the slow-minded may find it helpful. He expounds with great pains and force the true bearing of the Mussulman faith on Mussulman politics, and the real nature of Mussulman toleration; shows the impossibility of reform as long as the Ottomans sincerely hold their religion; sketches the way in which they entered Europe and built up their power, and the causes of its decline; shows why they are not a nation and cannot become one, and demonstrates the utter hopelessness of effecting any real change for the better through their instrumentality in that part of Europe now under their control.

His treatment of the practical question of what is now to be done with them is full of valuable reminiscence and suggestion, but is marred by such violence of language, and evidence of deep animosity to living actors in the events now pending, as to give this part of the book the effect of a party pamphlet. His allusions to Hobart Pasha are what our newspapers call "scathing," but they are too much so to be effective, and the historical parallels which he cites for Hobart's baseness will not bear examination. The book is dedicated, and in not inappropriate terms, to the present Prince of Montenegro, and the tribute is worth citing:

> "Invictæ Gentis Invicto Principi,
> Fidei ac Libertatis Unico Propugnatori,
> In Cives Amabili, in Barbaros Terribili
> Nicolao,
> Dei Gratia
> Montis Nigri et Berdæ Principi,
> Vicinarum Gentium, Deo Juvante, Liberatori Futuro
> VITA ET VICTORIA.

The Best Reading. Hints on the selection of books, etc. Fourth revised edition. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.)—We have some admiration for the courage of a man who ventures to assert that his lists of books contain the *best* reading on their respective subjects. He will certainly come in conflict with the tastes, it may be with the superior knowledge, of specialists; and the reader who discovers one error or omission in a work of this sort immediately assumes the existence of many others in those parts of which he is a less competent critic. But such a book ought to be judged by its merits, not by its failures. Provided that the work is done with reasonable correctness, no one has a right to complain that more is not undertaken. Perhaps here and there better books might be substituted for those proposed by Mr. Perkins, or added to them; but no matter for that. He has everywhere brought together so many excellent titles as to make his work of the greatest value to buyers for town libraries, to students desiring to get easily a general knowledge of various questions, and to persons planning courses of reading. Of course the most careful compiler will occasionally forget or unwisely reject something that should be included. In the French Language we miss Brachet's 'Historical Grammar,' and none of the works there given are so useful as Otto's 'French Grammar.' Stanley's 'Jewish Church' is conspicuously absent from Jews, and Thackeray's 'English Humorists' does not appear under English Literature. Thackeray was so severely blamed for the satire of his earlier writings that we expected to find some mention of him under humorous and satirical works, but the 'Snob Papers' is not there; nor is his 'Prize Novelists,' though Bret Harte's 'Condensed Novels,' which certainly is not better, is included. We do not see anywhere the excellent South Kensington Art hand-books. As for the novels that might be added to the Fiction list it would be foolish to mention them, for the list does not pretend to be, and could not within any moderate limits seek to be, complete.

The headings seem well chosen, not according to any artificially simple plan, but to suit the very unsystematic way in which the names of subjects lie in the popular mind. For example, French grammars are to be found under French Language, but English grammars under Grammar, which is exactly where nine-tenths of the persons who will use the manual will look for them. By the way, the execution here is not quite satisfactory, as Mactzner's 'English Grammar' and a dozen other grammatical works are under English Language, and there is no clear indication under Grammar of the existence of the other heading. But, in general, cross-references (as "Psychology, *see* Metaphysics," "Jerusalem, *see also* Holy Land") remove the danger of missing subordinate or similar subjects. From Christianity there are thirty-two such references. But how difficult it is to satisfy all wants and provide for all questions may appear from a simple example. Among the works about Japan, Jarves's 'Art in Japan' does not appear. If it occurs to any one that it is put under Art, and he looks there to ascertain its price, he finds nothing whatever, not even a reference to Fine Arts, where the book very properly is, though still to be sought under the sub-heading History. Other instances of what in an elaborate and costly work would be called omissions might be found, but this book could not have been made buyable by men of moderate purse unless it could have counted upon a little common-sense and a little thinking on the part of those who use it. It is out of the question to refer from every word in the dictionary. Still there are some evident oversights, as when the reader is sent from Fine Arts to Sculpture to find there only a reference back to Fine Arts.

An occasional misprint is not of much consequence, as on p. 193, "Dirxen, Her Majesty's Tower," for Dixon. In the quotation from Seneca on p. 316, "Non refert quam multos libros sed quam honor HABEAS," it is easy to see that *bonos* should be substituted for *honor*, but why such unmerited prominence is bestowed upon *habeas*, and how to interpret Vinet's "Jeunesse et âge et mèr," on p. 287, is to us as yet an unsolved puzzle. The lists of foreign books from which this last title is taken are, at first sight, singularly incomplete. The list of French literature does not contain the names of Cherbuliez, Victor Hugo, Verne, or Dumas, and has only three works of George Sand; but the compiler who undertakes to "supply *unobjectionable* and entertaining reading to students and beginners" in French, walks in fetters, and probably the list could not have been much improved.

The next part of the volume is a collection of some fifty extracts about books, which will compare favorably with Fertiault's four hundred. Then follow "Suggestions for courses of reading," in Mr. Perkins's usual bright style, with extracts from Edward Everett Hale, Henry Ward Beecher, Dr. A. Potter, and Emerson. Mr. Perkins has not apparently any strong faith that his recommendations will be followed. No com-

mission has taken statistics on the subject, but it may be stated, without much fear of contradiction, that the number of persons who adhere to a course of reading not adopted for some professional end does not exceed the number who continue a journal without any expectation of its being published. It does not follow, however, that it is useless to begin a journal or lay out a course of reading. Both give one a very clear idea of one's weakness of purpose, and the course of reading, even if it does not run smoothly in its proposed way, is likely to branch out in some direction quite as profitable to pursue.

Basque Legends: collected, chiefly in the Labourd, by Rev. Wentworth Webster, M.A., Oxon. With an essay on the Basque Language by M. Julien Vinson, of the *Revue de Linguistique*, Paris. (London: Griffith & Farran. 1877.)—The Basques have been for centuries the puzzle of the philologist and ethnologist. The most approved methods of modern scientific study have been applied to them in vain. In regard to their language we only know its place in the great family of languages, and in regard to their nationality we know nothing. Any test, therefore, which can still be applied for the solution of the vexed question must possess unusual attractions for the student of languages and ethnology. Such a test the author of the work before us attempts to supply from an examination of the popular tales of the Basque people. The first collection of these tales was made by M. Cerquand in 1875–76 ('Légendes et récits populaires du Pays Basque,' Parts I., II., Paris), and Mr. Webster now adds about forty-one to the number previously known. They are given in as literal a translation as possible, with the narrators' names appended, and some attempt is made to compare them with those of other countries and to give a mythological explanation of them. The result, we are sorry to say, is not very great or encouraging. Indeed, there was not much to expect, as an examination of the tales of the other non-Aryan people in Europe (we leave the Turks out of the question), the Finno-Hungarians, had previously resulted in nothing, and if the Basques had failed to preserve a vestige of their primitive customs they might reasonably have been supposed to have accepted in the course of time the mythology of their neighbors. Unfortunately, too, the editor and collector is almost wholly ignorant of the folk-lore of the rest of Europe, and unacquainted with the scientific methods of study in this field. His results may be reduced to the following syllogism: Many Basque tales are like those in Campbell's 'West Highland Tales'; these are Keltic, therefore the Basques are of Keltic origin. We should substitute for the above: Campbell's 'West Highland Tales' are, with hardly an exception, the same as those of the rest of Europe; therefore the Basque tales are the same as those of other Aryan peoples, and if the Basques are not Aryan (which of course they are not), they have borrowed their folk-lore from the latter. This is all on the assumption that popular tales are of a primitive mythological origin; if Benfey's theory of their later introduction is accepted, then all difficulties vanish, and the Basques got their folk-lore, like the rest of Europe, by transmission.

The editor evidently has not seen R. Köhler's masterly notes to Campbell's 'Tales' in the now suspended periodical, *Orient und Occident* (Göttingen, 1862–66), vol. ii., where parallels from all parts of Europe are given. He does not even seem to be acquainted with the few French tales so far published, except the purely literary ones of Mme. d'Aulnoy, etc. After a careful examination of the volume before us, we are inclined to believe that there is very little in it that is really Basque, and that most of the stories are of French origin or have made their way to the Basques through a French medium. This is certainly the case with a number of stories whose French origin even the collector suspects; and a very little study would have settled the matter, as with the story of Juan de Kalais, which is identical with a French story of the same name (see Pfeiffer's 'Germania,' iii. 199–209). There are, however, some curious things in the book which cannot be settled until we have a complete collection of French tales, as, for instance, how two of Straparola's stories (v. 1; i. 3) got into circulation among the Basques. The first one, as Mr. Webster names it, 'The Grateful Tartaro and the Heren-Suge,' is also found in Grimm ('The Man of Iron'); the second, 'The Duped Priest,' is widely spread. Among the religious stories are the world-famous ones of the 'Wishing Sack' and 'Amis and Amiles,' about which latter the author naïvely says, "This seems to be one of the many variations of the 'Golden Legend' which Longfellow has so well versified." The collector's naïveté reaches its climax in his remarks on a story narrating the stupid tricks of a typical booby: "It is *possible* that this first part may be a narrative of fact. We have another tale of this kind, which may also be founded on fact, so sad is often the condition of the crétins in the mountains." Then follows the story of the booby whose mother tells him to cast sheep's eyes at the young girls, and who literally obeys her. This story, it is needless to say, is found from Norway to France, see *Orient und Occident*, ii. p. 684, *Jahrbuch für rom. und eng. Lit.*, v. 19.

It will be asked, in conclusion, what there is new in the book. Very little; some interesting variants of well-known stories, and some new names. The Tartaro is the giant or ogre of southern Europe.* He is one-eyed, and in so far is Cyclops, whose myth is quite closely repeated in the first story, which finds a counterpart in Pitrè, 'Fiabe,' etc., No. 51. The Heren-Suge is a seven-headed serpent, something like the Snake in Ralston's Russian Folk-Tales. The Basa-Jaun and Basa-Andre are the wild man and woman, the Lamiñak are fairies, who, as the author says, "do not differ more from the general run of Keltic fairies than the Scotch, Irish, Welsh, and Cornish fairies do from each other." Although Mr. Webster has failed to prove the Keltic origin of the Basques, his book is an interesting contribution from a hitherto almost unworked mine which may yet, in experienced hands, yield a rich treasure.

We must not omit mention of M. Vinson's short essay, in which a brief sketch is given of the Basque language and people, with a candid summary of the results of the latest study in this field.

Fine Arts.

THE DECORATION OF EARLY MEDICEAN PORCELAIN.

PERHAPS the most interesting specimen in the Castellani ceramic collection now at the Metropolitan Museum is the great lavabo, No. 339. It illustrates the discovery of a soft-paste porcelain in Florence, about the year 1585, under the Medicean Duke, Francisco I., long anterior to the porcelain of Bottcher made at Meissen in 1710. Of the Medicean soft-paste twenty-five specimens are named in the catalogue of Dr. Foresi, and two more are added to the list in the specimen we allude to and its smaller companion. This fine basin, 41 centimetres in diameter, is painted at the bottom with a figure of an old man writing, accompanied by a lion, in light-blue monochrome. The object is mentioned in Mr. Fortnum's catalogue, pages 63 and 65. Mr. Fortnum does not identify the painting, which is signed with a monogram G. P. Researches made in this country since the reception of the collection have thrown a light on the subject, and are of sufficient interest to be noticed.

An approximate effort to discover the painter of this specimen was made by Mr. Barnet Phillips in the present year, and the result of his investigations was published in the *Art Journal*. The article in the *Journal* points out the similarity between the painting on the porcelain and an engraving of the Prophet Jude, published in a Venetian 'Josephus' of 1604, printed by Alessandro Vecchi. We give a photographic representation of this figure, whose posture, Oriental bonnet, and general character are indeed a good deal like those of the painting on the basin. The wood-cuts of the 'Josephus' are abundantly marked with blank spaces caused by worm-holes, proving that they were already old when used for that particular publication. This supposed discovery of the original design is now displaced by the more recent investigations we are about to describe, but the article is of value in identifying the Japanese ornamentation as being taken from Hizen work of 1525–40, on the testimony of the native experts at the Centennial Exhibition, Shioda Mashasi and Ishita Tametake. The Italian decorator may

*Mr. Webster says the Fr. ogre is said to be derived from *Hongrois*, *Ugri*, and mentions that M. Cerquand derives Tartaro from *Tartare*. We have always supposed that ogre came from the Latin *orcus*, which derivation is supported by the forms in Spanish, *ogro*; Ital., *orco*; Neapol., *huorco*.

thus be presumed to have copied recent Japanese porcelain of the time, perhaps brought into Italy by pilgrims from the East; some Christian Japanese are known to have visited the Pope and travelled through Italy in 1585 or thereabouts.

The resemblance of the cut in the 'Josephus' to the painting on his lavabo forcibly struck M. Castellani, and the identification was thought to be sufficiently accurate, until in a conference between two antiquarians in this city a much better parallel was suggested. It was in a conversation between Mr. W. C. Prime and Gen. G. B. McClellan that the picture we now copy was unearthed, by a sudden freak of memory. Our illustration, while it leaves something to be desired artistically, owing to the difficulty of reduction, is prepared by a photographic process, and reliable as to the main lines. Its complete identity with the picture on the lavabo is obvious. It is from a copperplate inserted in a copy of the Epistles and Gospels, in Italian, "Venetia, per il Catani," 1675. As in the other case, the illustration is much older than the book. The scale is greatly larger than our cut, a quarto page being entirely filled by the figure. The plate is signed MANT *formavit*, and one would like to attribute it to Mark Antonio, whose style it sufficiently resembles. Whoever was the artist, however, he evidently was not the "G. P." who signed the basin.

The decorator of the porcelain, for his part, was decidedly not a professional maiolica-painter, but an engraver. He has drawn his copy on the paste with infinite pains, in fine close lines, copying the style of his engraving as faithfully as he copied the style of the Japanese ware in the border ornaments. The G. P. is hardly Giulio (Romano) Pippi, to whom Mr. Fortnum attributes the design; this theory is disproved by the discovery of the prototype, signed MANT. Another mistake into which those who have catalogued the lavabo have been led, besides the attribution to Giulio Romano, is likewise corrected by the discovery of the engraving in Mr. Prime's volume. In the Castellani catalogue the picture is called a St. Mark. It should be known, however, as a St. Jerome, for it is inserted to illustrate the prophecy of destruction in 21 Luke: "There shall be signs in the sun and in the moon and in the stars." St. Jerome, as the prophet of judgment, is always used in the promulgations of the Church to symbolize the predictions of doom. The signature to the copperplate, for those who reject the authorship of Mark Antonio, may be distributed between Mantuano (George Ghisi), whose prints are prior to 1572, or to Antonio Salamanca, a furbisher and retoucher of old plates, or even Antonio Fantuzzi, said to have been a pupil of Parmigiano. Did Parmigiano (1503–1540) leave any picture with this subject, which may have been copied in the engraving and in the basin? As for the decorator, whose monogram of G. P. is signed upon the porcelain, after rejecting his pretensions to be Giulio Romano, we are allowed a wide choice among the artists with that signature in Brulliot's dictionary; he may be George Pencz, or Gaspar Patavinus (*ab Avibus*), or any of the nameless artists with those initials who have been by unkind oblivion reduced to their monograms.

The short-lived and, as it were, prophetic manufacture of porcelain in Italy during a single reign, after which the art perished, to be rediscovered in the north a century and a quarter later, gives a curious importance to the best extant specimen and its decorator. The volume we quote disposes of Giulio Pippi and of St. Mark. We can comprehend the enthusiasm of M. Castellani, who said, upon the identification of the picture we illustrate, that he had learned more about his collection during a few months' visit in America than in all the time it had been in his possession. His vivacity may be pardoned, since about the same time he was convinced of the true way in which his helix-shaped ear-rings from Metapontum were worn, by comparison with the Cesnola statues.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1877.

The Week.

THE week has been marked by two great scandals—the reappearance of Mr. Robeson at a "banquet" given him in New Jersey by his admirers, and the appearance of Messrs. Chamberlain and Blaine at Mr. Henry C. Bowen's home in Woodstock, Connecticut, as Fourth-of-July orators to denounce the President. All who read the evidence in the Robeson investigation know that it was a most disgraceful exposure, which ought to have driven him, and but for the widespread taint of "Grantism" would have driven him, into private life for the rest of his days. The only shadow of an excuse he has for facing the public again is the finding of the committee that the evidence did not furnish a case for impeachment, which, after the experience we have had of impeachment, nobody who is not a hardened offender would take for a vindication. Nothing daunted, however, he has come forward as an injured hero, and the tribute to him furnished the occasion to many of the old hands of the Grant régime to sing the praises of their absent chief, and to preserve a studied silence about the successor who is trying to save the country from them. It also, we are sorry to say, drew from Mr. Justice Bradley of the Supreme Court a letter in which he declared Mr. Robeson to have been "persistently maligned by a reckless and dishonest press," and bespoke "continued confidence in him as a man and a Jerseyman."

The Woodstock scandal was more ludicrous, and indeed was so thoroughly "bouffe" that only Offenbach could do justice to it. Mr. Bowen, who has lost the great glory and support of his life by expulsion from Plymouth church, and is now a pewless man, was a notorious peddler of worthless bonds before the panic, and entered into a secret and corrupt agreement with Jay Cooke & Co. to give the "use and influence of his editorial columns" to puff the Northern Pacific bonds for a heavy consideration in stock and bonds. When taxed with the existence of this agreement, he denied it with the utmost effrontery. He ought, therefore, carefully to abstain from conspicuousness of all kinds, and especially of the political kind, such as the concoction of political demonstrations like that of last week. Mr. Chamberlain, his first orator, began his political career in South Carolina as attorney-general and the dumb and blind colleague, on two or three public boards, of the Ring thieves of that State while they were engaged in enormous frauds on and thefts from the treasury; and ended it by becoming the nominee of the very men (of his own party) whom, when he was expecting the Democratic nomination as Governor, he had denounced as enemies of "the civilization of the Puritan and the Huguenot." These facts, were his taste and morals in proper condition, would have made an attack on President Hayes at this date for not furnishing him and his supporters and allies with an armed force to support their baseless pretensions the very last thing he would think of. He is entitled to a fair field at the bar, but he must see not only that his judgment on Southern or any other politics has lost all value, but that his recent career condemns him to modest silence. In a proper state of the political atmosphere Mr. Blaine, too, would seek seclusion and shade, like a weary stag on a hot day. His appearance on the platform to accuse the Administration of a conspiracy to make war on Mexico in aid of "the solid South," and to profess great anxiety about this concoction of his own restless brain, is not a thing to be discussed seriously, but to be turned over to Offenbach and Aimée. To crown all, the wretched wags were successful in entrapping Dr. Wendell Holmes, who, of course, had no idea of what was intended, into reading a poem on his ancestors at the close of these ridiculous speeches.

Another illustration of the working of the President's "policy" has occurred in Selma, Alabama, which surpasses in atrocity and barbarism the Kemper Co., Miss., tragedy, for which it is well settled the "policy" is also responsible; for we need hardly say that neither would have occurred had Chamberlain and Packard been kept under guard. The Alabama affair is worse than the Mississippi affair because the latter was the result of a bloody feud of long standing, while the former can only be attributed to the withdrawal of the troops from Columbia and New Orleans. The facts were that a Harrall boy had a fight with a Jones boy, the son of an ex-officer of the Federal and Confederate navy. The families of the boys were friends, and Mrs. Jones, artfully simulating the distress of a well-bred Christian lady, but being doubtless in reality alarmed by the rumors of Republican dissatisfaction at the North with the "policy," sent her son, whom she thought in the wrong, with a note of apology to Mrs. Harrall and a present of apples for his late antagonist. The boy was met at the door by Mr. Harrall, who took the note, but, knowing there were no troops near, did not read it, and did not hear what young Jones had to say, but, calling his son, set the boys to fight again under his own supervision. This time they were separated by a passing aunt, and the Jones boy went home and told the miserable story to his father, who, permanently lame from a wound, went down to Harrall's house, leaning, as usual, on a cane, with which he seems to have gesticulated in remonstrating with Harrall on his brutal behavior. Whereupon Harrall drew a pistol and shot him fatally, holding Mrs. Jones's unopened apology in his other felon hand. The cowardly savage is now about to be tried, and he may or may not get his due; but, men and brethren, could anything so shocking, so unlike anything ever heard of at Concord, Mass., or Burlington, Iowa, have happened were Chamberlain still Governor of South Carolina and Packard ruling over Louisiana?

The Grand Jury in New Orleans have indicted Wells and Anderson and Kenner and Casanave of the Louisiana Returning Board for fraudulent alterations of the returns from one of the parishes at the late Presidential election, and it is said that the trial will produce many and painful disclosures about the connection of these men with the Republican managers of the late canvass. It is objected, however, that to allow the case to go to trial will be a violation of Governor Nicholls's promise or agreement to let bygones be bygones, and pursue nobody for "political offences" committed during the late Presidential struggle, and generally injudicious as likely to revive angry feelings. We can, however, conceive of no reason for stopping the prosecution that will hold water for one moment except defects in the proof and consequent likelihood of an acquittal. If the proof is good, Wells and his confederates are no more entitled to impunity, under an agreement to overlook "political offences," than any Democrat who, during the canvass, whipped or murdered negro voters. Their offence is only "political" because it had serious political consequences, just as a murder or arson might have had. In reality, if guilty of anything they were guilty of forgery and fraud of the most shocking kind, and with Wells, at least, the object was not wholly or principally the election of anybody in particular as President, but the receipt of a good round sum for the election of somebody. The evidence before the House Committee pointed strongly to this, if it did not convict him of it. The only possible argument in favor of the "political" view of his offences is the connivance or countenance which they met with from Northern politicians, and even from men who do not call themselves politicians, but moralists. Governor Nicholls owes it as a duty to the whole country to see to it that if the proof against these men is good they are pursued to the utmost limits of the law, so that their offence may remain in American history, not as a precedent for other scoundrels to follow or be put up to, but as a warning and example which will make not only common rascals

avoid it, but political managers frown on it as an expedient not to be thought of, and pious politicians as something by which there is no innocent way of profiting.

In the matter of the Baltimore Collectorship, which the newspapers have so fully discussed during the past week, all our information indicates that the President, "for the good of the party," has allowed himself to be twisted by "workers" into countenancing and ultimately taking sides in a disgraceful squabble. This judgment will hold good, we believe, even if it be true, as alleged, that he has been attempting to play the Quixotic part of righting some of the wrongdoings of his predecessor. Whatever the personal merits of Mr. Wilkins, who has been removed from the Collectorship, or of Mr. Thomas, who has been appointed in his stead, they represent only two contending sets of politicians; and the prolonged contest between their "friends" was nothing but a fight between two factions of Maryland Republicans over the distribution of political plunder. This is apparent as well from the general character of the struggle between them as from the published letters of Mr. Creswell, late Postmaster-General, and Mr. Fulton, editor of the Baltimore *American*, who appear to be the chief "backers" respectively of Messrs. Wilkins and Thomas. An unblushing letter from Fulton to the President, in which he offers to secure a certain election in return for desired appointments, should have sufficed to warn Mr. Hayes against having anything to do with him.

The Wilkins-Thomas imbroglio, the suspension of Dowling at Toledo, and some analogous occurrences in the past month have given great joy to the malcontents of the President's own party; are likely to occasion disagreeable wrangling in the next Congress, where they will come up for consideration under the Tenure-of-Office Act; encourage officeholders in the belief that after all Mr. Hayes is only playing a part, and that after a while everything will go on again swimmingly in the old-time fashion; and, if repeated, must inevitably dishearten every earnest supporter of his policy of reform. Civil-service reform demands, indeed, extraordinary firmness and courage; but the President has begun it, and has received all the support that any man should expect when undertaking to carry out a new policy in the face of determined opposition, and he ought to avoid throwing cold water in the faces of those who have trusted his professions. It is greatly to the credit of the best part of the Republican press that it has shown little disposition to gloze over the Baltimore affair, but is plainly desirous of holding Mr. Hayes rigidly to his own standards of civil-service requirement.

The action of the Chamber of Commerce of Cincinnati in instructing its delegates to the National Board of Trade to recommend to Congress "such modification of the Resumption Act as shall postpone the time of its enforcement," is important in itself, and becomes still more so when considered with recent reports from Washington indicating a "weakening" on the part of Secretary Sherman and a disposition to concede something to the strong anti-resumption sentiment now prevalent in the West. Precisely what Mr. Sherman proposes to concede, if anything, we have not learned; but he must know, as well as the men who are to write the party platforms of coming conventions, that nothing whatever can be conceded which is not unwise and dishonorable. Ohio politics are in a very unsettled condition. The Republicans will advocate prohibition or will let it alone as the vote of Cincinnati or of the rest of the State is thought most necessary. They will throw a sop to the Greenback party or will let it alone from similar motives. They will clamor for silver in some form, and the more the better, in order to get ahead of the Democrats; and the present turning toward anti-resumption looks like another attempt to take the wind out of Democratic sails—an attempt which the latter party will doubtless offset by something equally foolish and dishonest. Unfortunately, we fear that the President is considerably influenced by the desire to carry his own State.

Some of the New England newspapers have recently contained insinuations of a very damaging and scandalous character against the official behavior of Judge Dillon of the United States Court of Iowa. The matter is of a good deal of public interest, inasmuch as Judge Dillon has been frequently spoken of as a candidate for the vacant seat on the Supreme Bench at Washington. The charges are substantially that he has grossly denied and delayed justice in a foreclosure suit brought by the bondholders of the Central Railroad of Iowa. The facts appear from the papers, and from a printed circular issued to the creditors of the road, to be these, and they show in a curious way the difficulties which capital meets with in the newer parts of the country in establishing even unquestioned rights: The Iowa Central is a railroad running north and south through the State of Iowa, the bonds of which are mainly owned in the East. Like many other Western roads, after the panic of 1873 it collapsed. The first-mortgage bondholders had, as is usual, the right to foreclose the mortgage and take possession of the road; but though it is settled law that a single bondholder can maintain a foreclosure suit, and although foreclosure proceedings were begun in May, 1874, the mortgage is still, after a lapse of three years, unforeclosed, and this, too, notwithstanding the fact that all the parties interested agreed that a decree of foreclosure should be entered by Judge Dillon as long ago as October, 1875, and such a decree was actually entered. During this delay Judge Dillon is charged with having removed a perfectly competent receiver, who was managing the road in a manner satisfactory to the bondholders, and admitted by the judge himself to be a fit man; with having put in a man unacquainted with railroad management (Mr. J. B. Grinnell, of Iowa), who at once began, not merely to mismanage, but to plunder the road; and, further, on charges being brought against Mr. Grinnell, with having refused to examine them. It is also alleged against him that, having first denied an appeal from the decree entered in 1875, he almost immediately afterwards allowed it, without any change of circumstances; that, having in the first instance decided that it was impossible to have the decree corrected or a new decree entered, he decided subsequently exactly the opposite; that having finally granted a stay of proceedings, and the case having been taken to the Supreme Court at Washington, and there decided against him, and the stay set aside, he still continued for some time to prevent any execution of the decree, in almost direct defiance of the opinion of the Supreme Court.

These facts, if they can be proved, certainly tend to show that the administration of justice in the Iowa Court is not what it should be; but the charges are made more serious by the connection with them of the Hon. Hiram Price, the father-in-law of Judge Dillon. Mr. Price was, it is stated, very early in the history of the road made a commissioner by his son-in-law to examine and report on the road, so that when, at the end of all the tedious and harassing litigation looking to a foreclosure, the price of the securities being much impaired by it, he suddenly comes forward with an offer to buy the road at thirty-three cents on the dollar, the owners of the property may be pardoned a little surprise, if not indignation. Judge Dillon has always been supposed to be above suspicion, but the law which he has furnished with regard to railroads has been sometimes very queer. In 1875 he rendered a decision in one of the Granger cases to the effect that railroads were public highways, whose rates might be fixed in the discretion of the legislature, although, in 1869, when he was Chief-Justice of the State Supreme Court, he had decided them to be "mere private corporations," organized "solely to make money for their stockholders," the legislature having "no more power over their property or rights than it has over the property or rights of natural persons." We suggested at the time (*Nation*, June 17, 1875), that the explanation of this extraordinary judicial somersault which the uncharitable investor would be likely to offer, would be that in 1869 the Iowa farmers were engaged in an attempt to repudiate town and county railroad-aid bonds, and that the judge was then ready to help them by taking one view of railroad property; that in 1875 they were engaged in another attempt, equally dishonest, to force the railroads to carry their crops at non-paying rates, and the judge was equally ready to help them with a

new theory directly opposed to the first. The inference which he would draw from the present charges would be much more grave, and it is very unfortunate, not merely for the reputation of Judge Dillon but for that of the country, that they should be allowed to float about through the press without being investigated by a proper tribunal. We understand that the representatives of the bondholders have taken legal advice on the subject of having Judge Dillon impeached at the next session of the Senate. We take it for granted that his appointment to the Supreme Bench is out of the question until the charges are disposed of.

The conflict with the Nez-Percés has continued during the week, but with only additional losses to our troops and suffering on the part of settlers. The Cottonwood and the Camas prairie have again been the scene of fighting on the 3d, 4th, and 5th instant. On the 3d, Lieut. Rains, with twelve men of Col. Whipple's command (which had just engaged the Looking Glass band on the Clearwater), while reconnoitring, were cut off and all killed; and on the 5th a party of seventeen volunteers from Mount Idaho, in endeavoring to reach the entrenched camp of Col. Perry and Col. Whipple, was obliged, in plain sight of the camp, to break through a line of Indians about one hundred and fifty strong, with the loss of two killed and three wounded, and even then their rescue was with difficulty effected, and no pursuit of the Indians could be thought of. Chief Joseph seems to have given Gen. Howard the slip, crossed the Salmon at its mouth, turned the right flank of his pursuers, and taken the trail for the Bitter Root. Whether he participated in the attacks on Whipple and Perry is not clear, but it is certain that our forces are too weak as yet to contend with such an adversary.

The most important event of the week in the financial markets was the issue by the U. S. Treasury of a call for the redemption of $10,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cent bonds, made after the popular subscriptions for the new 4 per cent bonds had amounted to $10,000,000. Since then these subscriptions have exceeded $6,000,000 additional, and the calculation is that before the 16th instant, when the books close, the total subscriptions will amount to fully $25,000,000, or the sum which the new Syndicate took "firm." Several large lots of the 4 per cents have been taken by banks and trust companies, since the length of the loan (forty years) is particularly attractive to such institutions. At the Stock Exchange there has been a general advance in the shares which are most speculated in. Notwithstanding the fact that the reports concerning the Western crops are as a whole good—corn only being unpromising—and that good crops mean a large business for the railroads, the rise in prices was mainly due to purely speculative considerations, the chief of which was that there were a week ago more contracts to deliver stocks than could be filled simultaneously without putting up the market. The outside moneyed public never had less interest in shares than at present. In the coal trade, while there is no decided change, there is a more hopeful feeling, the financial difficulties of the Reading having been postponed for five years and the other companies having made such arrangements as will relieve them. The money market continues extremely easy and the surplus reserve of the New York banks is about $21,000,000; the market has not yet begun to feel the effect of the $15,000,000 contraction already provided for up to the first of September. At the close of the week the paper dollar was worth 94¾ cents gold; the silver dollar of 412½ grains would have been worth 91¼ cents.

It is certain that the Russians have met with serious reverses in Asia. The process of enclosing Mukhtar Pasha by the extension of the two wings appears to have been going on slowly, but quite successfully, since the defeat of Mehemet Pasha at Delibaba, when General Loris Melikoff, who was in command of the centre marching from Kars by Kagisman, came in contact with Mukhtar himself in a strongly-fortified mountain position at Zevin, not far from Erzerum, and tried to carry it by assault, and repeated his attempt, Russian fashion, with reckless sacrifice of life, and failed, and then found himself badly crippled, far from home, and, what was worse, with his communication with his base at Bayazid cut off by a large force of Kurds, whom the Russians now say the Persians, in breach of their neutrality, allowed to get round on their rear, across the Persian line. He then began to retire along the Araxes Valley, expecting to fall in with General Tergukassoff, who was advancing on that line, and was to have joined him before Erzerum, but found that Tergukassoff had been having a fight of his own at Delibaba, and been likewise repulsed; so there was nothing for Melikoff but a general retreat on Kars, and as it was doubtless very precipitate, since supplies in that country are scanty, Mukhtar sallied out joyously, and began telegraphing all sorts of good news to Constantinople. Dervish Pasha has also had some success at Batum, as the Russian general is acknowledged at St. Petersburg to have "retired to a more advantageous position," and we know what that means. Tergukassoff, who had advanced from Bayazid, is reported to have gone back there to relieve the garrison from the Kurds, and there are rumors of a serious trouble with Persia, for allowing her territory to be violated, but the probabilities are that the Turks did not ask her permission. There is little doubt that the Russian fortunes in Asia will speedily be restored, as reinforcements are coming forward rapidly. But the difficulty of supplies in that region must by this time be enormous, and also that of carrying out delicately-adjusted combinations.

On the Danube the occupation of Tirnova, prematurely reported last week, actually took place on Sunday, July 8, Biela having been taken without opposition two days before. Since then the Russians have been feeling their way towards Plevna and Gabrova, on the west and south, and on the east have advanced as far as Monastir. On this side they are met by the Rustchuk-Shumla-Varna line of defence, which in its turn is menaced from behind by Gen. Zimmermann's force in the Dobrudsha. He is reported at Medjidie, threatening Kustendshe. Varna has been declared in a state of siege. The Turkish gunboats and monitors on the Danube continue to be utterly inefficient. Of the eighteen there at the outbreak of the war two have been sunk, while the rest are either water-bound or torpedo-bound, and must ultimately be destroyed or fall into the hands of the Russians. A monitor, engaged a few days since at the Sulina mouth in picking up torpedoes, got aground, and is now in the possession of the enemy.

In England the condition of unrest about the war seems to continue, but the reports of a division of sentiment in the Cabinet are positively denied. Everything is said to be ready for the despatch of a *corps d'armée* somewhere should the occasion call for it; but the opinion that any immediate interference will be called for declines as the military operations in Asia and on the Danube drag on without decisive result. Public attention has been somewhat turned away from the grave questions of war and peace by the rise of the very absorbing question of what constitutes legal indecency. Two social philosophers of the "advanced" school, Mrs. Besant and Mr. Bradlaugh, have been circulating a book written forty years ago by an American, Dr. Knowlton, intended to aid in restricting the growth of population by other means than the Malthusian "moral restraint," and have been prosecuted under the statute as venders of an indecent publication. They defended themselves in person by arguments with which the world is familiar, were found guilty by the jury, after a three days' trial, of the indecent publication, but acquitted of evil intent, and the circulation of the book rose from 700 in a year to 100,000 in a few weeks, and the judge very properly denounced the prosecution as ill-advised. Another case of a similar character is now coming on, as the Society for the Suppression of Vice is about to prosecute the publishers, or rather circulators, of the pleasant little manual got up by the Ritualists—of which we spoke last week—for the guidance of Anglican "priests" in the work of confession, and the case will probably surpass in filthy interest any that has ever occurred since Queen Caroline's trial. With this to fill up the dull periods in the progress of the war, the British public may be considered well provided for in the way of entertainment for the next three or four months.

OUR NEW "HOSTILES."

THE Nez-Percés, who now claim attention as the periodical "hostile" among our red compatriots, belong to the family of the Sahaptins, whose habitat is between the Cascade and Bitter Root Mountains, on both sides of the middle and lower Columbia River and its tributaries, from the Des Chutes to the Salmon, being bounded on the north by the Selish family at about 47 degrees, and extending south, irregularly bounded by the Shoshonis, to the 45th parallel. A popular confusion exists between some of the Sahaptins and the Flathead division of the Selish group, but the several languages are quite distinct. Singularly enough, the Flatheads, so called, are without any apparent deformity of the head, while skull-flattening in infancy, which originated on the seaboard, is practised more or less among all the Sahaptin tribes. The latter, in bodily structure, but not in complexion, strongly resemble the Mongolian race, the face being markedly of that type, except that the eyes are not oblique. They are divided into Nez-Percés (Pierced-Noses), or Sahaptin proper, Umatilla, Wala-Wala, Palus, Yakama, Klikitat, and the Warm Spring Indians, who gained notoriety by their support of the United States troops in the Modoc war of 1873. The Yakamas and Klikitats, when first met by the Canadian voyageurs, pierced the septum of the nose to receive a white shell shaped like the fluke of an anchor, and their consequent sobriquet of Nez-Percés became improperly used for the Sahaptins proper, whose name, as they formed the most numerous division, was bestowed by later travellers upon the whole family. A double error in nomenclature has thus been perpetuated, as the Sahaptin tribe should not have been stigmatized with piercing their noses, and their distant cousins, with whom that habit still prevailed, had no claim to the name of the dominant, and in every way superior, tribe.

The Nez-Percés, whose title is established beyond correction, while fierce and haughty, are honest, just, and often charitable, being in many respects the most interesting of the Pacific tribes. Though their manner is often cold and reserved, they are eminently civil, and on occasion become social and even gay. Quick of temper and prone to resent any apparent fraud or injustice even more than a wanton injury, they are easily appeased, and, in general, more nearly approach the "noble savage" of romance than any of our aborigines who have been met with in real life by the present generation. They are well and strongly built, of a dark copper color, and the deformation of the head now only extends to a slight compression of the forehead, which almost entirely disappears in adults. Their reservation in Northwestern Idaho has given for several years past a census of about 1,400, but a still larger number have persistently refused to live on the reservation or to recognize the treaties made. The tract reserved contains about twelve hundred square miles, the greater part of which is unfit for agricultural purposes; but there is some good land along the Clearwater and Lapwai rivers and their tributaries, and the Kamia. The portion of the tribe there settled has of late been fairly successful in self-maintenance by farming and stock-raising, after abandoning their old resources in the hunt and fishery. The "non-treaties" roam on the Clearwater and its branches, and on the Snake about its forks; the Wallowa valley, however, being their favorite pasture-ground. They organize great hunting expeditions once or twice each year, and, as the buffalo is not now found west of the Rocky Mountains, are forced to cross the Bitter Root range to the plains between the Yellowstone and Missouri rivers, and so come in collision with several tribes of their hereditary foes. Regular fishing encampments are also formed between June and September on their home rivers, and the salmon then procured and dried, together with the jerked buffalo-meat brought from Montana, are laid up for their long winters, though their store is varied by a number of esculent roots, to collect which they also make systematic excursions. These foraging migrations fill up the whole of the working year not exclusively devoted to the care of stock, which is their main pride and wealth, for the herds of the independent bands are of a highly patriarchal character, and individuals not unfrequently own from one to three thousand horses. The labor connected with these partly devolves upon a class of slaves, who are prisoners of war, and their descendants; and here we meet with a trait unusual among North American Indians, who, if they did not torture their captives to death, adopted them, and seldom made efforts to establish a body of helots for their service.

It is supposed that the war now commenced has been in a measure prompted by the machinations of Shúmale, or "The Dreamer," an aged medicine-man of the Wala-Wala tribe, who has obtained some education in the Christian and Mormon tenets, and has mixed select portions of them with the native mythology in a style recalling the origin of Mohammedanism, and with no slight resemblance to that proselytizing faith in its spread of a political as well as religious union between numerous tribes before only slightly inter-connected. But, however the malign exertions of the latest false prophet may have operated to stimulate and perhaps consolidate a rising for independence among the Indians of Oregon and Idaho, the reasons for the discontent of the Nez-Percés have been wholly unrelated and antecedent to the new Pacific-coast gospel, and but furnish another instance of the criminal folly of our Government in dealing with the *imperium* which they have allowed to exist *in imperio*. Year after year since 1866 the local agents have formally reiterated warnings that the procrastination, inconsistency, and positive breach of faith in the execution and carrying out of the treaties made with the Nez-Percés could only culminate in an explosion such as a few weeks ago appeared to take all our authorities by surprise, as if the printed annual reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for ten years past had never been read. We should remember that the Indians of this tribe have never been the occasion of any trouble except by their mere occupation of land coveted by the squatter, but which, according to our national theory, was their own until regularly purchased and ceded away. This territory was necessary to their existence until, abandoning the hunting and fishing and root-collecting above described, with all their ancient customs and traditions—in fact, changing their whole natures—they should settle on one spot as farmers. Before this summer it has been their well-founded boast that they had never killed a white man, notwithstanding many provocations; and the absence of passion, indeed of ordinary revengeful spirit, in their recent rising for independence, is shown by the fact that in most cases they spared the women and children of the whites attacked, sending them under charge of their own squaws to places of safety, whence they rejoined their friends. It is also asserted that they burned no house and needlessly destroyed no property, driving off, however, the stock, perhaps as "contraband of war." Possibly, therefore, the campaign on the Columbia may be conducted throughout in a more civilized style than its contemporary on the Danube. Not merely have these men now in armed revolt been passively peaceable and friendly ever since the Louisiana purchase of 1803 brought their territory into the United States, but they have been steadfast allies of our Government in troublous times. The Chief, Joseph Big-Thunder, in 1855, actively exerted himself not only to keep his own tribe from participating in the general hostilities in Oregon and Washington, but personally visited the Cayuses to induce their continuance in peace. Although the Yakamas, Klikitats, Umatillas, and Wala-Walas, their kinsmen, were all more or less actively hostile to the whites, the Nez-Percés through all the excitement remained stanch—indeed, protected our civil officers with guards and escorts.

When the treaty of June 9, 1863, was urged upon them, by far the larger part of the tribe submitted to "manifest destiny," though with obvious reluctance; but there was long delay in its ratification by the United States, and afterwards further disappointment about the payment of the annuities guaranteed. Worse still, no step was taken to survey and mark out the reservation, so as to prevent encroachment by the whites, who constantly squatted on the lands undoubtedly promised to the Indians in perpetuity. These squatters abused in every imaginable mode the Indians in their vicinity who had surrendered themselves to the protection of our Government, and rendered their lives burdensome, perhaps not being undesirous to provoke collisions which might secure the land "jumped." Thus

the "party of the second part" to a solemn treaty was required to settle with no locality fixed, and when the assistance necessary to an entire change of life—the whole consideration of the cession—was withheld. The result was that for years the few recalcitrant bands who, if left unsupported, would long since have been absorbed into the reservation, had any such been well defined and protected, could and did assert without successful contradiction that "the whites never meant to keep any of their promises." They accused the head chief recognized by the treaty, named Lawyer, of having sold out the tribe for his own special and extra annuity and other selfish advantages, his clients receiving nothing. From this evidence of skill it has been supposed that the chief derived his apparently professional title; but the conjecture, however natural, is not correct, inasmuch as he had received his name, perhaps from early pettifogging feats, before the treaty. About eight years ago a strong effort was made even by the Indians on the reservation to depose or disbar their Lawyer, but, probably from his white official support, it was unsuccessful. The obvious facts of broken faith, injustice, and fraud, however, relegated the majority into the nomadic non-treaty bands, leaving the less spirited or more credulous to scrape together their precarious existence within the vague bounds of the "reservation," which was finally surveyed in 1870, after an additional or supplemental treaty in 1868 had given increased occasion for misapprehension.

Chief Joseph, the general of the present insurrection (White Bird being its political head), has always insisted that the fertile valley of the Wallowa was not included in the land ceded; and representations often urged for its specific reservation (an exchange even being proposed as a last resort) have only resulted in further trespasses and outrages by squatters. The want of common sense and honesty, to say nothing of gratitude for tried and valuable fidelity, shown in the transactions of the general Government with these spirited though, in disposition, amazingly law-abiding Indians, has almost necessarily driven them into their present desperate outbreak, and if their resistance to our skeleton army in the Department of the Columbia shall even for a short time continue with the success of the action of June 17, there is every chance for their reinforcement, not only by many of their own Sahaptin kin, but by adventurers from the neighboring families of the Selish and Numa, who will drop old feuds to join the prophet's crusade against the common foe. As the wealthy and prudent Nez-Percés are said to have ample supplies of the best arms and ammunition, the prospect of at once suppressing what perhaps may amount to a costly rebellion, chargeable mainly to official malversation and neglect, is not very encouraging.

REPUBLICAN POLICY.

ROUGHLY speaking, every political party may be supposed to represent, at first, some needed measure of reform, for the triumph of which it must struggle hard; then comes a period of successful life, when the party is dominant and assumes, and is generally accorded in full measure, all the cardinal virtues. It is this period which is always provocative of farce in politics. A party can then afford to play pranks. The Republican party went through it during the earlier years of Grant's administration. It was then popularly regarded as the nation's benefactor, richly deserving all the honors it wore. It had overthrown slavery and, incidentally, preserved the nation. The greatness of the party and the nobility of its work and principles were constantly dwelt upon by its leaders, and its praises were complacently listened to by their followers. Under these circumstances, it became extremely tolerant of absurdities, and incorporated them with its own "principles" as readily as though they had always belonged to it. The pet hobbies of enthusiasts were indulgently accorded a hearing, and, if possible, put into the next State platform. Indeed, certain propositions, more or less extreme, came to be looked for as a matter of course at State conventions, and many persons who took no interest in them as hobbies were disappointed if they escaped recognition and mention. Woman-suffrage, for instance, always appeared in Massachusetts and elsewhere; Prohibition was regularly admitted in several States; a sop was systematically thrown to labor-reformers in many places, and to the Grangers in others; the tariff was treated always with preposterous ceremony, and resolutions purposely written in see-saw phraseology and designed to tilt in either of two directions were always sonorously read forth; while thunders of applause greeted the declaration that never should a single cent be deducted from the gallant soldiers' pensions. The party in those days was prosperous, well-fed, and happy; in power, and backed up by an overwhelming majority. It could afford to be gracious and beneficent, and was not seriously called to account even when it ventured to wink at "Free Cuba," or to grin knowingly at the Fenian hod-carrier buying his ticket for Canada. There was a great deal of humbug in all this, although much of it may have been good-natured humbug.

But these prosperous times went by, and the party's *morale* went by with them, and, in part, because of them. The story of the party's decay is not a pleasant one, and need not be here repeated. It became, finally, only a few months ago, "sick unto death," and when it began to recover from the shock of its Returning Board performances it wore the aspect of one who, having expected death from delirium, returns to consciousness, much surprised at finding himself alive and with some prospect of complete recovery. For a few months past its general tone has been moral and healthful. Will it backslide? is now a life or death question for it to answer. One thing is certain: it cannot live any longer on its past reputation. Every issue of slavery and the war is gone, and the attempt to perpetuate them absurd. The work or business or mission of the party, as regards them all, is wholly ended. If we may be allowed to speak commercially here, we should say that the original funds held in trust by the Republican party, and which were invested in enterprises that once paid huge dividends, cannot now remain where they were first placed. Business in that direction is, from the nature of things, exhausted. The funds must now be transferred, if possible, to some other enterprise. What is to be avoided while making the transfer is sham security and "wild-cat" enterprises. Even the farcical performances we have referred to must now be stopped, for a man or a party in robust health may indulge in extravagances of action which would be fatal to a convalescent.

Fortunately, Mr. Hayes, whether by inherent virtue or by virtue of circumstances, or by a combination of both—we need not here attempt to decide the point—has indicated the precise and only safe course for the party to pursue. He has proposed new principles and measures for party advocacy. We regard the Administration as fully committed, for instance, to the doctrine of the payment of Government bonds in gold; to the early resumption of specie payments; to a decided change in the character of the civil service, and, possibly, to some other important measures. The real questions at issue, therefore, in national politics now are, Shall we retain the Jackson-Grant civil service, or substitute that which has been described, if not yet organized, by Mr. Hayes? Shall we deal honestly with the nation's creditors? Shall we continue the preparatory work of resumption? etc. Before, however, the party, as a party, will follow with any enthusiasm the leadership of the Administration and become the earnest defender of these measures, it would seem, from numerous recent indications—the Iowa Convention, the vote of the New Hampshire legislature, the Robeson "banquet," the Woodstock affair, the foreshadowings of some of the coming State conventions, etc.—that it is to pass through another disagreeable period of sham. Wherever the old "manipulators" can continue in or obtain control we may expect to witness the adoption of platforms filled with rhetoric about the South and the rights of the humblest citizen, with declarations resembling the first Iowa resolution that "the United States is a nation and not a league," and, if in the West, with eulogies of the silver dollar, without the advocacy of any definite or wholesome measure of national progress. There is to be a violent struggle made—to resume commercial phraseology—to prevent any change in the character of the investments of the party funds, however unpro-

fitably they may now be employed, unless, as Blaine seems to wish, they can be put into some kind of foreign or "fancy" stock, or, as the Northwest desires, they can be loaned to a gambler who is known to play with loaded dice.

Whether this period of sham is to be long or short, and what is to be the nature of its effect upon the party, are matters of immediate importance. We observe a disposition on the part of some Republican papers of influence to deal with the office-holders' and politicians' displays of opposition to Mr. Hayes and with Western finance absurdities as good-naturedly as they once dealt with Fenianism, or labor-reformers, or soldiers' bounties, or woman's rights; but, thus acting, we believe they mistake the present temper of the great mass of Republican voters as well as that of voters of more independent action. These shams are clearly recognized as such, and people are becoming impatient with regard to them. Throughout the East entirely, and far more throughout the West than some of the party leaders are disposed to admit, both the Southern and civil-service policies of Mr. Hayes are cordially approved by all that portion of the party whose opinions are worth considering—that is, by all those who have given serious attention to the subjects involved, and who understand, as the practical politician does not and cannot understand, the reasons why one course or measure is commendable while another is to be opposed, and, what is of importance also, by those who turn the scale at elections. If the party is to be set upon its feet again securely, therefore, its leaders must speak out frankly and boldly. They must encourage the President in his desired administrative reforms, and not hesitate, whatever States may be temporarily lost by it, to describe the silver craze as what it really is—a discreditable delusion, leading to mischief and dishonor, and not a great discovery or the froth of a noble sentiment, or even an easy method of paying old debts.

THE ASSEMBLY AND THE ARMY IN FRANCE.

THE most serious incident of the crisis through which France is now passing is unquestionably the passage in Marshal MacMahon's order of the day addressed to the troops after the recent review, in which he expresses his confidence that the army "will aid him to maintain respect for government and law, in fulfilment of the mission entrusted to him, and which he will discharge to the end." It is not surprising that it has excited a great sensation, and that the Bonapartists openly exult over it, as a sign that the parliamentary régime is practically at an end, and that France has once more passed under the rule of the bayonet. That the Marshal will attempt a *coup d'état*, under any circumstances now likely to arise, we do not believe, but his language is none the less likely to prove disheartening and disadvantageous to the Republicans, and this for two reasons. The most thoughtful Liberals, not Republicans only but Liberals of all shades, have always found, and still find, in the army their greatest cause of despondency as to the political future of France. It has been ever since the Revolution a question with them whether it would ever be possible for parliamentary institutions to take root in the soil as long as there existed an army of 400,000 men necessarily taught as its highest duty to obey implicitly the orders of some one man; and they have derived no comfort from its failure to resist a popular uprising in 1830 and in 1848. In 1830 the army was alienated from the Government by the overbearing manners and pretensions of the returned émigrés, and by the ill-concealed desire of the nobles to assume their old position in its ranks. In 1848 the king had neither the courage nor the energy to use it, as he might have used it. Louis Napoleon found no difficulty in making it the obedient instrument of his will, and employing it against every person and institution and law which interfered with his plans. The French army, too, is for parliamentary government the most dangerous army in Europe, for no other army is so completely exempt from the restraints of usage and tradition. There is nothing in the state which it has learned to respect, except discipline enforced by the commander-in-chief. Of the legislature it knows nothing, and cares for it but little, if at all. It has seen a dozen legislatures come and go, apparently without injury to the state. The one thing that lasts through all French troubles, and which, when the worst comes to the worst, saves the country and represents it, is the military force. It accordingly not unnaturally seems to the French soldier the most stable thing in the state—nay, the very state itself. This is true in a minor degree of all the Continental armies. It is safe to say that in Prussia, or Austria, or Italy, or Spain, the legislature is at the mercy of the commander of the armed force, which would any day, at his order, turn it out of doors, and treat him as the government. Hence the enormous importance to the friends of parliamentary institutions on the Continent of having a man in the chief executive office who can be trusted to respect them, and hence the doubt by which the minds of even the most sanguine Continental Liberals are haunted, whether such institutions can ever be firmly established as long as they are dependent on the forbearance and attachment of any one person. In the countries in which they have succeeded either there is no army, or a small army, or the army has no traditions or experience raising it above the civil authority; and the officers think of the country as something apart from and more important than the army. In France the Marshal's appeal to the troops to aid him in "maintaining respect for government and law" is a kind of appeal with which, unhappily, French troops are only too familiar, and the last thing that will occur to them is that "government" means the institutions founded by the constitution, and that "law" is what we call the "law of the land"—that is, the rules of conduct prescribed by legislation interpreted by the courts. To the French soldier general orders are the one great source of law. The law they lay down is law which, unhappily, he has often been called on to administer, and does still administer. The mere suspicion, therefore, that the Marshal even thinks of falling back on this support of his authority is enough to send a tremor through the Liberal ranks.

Moreover, the effect on the voters of an intimation, however vague, that the chief of the state means to have his way, even if he uses the troops for the purpose, is likely to be bad. Apart from their deeply-rooted disposition to admire and invite personal government, and stand by the Administration, whatever it may be, their passion for a quiet life makes them always ready to back up the party which seems to have the power to maintain "order"—even naked, illegal order—and is ready to use it. The announcement, therefore, from Paris that the chief executive officer is ready to apply the strong hand to the work of government, and smash all who oppose him, creates of itself a powerful public opinion in his favor. Men rush to vote for him, as after the *coup d'état* in 1851, as the readiest way out of a period of distress, and difficulty, and business depression. It is disappointing, no doubt, to have the prospect of an orderly and constitutional republic disappear, but no kind of government ever set up is to an average Frenchman worth a prolonged struggle, threatening him with *émeutes*. He wants of all things a quiet life, and if there is a chance of a row he backs incontinently the stronger side, so as to have it over as soon as possible, and consoles himself for the political failure of his country by reflecting on her eminence in literature, the arts, and in war.

It is this state of things which gives so much pathetic interest to the struggle in which the Republicans are engaged, and especially the final debate in the Assembly prior to the dissolution. Of the character of that debate it would be impossible to give an idea to any one who had not read the verbatim report of the proceedings. The speeches of Jules Ferry, of Gambetta, and Léon Renault have certainly never been surpassed in the field of controversial eloquence, and it is also safe to say that never in the history of parliamentary government have orators had to face such an audience. The rules of the Assembly seem to have been framed on the theory of human nature that led to the production, in 1792, of a plan of suppressing riots, which consisted in the appearance on the scene of certain elderly men with scarfs, who were to request the rioters to desist and go home, and, if they refused, were, after full warning, to inflict the last and highest penalty by publicly pronouncing them "unworthy citizens." In the Assembly the only remedy for dis-

orderly conduct on the part of a member consists in calling him to order, and, in the last resort, in "censuring" him by a majority vote. But if he cares nothing for censure and despises the majority, the only protection the House has against him lies in adjournment. The President cannot, apparently, have his unruly body seized by the sergeant-at-arms and lodged in jail, like that of any other obstreperous ruffian. With this state of the rules of procedure, some idea may be formed of the consequence of a fierce quarrel with a minority who either distrust or detest parliamentary government altogether, and to whom all time passed in rational debate is time wasted, or who look on the majority of the House as traitors and conspirators whom it would be wise, if it were safe, to send to Cayenne, and who are now exultant over the fact that they have the material force on their side. This minority is made up of Legitimists and Bonapartists. The Legitimists, as a general rule, though poor parliamentarians and almost as ill-fitted to carry on a constitutional government as the College of Cardinals, are many of them sincerely religious, some highly cultivated, and all governed in a greater or less degree by the traditions of a refined society. The Bonapartists, on the other hand, contain a large element of what one must call pure blackguardism. Many of them are literally ruffians, whose politics consist simply in the admiration of brute force, and whose highest political ideal is a government carried on by a military "boss," with plenty of "public improvements," plenty of "good things" for the members of the ring, much barbaric splendor, and plenty of organized contempt for talkers, writers, and doctrinaires. To these men the Assembly is merely a place where they face enemies whom, if they had the power, they would imprison, and the debates are merely an opportunity for the manifestation of hatred and contempt.

Accordingly the Republican orators had not simply to face an audience in part hostile—against this the sympathy of the majority would have sufficiently armed them; they had to face what was literally a howling mob, which the police could not touch. Not one of them uttered over three consecutive sentences without interruption, and it was organized interruption, too, carried on in concert. Moreover, it was not the interruption of excited politicians, but the "chaff" and vituperation of angry scolds in a tenement-house row, and some of it childish and silly enough to have come from a drunken scold. The leader in it was, of course, Paul de Cassagnac, a man whose freedom and activity are a disgrace to French society, and they all, great and small, set the President at defiance and loaded the speaker with insults. It is certainly no exaggeration to say that mutinous convicts in a jail-yard could not have behaved worse under the reproofs of an obnoxious keeper, and it all took place under the eyes of the present ministers, and, it is fair to assume, with their approval. Not one word of remonstrance came from them—not one word of support for the President's authority; not a single expression of shame and sorrow over scenes which placed the parliament of a great nation on a level with a Congo powwow. Happily the Republican orators were equal to the occasion. They never lost their temper, or self-possession, or the thread of their discourse, and poured for about six hours on the heads of their adversaries a flood of exposition and argument and invective which has certainly never been equalled in French forensic annals, and of which any deliberative body in the world might well be proud.

TREATMENT OF HABITUAL CRIMINALS.

IT is just four years since the Legislature of this State passed an act to authorize summary convictions of "professional," or habitual, criminals. The act was passed with the approval of the press and public opinion. Within a month of its passage an order was issued from police headquarters to every police captain throughout this city to "instruct the members of his (your) command in the duties required of them under this act, and direct them to be vigilant and thorough in measures for enforcing the law in all its provisions." From that time to this the law has been a dead-letter. Occasionally a criminal is arrested under it, but for the end that it was intended to meet—the riddance of the city of the race of "professional" criminals, who live by systematic war upon society—it may be said not to exist. From what is said with reference to it from time to time in the newspapers, the prevailing impression seems to be that the law is not enforced, first, because the police do not care to take the trouble to enforce it; second, because it is unconstitutional. Both these impressions are erroneous. The real secret of the difficulty is quite different, and, when known, furnishes a most curious commentary upon our administration of justice and upon the effect of such a suffrage as ours on the protection of property.

The principle on which laws subjecting habitual criminals, or persons living by crime, to exceptional surveillance and penalties are based is now admitted to be sound, not only by specialists who devote themselves to the reform of criminals, but by what we may call general legislative consent. This principle is that the presumption said to exist in all cases, that a man is innocent until he is proved to be guilty, cannot apply to cases in which he is known already to be habitually guilty. Without going into the technicalities of the law of evidence, it is enough to say that the presumption in favor of innocence, like most other legal presumptions, grows out of the facts. With the majority of people the facts are all one way; they do not commit crimes against the person or property. Hence there is some reason—how much we have no space here to enquire—for the stringent rule of the common law with regard to proof of guilt. But with habitual criminals the case is exactly reversed. Instead of being presumably innocent and exceptionally guilty, they are presumably engaged always in the commission, or in preparation for the commission, of crime. They are thieves, burglars, pickpockets, counterfeiters, and forgers just as other people are lawyers, doctors, or ministers of the Gospel. It follows from this that legislation for the prevention of the crimes they live by must be based on the presumption of guilt. This has been recognized not only in England, but, as we have seen, by the Legislature of this State, and also for years by Pennsylvania. It is not with the principle, but with the application of it in practice, that we are concerned. We will, therefore, first take England, and, by comparing what has been done there with what has been done here, we may be able to get some idea of the reason why the law on our statute-book remains unenforced.

The first English act on the subject was passed in 1869, but this was repealed by another passed in 1871, which contains the provisions actually in force. The latter act provides for registers and photographs of all convicts of certain classes in the United Kingdom. With regard to these habitual criminals the law provides that "when any person is convicted on indictment of a crime [*crime* in this act meaning generally any felony], and a previous conviction of a crime is proved against him, he shall at any time within seven years immediately after the expiration of the sentence passed on him for the last of such crimes *be guilty of an offence against this act*, and be liable to imprisonment, with or without hard labor, for a term not exceeding one year, under the following circumstances, or any of them":

First, if, on being charged with "getting his livelihood by dishonest means," before a court of summary jurisdiction, "it appears to such court" that there are "reasonable grounds for believing that the person so charged is getting his livelihood by dishonest means."

Second, if, on being charged with any "offence" (this word includes misdemeanor), and on being required by the court to give his name or address, he "refuses so to do, or gives a false name or a false address."

Third, if found in any place, "whether public or private, under such circumstances as to satisfy the court before whom he is brought that he was about to commit" any offence, or was "waiting for an opportunity" to do so.

Fourth, if found in, upon, or about any dwelling-house, place of business, etc., "without being able to account to the satisfaction of the court before whom he is brought for his being found on such premises."

In case of any offence under the third head, he may be arrested without warrant by any constable, or, under the fourth, by the property owner or occupier, or his servants, or any one authorized by him.

By the same act, any one twice convicted of a crime, on indictment may, in addition to any other punishment, be placed, at the discretion of the court, under the supervision of the police for seven years or less, and every person so under supervision is required to *notify the police of his residence and all changes of residence from one police district to another*, and report, if a male, once a month personally or by letter. Any person so under supervision, failing to do this, is deemed *guilty of an offence against this act*, and is liable to hard labor for one year, unless he proves to the satisfaction of the court that he "did his best to act in conformity with the law."

It will be observed that the essential features of this legislation are;

1st, complete registration of criminals; 2d, a surveillance of all habitual criminals; 3d, the shifting of the burden of proof of innocence on to their shoulders. This act, so far as we have been able to discover, has met with no obstacle to its enforcement. The first register, or "Black Book," has just been issued from the press, and contains the most thorough compilation of the statistics of crime that has ever been made public. The criminals whose careers are recorded in it are marked men wherever the jurisdiction of the English Government extends. They have now the choice of abandoning their criminal occupations and selecting honest means of livelihood, or of living in constant danger of an arrest, which will be tantamount to a conviction. As soon as the law has been working a few years, the chances are that the constantly-increasing risks of criminal pursuits will thin out the ranks of the burglars, thieves, and pickpockets, and make the crowded cities of England the places of all others where property is least exposed to danger. The law, if we may judge by the total absence in the reports of any points under it taken up for adjudication to the higher courts, has proved simple and easily enforceable.

Now let us turn to the method of dealing with the subject in this State. There were, at the time of the passage of the act of 1873 before referred to, two statutes in existence on the subject: one the English, and the other an act passed by the Pennsylvania Legislature eleven years before. To appreciate the manner in which our legislators went to work, it is important to compare the two. The Pennsylvania act provides for the arrest of any person charged before a magistrate with being a professional thief, burglar, etc.; and if found frequenting any public place, and proved to the satisfaction of the magistrate to have been there for "an unlawful purpose," for his imprisonment at hard labor for a time not longer than three months. The magistrate may, however, instead of this take security for good behavior. There is also a general right of appeal by way of *habeas corpus* to another court.

It will be seen at a glance that here there is no registration of criminals, no surveillance; and besides these serious defects, instead of making habitual crime create a presumption of guilt, it makes it create a presumption of innocence, and requires proof of an "unlawful purpose," when the very theory of this sort of legislation is that this proof is supplied by the known occupation of the criminal. Under these circumstances, with both laws before them, and full opportunity of comparison, what did the New York Legislature do? Follow the English act? Supply the defects of the Pennsylvania act? Nothing of the sort. They *copied* the Pennsylvania act. This is the result of their deliberations:

"*The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:*

"SECTION 1. If any person shall be charged on oath or affirmation before any police magistrate, or justice of the peace, in this State with being a professional thief, burglar, pickpocket, counterfeiter, or forger, or shall have been arrested by the police authorities at any steamboat landing, railroad depot, church, banking institution, broker's office, place of public amusement, auction-room, store, auction sale in private residences, passenger-car, hotel or restaurant, or at any other gathering of people, whether few or many, and if it shall be proven to the satisfaction of any such magistrate or justice of the peace, by sufficient testimony, that he or she was frequenting or attending such place or places for an unlawful purpose, and that he or she has at some time been convicted of any of the crimes herein named, he or she shall be deemed a disorderly person, and upon conviction after trial shall be committed by the said magistrate or justice of the peace to the penitentiary, in counties where there is a penitentiary, for a term not exceeding one hundred days, there to be kept at hard labor, and in counties where there is no penitentiary, or where no contract exists with any authorities of any penitentiary in the State, then to the county jail of said county, for a term not exceeding one hundred days, or, in the discretion of any such police-magistrate or justice of the peace, he or she shall be required to enter security for his or her good behavior for a period not exceeding one year.

"SECT. 2. Any person who may or shall feel aggrieved at any such act, judgment, or determination of any such police magistrate, or justice of the peace, pursuant to the provision of this act, may apply to any judge or justice of any court having the power to issue a writ of habeas corpus for the issuance of said writ, and upon return thereof there shall be a rehearing of the evidence, and the judge or justice may either discharge, modify, or confirm the commitment.

"SECT. 3. This act shall take effect immediately."

There is one substantial difference, however, between this and the Pennsylvania act. The deliberations of the New York legislators induced them to put one more difficulty in the way of society by requiring proof not only of an unlawful purpose, but of a previous conviction. With registration this would be simple enough; without it, practically impossible.

We are now in a position to appreciate fully the value of our act. It will be seen that the person arrested under it must be charged, *first*, with being "a *professional* thief, burglar, pickpocket, counterfeiter, or forger"; and *second*, with having been "at some time convicted" of one of the crimes named; *third*, with having been *at the place*, when arrested, "for an unlawful purpose." It may be assumed that if a prisoner were properly defended, the *first* point could not be established by proof: no statute, no decisions, no common law defines what constitutes a *professional* thief. The *second* must be proved by a record of conviction, with proof of identity of the party, which is, as we have just said, almost impossible in the absence of a general registration. The police, at one time, had a case in which they produced a record of conviction and proved identity, but as it appeared that the accused was convicted on his pleading guilty, the court discharged him. The *third* point cannot be proved except by proof of acts which are of themselves criminal. Criminal intent is no crime if not connected with acts.

The sum and substance of the whole matter is, therefore, that, having before them a very thorough remedy and a very inadequate one, the Legislature deliberately selected the latter, and in enacting it into a law incorporated into it an amendment which killed it altogether. It remains to be asked how such extraordinary legislation was brought about. It is here, however, that we are brought to a stand-still. One person will tell you that the Legislature is a body which never knows what it is about. Another will assure you that it was afraid of doing something unconstitutional. But if you enquire of the persons best qualified by experience to express an opinion, they will give you a very singular answer: that the reason the act was passed in its present form is that it was passed by the criminals themselves. That is to say, the whole tribe of pickpockets, thieves, burglars, and other habitual criminals, finding their means of livelihood threatened, combined or "organized"—just as the bankers or brokers or railroad men do for the protection of their interests—retained counsel, hired a lobby, and succeeded in getting passed a meaningless law. Proof of this is difficult or impossible; but the fact remains that the fruit of fifteen years' study of the modern subject of Habitual Crime in New York is a statute which is a dead-letter, and (as the rest of the world grows more and more rigid and more difficult for criminals to live in) the development in our chief commercial capital of a sort of thieves' paradise.

Notes.

THE American News Co. have brought out a fresh edition of the 'New Gospel of Peace,' still anonymous as to the title-page, and containing Mr. Grant White's red-herring letter of July 30, 1866, deprecating the attempt in some quarters to make him out the author of the book. The publishers in their present circular state that they are permitted to disclose what has so long been no secret. This clever satire will always have its place in the political history of our Civil War, but we doubt if it can be made to do double duty in exciting feeling against Mr. Hayes's Southern "policy"—the presumable motive for its reappearance now. ——Mr. John Langdon Sibley, for so many years the devoted librarian of Harvard University, has been obliged to resign on account of failing eyesight. Mr. Justin Winsor, the efficient superintendent of the Boston Public Library, has been invited to become Mr. Sibley's successor, but Boston has made it for his interest to stay where he is.——Machinery Hall, at Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, has been allotted to Mr. Lee Crandall for a National Immigration Bureau, on a plan often contemplated for execution in Europe. All the States and Territories may exhibit free of charge the various evidences of their material resources, and of whatever else should attract immigrants. As a means of making Philadelphia the gateway of immigration the scheme recommends itself, and also as a means of guiding dissatisfied Pennsylvanians to other fields of settlement and adventure; in all other respects, Frankfort would seem a better place for the Bureau than Philadelphia.——Prof. Fitzedward Hall's new edition of Wilson's 'Translation of the Vishnu-Purâna' is now at last, after a regrettable interval of several years, completed by the addition of a volume of Index (London: Trübner)—an addition which, we may say, for the first time makes the book fit to use, since even the Indian scholar cannot be expected to do more than occasionally refer to a work of this character. The index gives evidence of great labor and thoroughness of preparation, and is followed by an appendix of fourteen pages on the errors of the original edition in regard to the treatment of the proper names with which the Purâna abounds.——The principle of Government endowment of scientific research, so long contended for in England, has at last been recognized, and about $20,000 will be paid out during the present year, on the recommendation of the Royal Society, to

thirty-five persons more or less widely known as investigators and authorities. The sums allotted are partly for personal labor, and partly to defray the expense of apparatus, material, and assistance, and they range from $250 to $1,500.

—A number of recent Government publications lie upon our table. The fourth edition of Mr. Henry Gannett's 'Lists of Elevations,' principally west of the Mississippi River, is nearly double the size of the third, the chief labor having been expended in reconciling the profiles of various railroads, the results of which occupy the first fifty pages. This has had the effect of greatly enlarging the list of towns whose elevations are given in the following sixty pages. These lists, together with those of mountains (including the Appalachian system), passes, plateaus, timber-line, lakes, rivers, etc., make a collection of altitudes of unsurpassed fulness and of very obvious utility in industrial, military, sanitary, and other aspects. They will be employed by Mr. Gannett in the preparation of a complete hypsometrical map of the United States, of which a first essay accompanies the present edition ; and Dr. Hayden announces that a corresponding relief-model will be undertaken shortly.——A *Bulletin* emanating from the same survey (vol. iii. No. 3) contains several articles of scientific importance, chiefly geological and palæontological. Mr. Barber's 'Comparative Vocabulary of Utah Dialects' will interest an increasing class of students of American languages. More to the taste of the general reader will be the unconventional 'Notes on the Ornithology of the Region about the Source of the Red River of Texas,' by Lieut. McCauley, with annotations by Dr. Coues. The author accompanied Lieut. Ruffner's exploring expedition last spring, and his observations are the first ever recorded from the district in question. "One day," as he relates, "during a halt, the column happened to stop within a few yards of a bird [the Southwestern Lark] upon her eggs, who, after flying to and fro in great solicitude, soon boldly approached and resumed her place upon her nest with full confidence. The escort was directed to change its course to prevent riding over her, she meanwhile remaining as quiet as if she knew we were friends." Of the familiar couple on the Plains—the prairie-dog and his feathered messmate—he says : "The owl was always apparently lost in thought, had nothing to do in particular, and more time at his disposal than anything else in the world, whilst the dog was always busy and without a moment to spare." Lieut. McCauley tells a good story, at second hand, of a fish-hawk on the Chesapeake whom an eagle had despoiled of its well-earned prey. To break up so vicious a habit, the hawk was observed next day to rise as if with a fish in its mouth, and to be attacked by the eagle, who dextrously caught the dropped prize but quickly let it fall to the ground. It turned out to be a piece of dried manure.——The second *Bulletin* of the United States Entomological Commission treats of the natural history of the Rocky Mountain locust, and of the habits of its young (unfledged). Numerous wood-cuts show the whole process of transformation, and a map of the United States is shaded to represent the area overrun last year. The eastern limit was Houston at the extreme south, and St. Paul at the extreme north.——Major Comstock's latest (the sixth) report on Captain Eads's improvement of the South Pass of the Mississippi River shows the condition of the works on March 16. Like his previous reports it conveys doubts as to the stability of the jetties—a point certainly of as much consequence as the temporary depth of channel. The mattresses at the ends of the jetties sink into the mud or are destroyed by the sea, and may have to be indefinitely reinforced. The teredo, according to Major Comstock, attacks not only the piles but also the willow brush of which the mattresses are made. No information is given in this report concerning soundings to determine whether there is a reformation of the bar. Captain Eads's report a fortnight ago to the company which he represents says explicitly that the Gulf current athwart the jetties "effectually prevents" such reformation and extension.——Of several other publications, namely, (in Dr. Hayden's Survey) Surgeon W. Matthews's 'Ethnography and Philology of the Hidatsa Indians,' and Lt.-Col. Garrick Mallery's 'Calendar of the Dakota Nation,' and (in Clarence King's Survey) vol. vi., 'Microscopical Petrography,' by Ferdinand Zirkel, we hope to speak more particularly hereafter.

—A paper on "The Feasibility of a Code of International Law," by the late Prof. Emory Washburn, is printed in the July-August number of the *International Review*, but a careful perusal of it has not convinced us that the hour of the adoption of such a code is near, or that we are likely to witness the fulfilment of its chief purpose—the cessation of war. The weak place in nearly all writings on this subject is in the consideration of a proper sanction for an international code, admitting the possibility of its adoption. War only could compel at present the carrying out of its provisions, and we are thus driven to the absurd conclusion that war is necessary to do away with war. Nevertheless, the believers in a coming international code may justly derive some encouragement from the fact that the movement toward it is one "to which centuries have given an impulse" ; from the cessation of feuds and duels ; from increasing commercial relations which make wars daily more difficult and more costly ; and from the fact that "the making and carrying on of war is passing out of the hands of the crowned heads into those of the money kings of Europe." The second part of Mr. Walker's article on "The Philadelphia Exhibition," in the same number of the *Review*, if necessarily less interesting than the first part, is valuable as the judgment of a competent observer upon the relative merits of the exhibitions of different nations. Free-traders and Protectionists should note the fact that among hindrances to a perfect display of the best products of all countries Prof. Walker puts prominently our high tariff, which kept out nearly all woollen and worsted goods, the carpets of England, and French and German silks. Our own display was deficient in wool, "forestal products," and staple machinery. There was, for instance, no full set of cotton or of boot and shoe machinery. A long review of Fromentin's 'Les Maîtres d'Autrefois : Belgique, Hollande,' by Mr. P. G. Hamerton, is one of the lighter articles of this number. We are glad to call attention to some signs of improvement in the editorial work of the *International*. The absurd department of "Contemporary Events" has been merged with "Contemporary Art and Literature," and the book notices, which do not pretend to rise to the level of reviews, are greatly increased in quantity and corresponding usefulness.

—The eighth annual report of the Massachusetts State Board of Health has, like its predecessors, a value by no means confined to the State limits, even when the topic discussed is a local one. For instance, in the present volume, Dr. Pinkham's survey of the sanitary condition of Lynn is a model of what every considerable town and city should undertake ; and Dr. Folsom's paper on the registration of deaths and diseases, though based on replies to a circular addressed to the regular correspondents of the Board and the town clerks in Massachusetts, and designed to expose the unsatisfactory practice in that State, clearly points the way to an efficient system for any other State that desires to have one. Finally, Dr. Henry P. Bowditch's conclusions as to the growth of children, while absolutely trustworthy for the district to which his observations were confined, are probably applicable to a much wider area, and challenge similar observations in other sections of the country. The correspondence concerning registration shows the physicians of Massachusetts to be singularly neglectful of duties not imposed by the statute, but imposed, one would think, by an enlightened idea of the scope of their profession. One of the Board's medical correspondents writes : "I brought up the subject in our local society, but I did not succeed in getting the members interested apparently ; nobody, with one, perhaps two exceptions, seemed to care anything about it." This apathy is abundantly confirmed by other evidence, and we can but think it the result of a grave defect in the medical education of the present day. The importance of vital statistics, and the duty of the physician (in his own behalf not less than in society's) to promote the fulness and the accuracy of them, should be taught as of course in all the medical schools. Meantime, individual physicians, intelligent and public-spirited, can do much, especially where, as in Massachusetts, the State gratuitously furnishes the needed blanks. Dr. Bowditch's deductions have been made from some 24,500 subjects in the public and private schools in Boston, and are as follows : that, up to the age of eleven or twelve, boys (of several races) are taller and heavier than girls, while for the next two or three years the tables are turned, the girls nearly completing their full growth, and after that the boys regain the ascendency ; that at heights below 58 inches boys are heavier than girls in proportion to their stature, while at heights above the reverse is the case ; that the children of American-born parents are taller and heavier than the children of foreign-born parents ; that the pupils of American parentage, of certain private schools, surpass in these particulars the public-school pupils, as well as English boys of about the same social grade. "It will thus be seen," says Dr. Bowditch, "that the theory of the gradual physical degeneration of the Anglo-Saxon race in America derives no support from this investigation" ; and he adds in a foot-note, on the authority of a lady of his acquaintance, that "London dealers in ready-made children's clothing recommend to American customers sizes adapted to English children one year older than those for whom the garments are purchased." A number of interesting enquiries are suggested by these researches, as, for example, the bearing of the rates of growth on the question of co-education, which Dr. Bowditch inclines to think advisable only "during the earlier years of

life, in which rates of growth are practically the same—*i. e.*, up to ten or eleven years of age." His paper is liberally illustrated with tables and graphic plates, and the whole report is, as usual, rich in maps and diagrams.

—We have spoken elsewhere of some of the characteristics of the Nez-Percés. Among other peculiar customs which have been discovered in this tribe is an unwritten law of high solemnity forbidding a man to marry for one year after the death of his wife; but polygamy, though becoming rare, is allowable, so that if the husband about to be bereaved is not already provided with a residual spouse (or spare-rib), in order to prevent loneliness during his impending affliction he ingeniously evades the constitutional prohibition by marrying a new squaw just before his moribund partner expires, which in case of her sudden accidental death of course requires much expedition. This arrangement has also a practical advantage in allowing the "thrift" ironically commended by Hamlet, as the "funeral baked meats" can be relied upon to "furnish forth the marriage tables." The religious ceremony of overcoming "Mawish," or the "Spirit of Fatigue," is also noteworthy. An ambitious warrior annually, from his eighteenth to his fortieth year, not only fasts for several days (from three to seven, varying with age and circumstance), but also thrusts willow twigs down the throat into the stomach to irritate it further, and keeps up a succession of hot and cold baths. The steam-bath is taken where wood and water are plenty, in a circular pit in the earth, three to eight feet deep, and fifteen feet in diameter, covered above ground by willow branches, overlaid with grass and earth, leaving a hole to admit the bather, which is closed on his entrance except an aperture just sufficient to admit the hot stones which are then thrown in. There he steams, singing, howling, and praying, until nature can bear no further suffocation, when he emerges to leap into a running stream. The object of this bath is not curative, as when it is employed by many other tribes, but, together with the fasting, is an example of superstition allying itself to the infant principles of dietetics and training after the manner of some disguised prescriptions in the Mosaic ceremonial code. Finally, we remark, as to the roots employed as food by the Nez-Percés, that the best known are the *camos*, a sweet, onion-like bulb, growing in moist prairies; the *couse*, found in rocky spots; and the bitter-root, which gives its name to the mountain range, and which, though disagreeable to the white guest, is much relished by the Indian palate.

—The Florence *Nazione* contains a lively account of the disadvantages under which the libraries in that city labor, which may be appreciated in several places in this country. Florence is very rich in manuscripts, rare or unique editions, books annotated in the margin by celebrated persons, incunabula, engravings, maps, valuable autographs, and the like, and numbers half a million volumes in its four principal libraries, the Nazionale, Riccardiana, Mediceo-Laurenziana, and Marucelliana. Nevertheless the city is not content. Scholars complain bitterly of the inconvenience of having to go to four different quarters of the town when they wish to consult several manuscripts of the same work, to compare different editions, note variations, and determine true readings. They allege the untrustworthiness of memory and the cost of copyists—an expense which they need not incur if the books were brought together in one place. Moreover, the libraries are overfull. The Biblioteca Nazionale, for instance, fills 64 rooms in three buildings never designed for library use, with stories of different heights, and connected by a labyrinth of corridors and staircases. And, as the utmost capacity of the bookcases was long since reached, the books, as in our own National Library, are piled on tables, chairs, benches, window-seats, mantel-pieces, and in the corners from floor to ceiling. The custodians keep the run of what they have, and its place, only by a succession of daily miracles, any one of which deserves a gratuity in this life and beatification after death. No one should be admitted to the service who cannot pass an examination in acrobatics. To stand upon the top of the ladders and extract from the tottering pile of literature a desired book without bringing the whole to the ground, must demand a security of equilibrium that is usually attained rather in the market-place than in the library. Surveillance becomes more and more difficult, and cataloguing out of the question, for the writing-tables are all covered with books. Moreover, it is by no means impossible that the floors, never built to sustain such a weight of learning, will unanimously resign their positions some day and deposit the whole in the cellar. The chances of fire from the neighboring kitchens and a café opposite are common to all city libraries unprotected by shutters and stand-pipes. The obvious way out of all these troubles is consolidation of the four libraries, which has been effected, and a new building. The latter, it appears, cannot be afforded; a palace, however, has been found, but is in possession of another department of government, which will not give it up. *Hinc illæ lacrymæ.*

—Vittorio Imbriani, professor in the university at Naples, and well known as one of the editors of the 'Conti del Popolo Italiano' now in course of publication, has recently published two important contributions to Italian folk-lore. The first is entitled 'La Novellaja Fiorentina' (Leghorn, 1877), and is a second edition of the 'Novellaja Fiorentina' published in 1871, and now entirely out of print, and also of the 'Novellaja Milanese,' published in the *Propugnatore* at Bologna in 1872, and equally difficult to procure at present. The editor has added many heretofore inedited stories and largely increased the valuable notes accompanying them. Some idea may be formed of the extent of the work when we say that it fills 640 pages and contains fifty stories from Florence, illustrated by forty-two versions from Milan, and many other variants from other parts of Italy. Professor Imbriani's method of annotation is particularly valuable, and displays a vast amount of erudition. He traces his stories through Italian literature, and shows how largely the novelists of the XVth to XVIIth centuries drew on the people for their materials. The editor has not neglected the literatures of other countries, and is well acquainted with the labors of Köhler and Liebrecht in this field. A curious example of his wide range of reading is shown in a note to the novel of 'La Bella Giovanna,' in which occurs the joke about a person having one side of the face shaved. Imbriani remarks: "This joke has been told by several writers. Even the American Barnum, in his memoirs, relates it as having really happened." We regret that the editor feels obliged to add, "Even in their rudest jokes the Americans cannot be original," and quotes quite unnecessarily Victor Hugo's lines, "*nation du hasard*," etc. We presume that Mark Twain and Josh Billings are not much read in Naples.

—The same editor has published at the same time in Naples a collection of popular tales in the Neapolitan dialect, or rather in the dialect of Pomigliano d'Arco, a little town a few miles northeast of the city. The title is 'XII Conti pomiglianesi con varianti avellinesi, montellesi, bagnolesi, milanesi, toscane, leccesi, ecc.' (Naples, 1877). This collection contains some thirty-two stories and variants, besides a large amount of illustrative material, and displays equally with the first-named work the editor's great learning in this field. These volumes are not only indispensable to all scientific students of popular tales, but they afford the most valuable material for the study of the living dialects of Italy. We notice that the 'Pentamerone' of Basile and the 'Piacevoli Notti' of Straparola are so scarce even in Italy that Imbriani frequently gives long extracts from them in his notes. Why does not some Italian scholar give us good annotated editions of these folk-lore classics? No one is more competent than Imbriani as far as the Italian references are concerned.

—A second edition of Brehm's 'Thierleben' is an undertaking of as great magnitude as the bringing out of a cyclopædia, and is almost as notable and important. Fourteen years ago the director of the Berlin Aquarium—an extensive traveller and trained observer, the son of an eminent ornithologist—began the publication of the work now in process of publication for the second time. His aim was to prepare a natural history scientific in its arrangement and in its statement of facts, but popular in seeking to describe chiefly the modes of life of the animal creation. His success was unqualified, and any one who has read Mr. Darwin's 'Descent of Man' knows how frequently Brehm is cited as an authority in that work. The German naturalist, however, takes no part in the controversy as to the genesis of species, but offers material from which either side may derive arguments if it can. The new edition has profited by the extraordinary increase in our knowledge of animals which we owe to the stimulus given by Mr. Darwin's writings, as well as to recent explorations like Schweinfurth's, and expeditions like the *Challenger's*. In fact, it has been almost wholly re-written. The same is true of the illustrations, three-fifths of which are new, and all of which are of a high order, while some will probably never be surpassed as the combined product of draughtsman and wood-engraver. Some of the heads of apes in the first part of the work attain a seemingly more than photographic fidelity, for they serve to interpret as well as to represent the originals. Specimen numbers of the 'Thierleben,' which will be somewhat costly, but which will be a great treasure in any household, may be had of B. Westermann & Co. As the former edition was translated into many languages, we presume that an English version of the present one may be looked for, though we have seen no announcement to this effect.

—Von Reumont's 'History of Tuscany,' the first part of which ('Die Medici,' 1530–1737) we noticed in the *Nation*, No. 557, has recently been completed by a second volume, 'Geschichte Toscana's unter dem Hause Lothringen-Habsburg, 1737–1859' (Gotha: Perthes, 1877). The first volume ended with the death of John Gaston, the last of the Medici, in 1737; the second volume opens with the accession of the House of Lorraine, and continues the history of Tuscany down to its incorporation into the kingdom of Italy. The arrangement of this volume is the same as that of the first; in the *Beilagen* are given a chronological table, a bibliography of works relating to this period, and an excellent index to both volumes. Students of Italian history are to be congratulated upon at last having the history of Florence completed, for Von Reumont's work will serve as a continuation of those of Napier, Trollope, and Capponi. Although the history of Florence after the fall of the Commonwealth does not offer so attractive a field to the historian, yet it seems to us more important and more interesting than it is generally deemed. The loss of Florentine independence was the fault of the people, and how bitterly they were punished for their political sins can only be seen by a perusal of their history under the later Medici. In like manner, the tyranny of Cosimo, the first grand duke, is the legitimate consequence of what was practically the reign of Lorenzo the Magnificent. This later period of Florentine history is not a hit wbehind the earlier in tragic material, and the old traditions of art and learning were continued in no unworthy manner. In short, fully to appreciate the history of Florence, it must be known at least to the extinction of the Medici in 1737.

—In the year 1870 a convention at the old Hanse town of Stralsund, in commemoration of the five-hundredth anniversary of the treaty with Denmark which converted the Hanseatic League into a great maritime power, resolved to form a *Hansisches Geschichtsverein*, which was accordingly organized the next year at Lübeck. The *Recesses*, and other acts of the League, were already in course of publication by the Historical Commission of Munich; three volumes have been published, edited by Koppmann. The new association made it its work, therefore—first, to issue a periodical; second, to make a collection of documents illustrating the history of the League. The periodical—*Hansische Geschichtsblätter*—is edited by Koppmann, and contains intelligence and disconnected essays. The first volume of the *Hansisches Urkundenbuch*, edited by Höhlbaum, is a quarto of 523 pages, containing documents illustrating the history of North-German commerce and the gradual formation of the League down to the close of the XIIIth century. The scope of the work is fourfold, embracing, first, the commercial relations of North Germany during this period; second, the relations of the North-German towns to one another; third, the separate confederacies which led the way to the great League; and, fourth, the development of the Lübeck system of commercial law, which was a chief factor in the formation of the Union, and with the triumph of which this volume ends.

—The eminent publicist, René de Mas Latrie, has published a thin volume of great interest in the history of international law—'Du Droit de Marque, ou Droit de Représailles au Moyen-Age' (Paris). The writer shows that while privateering is peculiar to modern times, the right of reprisal—the right of the injured party to seize his property or its equivalent—belongs especially to the Middle Ages; and he questions whether "letters of marque" are really an advance, in point of right, over "letters of reprisal." However that may be, he shows that the right, as exercised in the Middle Ages, was far from being irregular or violent; that it was placed under strict regulations, and carefully guarded from outrage. In short, the formalities employed—as illustrated by numerous examples and documents—indicate a much nearer approach to the rules of modern international law than we had supposed to exist. The author is inclined to decide that the right of reprisal did not exist in antiquity, while it fell into disuse in the XVIIIth century. We should have been glad, however, if he had discussed the relation of this right to that of distress, of which it would appear to be the international form; and the right of distress, as Sir Henry Maine has shown, did exist in Roman law.

—The *Athenæum* and the *Academy* have both contained, in recent numbers, some interesting facts concerning the books lately sent from Constantinople to Hungary, in recognition of the friendly spirit expressed by the Hungarians towards the Turks. These volumes are the remains of the "Bibliotheca Corvina," or library of the great and enlightened King Matthias Corvinus (1458–90). His large and valuable collection of books—mostly manuscripts—was scattered in the troublous times of the XVIth century and a good part of them carried off by the Turks after the battle of Mohács (1526). Its dispersal, Heeren says, was probably "a greater calamity to literature than the burning of the Alexandrian library by order of Omar—supposing that to have occurred." The manuscripts now returned are forty-five in number, and are described as finely written and magnificent in binding, and in excellent condition. The list of titles contains many Greek and Latin writers and some moderns (as Dante); of the classics the particular works are not always mentioned, so that it is, we suppose, not impossible that some lost works may turn up among them. Of authors entirely lost we notice only Pompeius Trogus—a great acquisition, if only it does not prove to be Justin's abridgment.

WALLACE'S GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF ANIMALS.*

I.

IT is Buffon who is to be credited with having first promulgated precise generalizations respecting the geographical distribution of animals. Buffon, in this respect, not only advanced much beyond his predecessors, but leaped at once to a position which some of the more pretentious naturalists of our own times have failed to attain. In brief, he recognized (1) that the inhabitants of the tropical and southern portions of the old and new worlds were entirely different from each other; (2) that those of the northern portions of the two were, to a considerable extent, identical; and (3) that the confluence of the two was most apparent towards the proximate portions of America and Asia. The truth that animals in fact had, for the most part, originated in the regions of the earth where they are now found, became incontrovertible; and geological research demonstrated that they were preceded by forms which were the ancestors of those now living on the soil. Numerous zoölogists, from time to time, took up the problem of the distribution of animals as a special study. At length an English ornithologist, Mr. P. L. Sclater, in 1857, published a memoir, to which adventitious circumstances gave considerable celebrity, and in which the formerly recognized regions were redefined under new but by no means appropriate names. (1) The European region was christened Palæarctic; (2) the African or Ethiopian, the Western Palæotropical; (3) the Indian, the Middle Palæotropical; (4) the Australian, the Eastern Palæotropical; (5) the North American, the Nearctic, and (6) the tropical American, the Neotropical. These regions were contrasted, as implied in their nomenclature, under two prime categories—the Palæogean and Neogean, corresponding respectively with the old and new worlds of geographers. The limitations of the regions were, for the most part, judiciously adopted by the author from his predecessors, although without any acknowledgment and with a tacit assumption of originality. The major combinations, however, so far as animal geography was involved, were peculiar to Mr. Sclater, and, for most classes of animals, were extremely unfortunate. It is but just to add that subsequently, when his attention had been re-directed to the subject by Prof. Huxley's writings, this objectionable feature of the classification was appreciated by the author himself, yet he has meanwhile been not without followers.

Mr. Sclater's views call for mention here simply because they have been accepted and pushed into great prominence by Mr. Wallace in his recent work, and by several other naturalists, whose experience might have taught them better. Whatever is true in them had long before been apprehended, and what was new has been rejected by those best qualified to judge. The ignorance of the literature of zoölogical geography on the part of the gentlemen in question may perhaps account for the claims to originality which have been put forth and recognized in respect to the regions accepted. Mr. Wallace has long been known as an adventurous and scientific traveller in many regions, an excellent collector in several departments of natural history, but especially of birds, and, more than all, as one to whom Mr. Darwin himself accredits the discovery of the law of natural selection simultaneously with himself. He has published several notable volumes of travels and essays, and many articles in various periodicals, chiefly on birds and insects. He is also entitled to the honor of having first clearly defined the boundaries between the Australian and Indian realms, and recognized in the inconsiderable strait which intervenes between the islands of Lombok and Bali the true dividing line, very properly designated as Wallace's line or strait, separating the great regions indicated. His experience in the field thus qualified him for considering

* 'The Geographical Distribution of Animals. With a study of the relations of living and extinct faunas as elucidating the past changes of the earth's surface. By Alfred Russel Wallace, author of the 'Malay Archipelago,' etc.' In two volumes. With maps and illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers, publishers. 1876. (8vo, Vol. I., xxiii, 503 pp., 18 pl.; Vol. II., ix, 607 pp., 9 pl.)

and giving weight to a certain class of facts. His writings and his own admissions, however, prove that he was but little acquainted with the structure and classification of animals, and little imbued with taxonomic tact. Prepared as he was, nevertheless, he undertook the formidable task of a work upon 'The Geographical Distribution of Animals.' The title-page would naturally lead us to suppose he meant to consider the problems of zoölogical geography in general, but in the preface he states that it "is an attempt to collect and summarize the existing information on the distribution of land animals" (p. v.) When, however, we examine the contents of the two volumes in question we find that the work, in fact, is mostly devoted to the consideration of what the Germans would call "binnenländische Thiere," which is perfectly expressible by the scarcely-used English term "inland animals," with some references to the distribution of marine animals, although extremely meagre. Further, we find that even of the inland animals a very small proportion are considered, and indeed only the vertebrates and a few invertebrates are discussed. On a review of these discussions it becomes also very soon apparent that the author had an autoptical acquaintance only with the birds and several families of insects, and that his knowledge of the other forms was almost entirely derived from a few authors of more or less repute. Inasmuch as authors have greatly differed in their estimation of the values of groups and their mode of weighing differences in the several classes of the animal kingdom, we should naturally expect that under such circumstances there would be considerable incongruity in the basis of the work. Such, indeed, is the case to a greater extent than even might at first be looked for in the work of our author.

Mr. Wallace discusses his subject under four leading heads. In Part I. (vol. i. pp. 1–104) he treats of "the principles and general phenomena of distribution"; in Part II. (vol. i. pp. 105–170) of "the distribution of extinct animals"; in Part III. (vol. i. pp. 171–485, vol. ii. pp. 1–164) he enters upon the consideration of "zoölogical geography, a review of the chief forms of life in the several regions and sub-regions, with the indications they afford of geographical mutations"; and in Part IV. (vol. ii. pp. 165–553) he gives, under the caption of geographical zöology, "a systematic sketch of the chief families of land animals in their geographical relations." We need only consider a few of the questions involved.

Mr. Wallace very properly postulates (vol. i. p. 83) that "a little consideration will convince us that no enquiry into the causes and laws which determine the geographical distribution of animals or plants can lead to satisfactory results unless we have a tolerably accurate knowledge of the affinities of the several species, genera, and families to each other; in other words, we require a natural classification to work upon." In order, too, to compare things and conditions, it is necessary that they should be referred as nearly as possible to the same common standard. In all of these particulars we find a woful degree of imperfection and incongruity in the work of Mr. Wallace. In some respects he has carried differentiation into orders, families, and genera to an extreme degree, while in others he has accepted, as counterparts, groups whose representatives show the most fundamental differences among themselves. Thus, in the class of birds 10 orders and 131 families are admitted, and to such an extent is subdivision carried that not less than 50 families are named for the passerines and 8 for the parrots; although those groups are two of the most natural assemblages of the animal kingdom, and have been regarded by authors of the highest scientific ability (*e.g.*, Prof. Alphonse Milne-Edwards, Prof. Garrod, in 1874, and, apparently, Prof. Huxley), in one or both cases, as of simply family value. Again, the innocuous snakes are subdivided into 19 families, and the butterflies into 16.

In striking contrast with such families are many of those of fishes and mollusks. For the former the classification of Dr. Günther is adopted, and we find the heterogeneous groups designated under the names *Percidæ, Triglidæ, Trachinidæ, Scombridæ, Carangidæ, Gobiidæ, Pediculati, Blenniidæ, Gadidæ, Siluridæ*, and a number of others, to be compared as natural families with those of birds. More incongruous and heterogeneous still are some combinations designated as families adopted from the earlier parts of Woodward's 'Manual of Mollusca.' Ignoring that author's own latest improvements, Mr. Wallace has reverted to his cruder first conceptions, and we find families too numerous to mention of the most unnatural description, and which could be accepted by no scientific malacologist of the present generation any more than they were retained by Woodward himself in his later writings. We are quite safe in asserting that under several of the families thus alluded to, or hinted at, the differences of structure exemplified are greater than those exhibited by the extremes of living birds. When such is the case, it is evident that we can have no just or adequate idea of the comparative characteristics as to the zoölogical geography of the several classes considered in Mr. Wallace's work. In every class, not excepting the birds (*e. g.*, "orders" Picariæ and Gallinæ, "family" Pelicanidæ), there is apparent a want of familiarity with the principles of taxonomy, and a great deficiency in classificatory ability. Even when the author has attempted to give the more recent views of systematic authors, he has sometimes signally failed—as, *e. g.*, when he would give the latest views of Dr. Günther respecting the primary classification of fishes (vol. i. p. 102), or the ideas of Pfeiffer and Von Martens on the Pulmonates (vol. i. p. 104). Mr. Wallace has evidently been influenced rather by the numbers of species than by morphological considerations in the application and assessment of classifications, and, it may be also added, by physiological rather than structural differences. The consequences of these sins are entailed upon every branch of his subject, and it must be always remembered that each class, and sometimes each order, has been considered from a different point of view in a systematic sense.

As already indicated, Mr. Wallace has, for the most part, followed Mr. Sclater in the adoption of the number and names of the primary "regions" of the globe, but has subdivided those regions for himself, each into four sub-regions, thus (vol. i. pp. 81–82):

I. Palæarctic, with the sub-regions (1) North Europe, (2) Mediterranean or South Europe, (3) Siberia, and (4) Manchuria or Japan.

II. Ethiopian, with the sub-regions (1) East Africa, (2) West Africa, (3) South Africa, and (4) Madagascar.

III. Oriental, with the sub-regions (1) Hindostan or Central India, (2) Ceylon, (3) Indo-China or Himalayas, and (4) Indo-Malaya.

IV. Australian, with the sub-regions (1) Austro-Malaya, (2) Australia, (3) Polynesia, and (4) New Zealand.

V. Neotropical, with the sub-regions (1) Chili or S. Temp. Am., (2) Brazil, (3) Mexico or Trop. N. A., and (4) Antilles.

VI. Nearctic, with the sub-regions (1) California, (2) Rocky Mountains, (3) Alleghanies or East United States, and (4) Canada.

Mr. Wallace's idea is that the primary regions of the globe should be few; that they should be as nearly as possible co-equal "with the great natural regions of the globe marked out by nature"; and that the regions should "represent as nearly as possible the main features of the distribution of existing animals, and not those of any or all past geological epochs." He carries out his idea so far as to give us a most Procrustean series of sub-regions. Here it can only be premised that many of these divisions, at least, will require to be re-examined and otherwise limited and contrasted.

There are several illusions which many naturalists seem to labor under and which are too often assumed or taken for granted; such as that there are certain very definite regions in which, severally, animals are segregated from all others; that those regions and their mutual relations are equally indicated by all classes of animals; and that the distribution of marine animals is collateral with that of inland forms. But little knowledge of facts and little reflection is necessary to render obvious the fallacy of these views.

The regions, or realms as some would call them, defined by Mr. Wallace have been just specified. Their bounds are in several instances disputable, and would be more or less modified by students of different classes, as Mr. Wallace, in fact, admits. The marches between contiguous regions in which species of the two commingle on common ground may be many hundreds of miles in width. In few cases, indeed, except when bordered by the wide ocean, are the exact limits of the regions defined, or, it may be added, will ever be definable. We should be amiss even if we looked to the highest mountains as invariable dividing lines. The Rocky Mountains, for example, do not at all trenchantly separate the "eastern" and "western" regions, as is alleged by Mr. Wallace (v. i. p. 6), but the plains west of the Mississippi form neutral ground intervening between the two. The differences between the Atlantic and Gulf slopes on the one hand and the Pacific and Rocky Mountain on the other are rather, at least to a considerable extent, attributable to the "mediterranean" seas which in tertiary times covered so great a portion of the present hydrographical basin of the "Mississippi" rivers. The new-made land was apparently mostly colonized from the eastern and northern regions, and the subsequent commingling of types, extensive as it has been, has still not obliterated the primeval diversity between the two, although this is now most distinctly exemplified by the fishes.

SELLAR'S VIRGIL.*

NOT a few will allow that their only real knowledge of Lucretius and Catullus—let alone the lesser poets, whom hardly any one pretends to know—dates from their reading of Professor Sellar's rich, thoughtful, and lively exposition in his work on the 'Poets of the Roman Republic.' The present work avowedly continues that, and is to be followed by one on 'Horace and the Elegiac Poets,' which we earnestly hope may be in two volumes. The Virgil before us is a complete work by itself. It is an excellent execution of an excellent design. It is not an edition—we have enough and too many editions of Virgil—but a descriptive monograph, of the character of Grote's 'Plato.' That admirable and now classical work was the first of a sort which can hardly be too much multiplied—books which not only add depth and unity to our actual or prospective study of the great classics, but present a picture of them, true, consistent, and lively, to such as do not expect to make any such study. Grote's 'Plato' was a treasure alike to students who meant to probe Plato to his depth, and to readers who were content to be told with the traditional homeliness of the late President Sparks, "Who Plato was; where he lived; what he wrote; something general"—in short, to have him a man, and not a name. Professor Sellar proves himself a worthy follower and rival of Grote.

His book has eleven chapters. The first is a general introduction, analyzing and explaining that hackneyed phrase "the Augustan age." The second discusses Virgil's place in Roman literature, in four sections—viz., his former undisputed pre-eminence as its greatest bard; the change in that estimate during the present century; his supreme importance as a representative writer; and his claim to rank among the great poets of the world. The third chapter discusses the life and personal characteristics of Virgil. The fourth is occupied with the Eclogues, their dates, their relation to Greek pastorals, and their truth of feeling. The next three chapters are devoted to the Georgics, their structure and object, their relations to the great poem of Lucretius, and their strictly Italian character. The eighth chapter is on the pre-Virgilian Roman epic, and the three remaining analyze the 'Æneid' in its form and style, its importance as a national work, and its value as an epic of human life.

We have said the book is not an edition. There is no textual criticism, and, indeed, no repetition of Virgil's language at all except to illustrate and confirm the text. Still less is it part of the author's plan to translate Virgil. His book affords no countenance to that theory (literally *preposterous*, for it elaborately and ostentatiously puts the cart before the horse) that we best find out what the Romans and Greeks said by means of a modern language. Nothing has done more harm to American learning, nothing has gone farther to prevent our graduates from reading Latin and Greek with facility, than this view, which, endorsed though it be by some distinguished names and some names distinguished chiefly for bold assertion, is after all a mere "pony" scholarship, and may well give the old lines a new interpretation of the fate of Salmoneus:

> "Demens! qui nimbos et non imitabile fulmen
> *Ære*, et cornipedum pulsu simularet *equorum*."

When Professor Sellar quotes he quotes Virgil's own words, and the familiar gems often startle us with the richness and brilliancy developed in his setting. Of course, in a work like this, much does not profess to be original, except as far as the form goes. There is, perhaps, nothing strictly new in the facts set forth as to Virgil's life and times, the sources from which he drew his materials, and the principles of art he followed—that is, in one part or another through the whole mass of Virgilian literature an omnivorous student may recognize the source of every one of Professor Sellar's statements and deductions. Indeed, to say anything very original now about Virgil one must be eccentric and rack him into meanings and phrases he never dreamt of. Of this there has been more than enough; but never were all the stores of Virgilian scholarship combined into such a rich whole, cast into such graceful shapes, and chased in such delicate workmanship as now. The result, profound in its learning, acute in its criticism, tender in its sympathy, is indeed Virgilian.

Professor Sellar has thoroughly seen and set forth the qualities that make Virgil what he is. First, his thorough Italian feeling; his deep and passionate love for

> "Il bel paese che 'l mar circonda e l'Alpe."

In his most essentially Greek adaptations—his half-Sicilian shepherds, his half-Bœotian farmers, his Homeric heroes—still the "Magna parens frugum, Saturnia tellus, magna virium," with all her beauty and all her strength, all her history and all her future, is present as the queen of his heart and theme of his song. He has understood Virgil's peculiar love of nature, and especially he has realized the full force of that wonderful personification of the earth which runs throughout the Georgics: first, the defiant enemy, then the rebellious subject, the crafty slave, and at last the righteous servant, the true friend of man. Nor has he, in connection with Virgil's descriptions of nature, outward or inward, failed to apprehend the sensitiveness (to use Conington's most appropriate word) of his language, the peculiar economy of expression, strictly analogous to that of Sophocles, whereby a passage, musical on a first reading, touching on a second, positively tingles with restrained sentiment when all its points and bearings are apprehended. He does justice to Virgil's appreciation of the great work of peace and prosperity which Rome owed to Augustus. He has none of Mommsen's immoral Cæsarism; but he does catch thoroughly the yearning for peace that thrilled the heart of the pure scholar, the devout poet, "pius vates et Phœbo digna locutus," who saw the rough times grow mild after the hundred-years' civil war was ended. He has, finally, appreciated the strange kind of religion which Virgil felt as a moving force in his life. From the venerable but singularly dull and soulless formalities of Latium, from the borrowed graces of Greek mythology, from the boldest speculations of Epicurus and his predecessors, the reserved, sensitive, severest soul of the Celto-Italo-Rhætian had twined a singular thread of unvarying dependence on an ever-present deity to which there is no precise parallel in theological history, but which has proved a chord of harmony to many of the most devout souls since his time, notably his illustrious companion through the abodes of the dead. The fourth eclogue, the constant religious warnings of the Georgics, the whole theme of the 'Æneid,' are but reiterations of the refrain, "Deus, deus ille, Menalca."

On the much-vexed question whether Virgil has a right to be considered an original poet, he shows conclusively that Latin originality is in its essence different from that of Greece or of the modern nations; and that Virgil did originate a new type of epic poetry as truly as Rome originated a new imperial polity. He also perceives, but hardly brings the point out strong enough, that the kind of originality which a modern dramatist or novelist would aim at in dealing with the heroes of tradition—such designs of epic creation as Tennyson shows in the 'Idyls of the King'—would have been thought positively impious in Sophocles or Virgil; as impious as if Milton had altered the Bible statements in his epics and his tragedy. It was a new setting of the old sacred jewels, a new telling of the old inspired story, that an ancient audience sought for.*

Prof. Sellar handsomely vindicates Virgil from the charge of a failure to give human interest to his epic, though he grants his inferiority to Homer in the discriminating presentment of individual character. We hardly think he does justice to Virgil's peculiar excellence as the poet of gallant, high-spirited youth. Ascanius, Pallas, Nisus, Euryalus, and Lausus are pictures full of meaning to every one who has been honored with the confidence and regard of a candid and generous boy. Still less has he caught in its full ethical significance the royal character of Virgil's hero—the hero of moral duty, whose heart lies in the ashes of Troy. All earthly passion is henceforth dead for him; he lives for heaven and his scattered nation alone. Tempted by malign influences to one instant of sin, he breaks away the moment the voice of heaven arouses him. "Italiam non sponte sequor" is his all-sufficient answer to Dido; "Sequimur te, sancte deorum, quisquis es," his unalterable motive.

We close this article with reluctance, recommending most cordially this elegant and solid monument of well-directed scholarship.

Charlotte Brontë. A Monograph. By T. Wemyss Reid. With illustrations. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)—Biographies may be regarded as a sort of intermittent disease, recurring at intervals of from ten to twenty years, according to the condition of the public pulse in regard to any noted person. It is a tribute to the permanent interest in Charlotte Brontë that a new memoir of her should be published so soon, for there is really no reason, except the flight of time, to justify it. Twenty years have added a few new letters to the present biographer's store; and the same lapse of time has closed the doors of Haworth Parsonage upon the last of the Brontës. So there are a few new things to be said, but they are of no great importance. Mrs. Gaskell's delineation

* 'The Roman Poets of the Augustan Age. By W. Y. Sellar, M.A., Professor of Humanity in the University of Edinburgh, and formerly Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. Virgil.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. xx, 413.

* Our author repeats the charge of Lewes and Gladstone that Virgil has degraded the character of Homer's Ulysses and Helen. None of them seems to remember that he writes from the Trojan point of view; of course, they are hateful and contemptible to him.

of the gifted race will remain the permanent picture. Mr. Reid himself calls it "one of the most fascinating and artistic biographies in the English language"; and though this frank recognition may somewhat disarm criticism on his own work, it makes the need of that work still more questionable. He does his best to emphasize the slight shades of difference between his own portraiture and Mrs. Gaskell's; he tries to show that Charlotte Brontë was a little less influenced by her brother's fall, and a little more by her own Continental experiences, than had before been supposed. Yet, after all, the point is of slight importance; Mrs. Gaskell had already recognized both factors, and a slight variation in the proportions is of no great matter. Even the letters from Miss Brontë to her life-long friend, Miss Nussey—letters which constitute Mr. Reid's chief additional matter—had been previously used by Mrs. Gaskell; and their best passages had been extracted by her, though doubtless many which she did not cite are quite worth giving.

The part of the book which we should call most valuable is the delineation of her married life, a picture which, though slight, is more ample than that of Mrs. Gaskell. It certainly seems a strange prolongation of the shadow which always hung over everything pertaining to Charlotte Brontë, that she should have married a man with an absolute distaste for the intellectual pursuits which had made her famous. She tries to make the best of it; says in one letter: "I believe it is not bad for me that his bent should be so wholly towards matters of real life and active usefulness—so little inclined to the literary and contemplative" (p. 177); but it is very plain that the result would have been, if she had lived, an absolute annihilation of her literary career. "He was resolute," says Mr. Reid, "in putting aside all thought of her literary achievements; his whole anxiety—an anxiety arising almost entirely from his desire for her happiness—was that she should cease entirely to be the author, and should become the busy, useful, contented wife of the village clergyman. It would be wrong to hide the fact that she was compelled to place a severe strain upon herself in order to comply with her husband's wishes; and once, as we have seen, her strength of self-repression gave way and she indulged in the forbidden luxury of work with the pen" (p. 186).

If Mr. Nicholls appears in a harder or more ungracious light, regarded as a husband, we must admit that in his fidelity to Mr. Brontë he proved to be all that the loving wife and daughter would have demanded. "During all these sad and lonely years, while the father of the Brontës waited for the summons which should call him once more into their company, Charlotte's husband lived with him, the patient companion of his hours of pain and weariness; the faithful guardian of that living legacy which had been bequeathed to him by the woman whom he loved. And by this self-sacrificing life he did greater honor to the memory of Charlotte Brontë than by the most tender and vivid appreciation of her intellectual greatness" (pp. 198–9).

Mr. Reid calls attention to the fact that, after Mr. Brontë's death, his son-in-law did not, as might have been hoped, succeed him. The living was transferred to another; Mr. Nicholls returned to Ireland, his early home, and there remains in the Haworth parsonage no living memorial of the strange career of the Brontës.

Last Essays on Church and Religion. By Matthew Arnold, formerly Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford, and Fellow of Oriel College. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 228.)—"The present volume," says Arnold, "closes the series of my attempts to deal directly with questions concerning religion and the church," and the reader naturally pauses and looks critically back at what has been accomplished. Much notice has certainly been attracted, but has the much-talked-of "natural religion" at last been established on firm ground? Book in hand, the exquisite charm of the style prepossesses one strongly—its sweet refinement, its delicious grace, its limpid transparent flow, its individuality ever felt and never obtruded. England is not deficient to-day in eloquent prose-writers; and amongst them Arnold must be placed very high. He has not the many-colored splendor of Swinburne, but then the beauty of his words is never used to conceal the feebleness of his thoughts. He has not the massive dramatic force of Froude; still less the intensity of Harrison. But he has a sweet artistic reasonableness, an easy, agile refinement just verging on humor, that is quite his own. The prose of the poet, the historian, and the reformer constantly reflects the pursuit of each; but Arnold's speaks only of wide culture. It has so little that is professional about it that it seems the work of an artistic amateur. It might be written by a woman. It most reminds us of Ruskin without his mannerisms, and the reader forgets to criticise under the sweet enchantment of the art.

Even the first essay, which in any other hands would drag a little—an historical parallel between St. Paul, Matthew Hale, and John Smith—is pleasant reading; though the attraction which Arnold finds in the Cambridge platonist is rather too subtle for general readers. The longest essay is on "Bishop Butler and the Zeit-Geist," a critical study of the great 'Analogy.' Arnold is never argumentative; he prefers to lead his readers to his standpoint and let them see things for themselves as he sees them. And in this essay, with scarcely an attempt at strict proof, he induces his readers to reject arguments which generation after generation has honored, by simply setting them plainly forth; and in this way the essay is remarkable as a tide-mark of advancing liberalism. The last two essays are on the Established Church and the Burials Bill—an unsuccessful attempt, our readers will remember, to allow Dissenters to bury their dead in the church-yards with their own rites; a privilege of no little importance in villages where there are no cemeteries, and where hitherto Dissenters have had either to bow to rites they did not believe in, or separate their dead from their forefathers. To this reform Arnold is opposed, and at first glance his conservative radicalism seems a curious and inconsistent position. No doubt this mixture of liberal intellectual instincts and conservative moral motives is common and growing commoner, but is it sound? He recognizes the success of liberal thought on the Continent in overthrowing beliefs that have always been considered a part of Christianity, and he does not doubt that in England, too, the "religious barriers of tradition and convention will finally give way, that a common European level of thought will establish itself and will spread to America also." To prevent this by appealing to natural religion, those instincts which he thinks the foundation of Judaism, of primitive Christianity, and of Protestantism alike, is Arnold's object. That religion is a simple thing, in his opinion. Good conduct, he says, is three-fourths of it, and the other fourth, we may add, is æsthetic culture. But moral principles are being questioned as well as creeds, and the questions are not much easier to answer. The solution Arnold finds in human solidarity. The motive to do right, he says, is the strongest of passions; it is the pursuit of happiness, the search for life. But it is the happiness of the solidary man, the life of the race, not the unit; and the test of right is the experience of the race. Every man has in him two selves, the narrow individual self, and the higher self which is one with the higher self of others, the race self; and it is the latter which conscience recognizes and duty cherishes. This is, of course, utilitarianism in its purest form; and it is curious to see how near in modern ethical science this solidary conscience approaches to the authority of the Catholic Church, which was inspired truth when it spoke the unanimous voice of the members of the body of Christ.

To Arnold the philosophy of the creeds is the merest metaphysical folly, and the profounder conceptions of philosophy pure jargon. His deity has not even personality. It can neither love nor will. It is a tendency towards righteousness, a symbol for the sum of all good things and good forces. This is not even Deism. It goes as far as our extremest radicals—nay farther, for they retain, as a vital part of their faith, the belief in personal communion with the Father, a belief which properly involves personality, and this Arnold rejects. Yet here, where he seems at the extremest verge of philosophical dissent, his artistic sensibilities are suddenly touched, and in these last essays he draws back into conservatism under the always convenient cover of natural religion. What! destroy the Established Church, that noble old society for practical goodness! Allow any but her ordained priests to perform her fine religious services; or allow the burial of a Dissenter in her churchyard under inharmonious Dissenting rites! Such suggestions arouse in Arnold all that refined scorn which his opponents find so galling. Yet his position is an anomalous one, after all, by any intellectual standard—a position only reached by one other, the great French positivist, with whom Arnold would so dislike to be coupled. These elaborate forms, these priests and rites in an empty temple, this state support of a church which has no head, a worship of an unrealizable abstraction, a religion without a God—nowhere but in the most extravagant utterances of Comte can it be paralleled. But there is this difference: Comte's Grand Être may be a return to the race-worship of the savage, but it is at least something we can love and adore; Matthew Arnold's tendency to righteousness has not even humanity.

Memoir of Lieut.-Col. Tench Tilghman, Secretary and Aid to Washington, together with an Appendix, containing Revolutionary journals and

letters hitherto unpublished. *Gloria Majorum, Lumen Posteris.* (Albany: Joel Munsell. 1876. 4to, pp. 176.)—This handsomely-printed volume is made up in nearly equal parts of a life of Col. Tilghman, by Dr. Samuel A. Harrison, of Talbot Co., Md., and his journals and correspondence; the latter being chiefly letters to his father, but containing also some interesting letters of Washington. Col. Tilghman's father, Mr. James Tilghman, of Philadelphia, was of Tory sympathies, and withdrew to Chestertown, Md., soon after the outbreak of the war, where he remained in quiet retirement the rest of his life. His son's letters relate mostly to personal experiences in the war, avoiding questions on which he was at variance with his father; sometimes, however, he briefly vindicates the cause of the colonies, or warmly eulogizes the commander-in-chief. On the whole, the most interesting part of the volume is the private journal kept by Col. Tilghman when acting as Secretary of the Commissioners appointed to negotiate a treaty with the Six Nations in 1775. It is rapid and informal, often graphic and instructive. For example (p. 82): "The Houses of these Gent are very good, but scarce any marks of improvement about them. From what I have yet seen of the province of N. York it is far behind any other of the Colonies in public spirit; her Roads are narrow, her Bridges loose logs dangerous to pass, and everything bears the Mark of the true situation of the Bulk of the People, A State of Tenancy."

Col. Tilghman died in 1786, much lamented, at the early age of forty-one; a letter from Gen. Washington, called out by this event (p. 119), is partly an expression of respect and sympathy and partly is directed against some calumny which had been started by a Capt. Asgill, in relation to his treatment while a prisoner.

Recollections of Samuel Breck, with passages from his Note-Books (1771-1862). Edited by H. E. Scudder. (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1877. 12mo, pp. 316.)—Mr. Scudder is quite right in his estimate of the value and interest of Mr. Breck's 'Recollections.' It is one of those contemporary pictures which one is always glad to meet with, by whomsoever sketched; but Mr. Breck was not a commonplace man, and had no ordinary opportunities. He was rich and well connected, occupied a high social position, and had some political prominence; lived both in Boston and in Philadelphia, and travelled more than once in Europe; his reminiscences are of personages as far removed in every way from one another as Mirabeau and Marryat, including a large proportion of the most prominent public men of this country during the first half-century of the republic. On the whole, the most entertaining parts are the extracts from the note-books; these almost always have reference to prominent men, and are generally composed of brief, pointed anecdotes. The longest consecutive passage, if we are not mistaken, is the interesting account of the Marquis de Valady (pp. 219-246), a Girondist, whose adventures in escaping from the terrors of the Revolution are described at some length. On page 248 is a story of Joseph Bonaparte, the ex-king of Spain, who, in 1816, hired Lansdowne House, near Philadelphia, and was invited by the farmer in charge of it to step into his house and take a drink of cider:

"Joseph went in, took a chair, and after drinking praised it much, enquiring where Bones bought it. Bones, who is a good-natured, free-spoken man, told him that in America farmers made their own cider, and if it was good, so much the better; if bad, it must be swallowed by them. Just like the government made by the Americans—if honestly administered, they were contented and happy; if otherwise, they must wait patiently and endure it until the constitutional time of changing its officers. This was interpreted to Joseph, and seemed to amuse him."

Mr. Breck was a hearty Federalist, and tells many stories to the disadvantage of the opposite party. After speaking of Washington's dignity (p. 188), he goes on:

"None of his successors, except the elder Adams, has placed a proper value on a certain degree of display that seems suitable for the chief magistrate of a great nation. . . . That levelling philosopher, Jefferson, was the first President who broke down all decorum and put himself when abroad upon a footing with the plainest farmer of Virginia. I say 'when abroad,' because in his family he lived luxuriously, and was fastidious in the choice of his company. But when he wanted to catch the applause of the vulgar, with whom, however, he was too proud to associate, he would ride out without a servant and hitch his pacing nag to the railing of the Presidential palace."

Enough examples are given of corruption, nepotism, and inefficiency in the Government to show that we are not very much worse than our fathers. The contrast, it strikes one in reading a book like this, is not so much in the number and extent of the single acts of corruption, as in the fact that politics had not then become a trade. What were then abuses are now recognized practices.

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Littell's Living Age, Vol. 18, Apr.-June, 1877	(Littell & Gay)
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Continued from page iv.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 19, 1877.

The Week.

NO political event of the week has been so important as some of those which are near at hand; and chief among these is, beyond question, the Ohio Republican Convention at Cleveland next month. The State is one whose political action, not more on account of its wealth and population than of its geographical position, making it a middle term between Eastern conservatism and Western recklessness, must always be a concern to the rest of the Union. But the interest which thus attaches to it is now heightened by the fact that Ohio is the President's State in a close and peculiar way, and not at all as Illinois was Grant's State. What the Republicans may do, therefore, unless a split should openly declare itself, cannot help being regarded as done with the Administration's approval; and this will be especially true of the Convention's declarations on questions concerning which the Administration has given an uncertain sound. That the silver question is one of these we need not say; and while fears are entertained that Mr. Hayes's Southern "policy" and his civil-service reform acts may array the Convention against him, we do not observe that the silver men of the party apprehend that what it may decide about remonetization and resumption will equally antagonize his Administration.

Of course, nobody expects that the financial plank of the Cleveland platform will be framed without a struggle, but with all the light we have at present we shall not be able on reading the plank to judge how far it is or is not "inspired." In other words, we do not know now whether Mr. Sherman really wishes resumption on January 1, 1879, whether he is afraid it cannot be achieved, whether he favors the restoration of the silver dollar as legal tender, or at all, or whether he regards it as an essential preliminary to resumption. Nor do we know precisely where Mr. Hayes stands on all these points. If the platform reflects the Secretary or the Administration it will at best be vague and unsatisfactory. Some of the Ohio politicians urge entire silence as to the Resumption Act; others, that a postponement of the date be demanded; some call for the 412½-grain silver dollar to be issued as unlimited legal-tender, but only *pari passu* with the withdrawal of greenbacks; others want it issued without any contraction; some desire a fixed limitation of the amount coined, others would be content with a few millions by way of experiment, while others denounce any limitation whatever. Finally, we are likely to see participating in the *mêlée* of contrary opinion the honest bimetallists, who, we take leave to think, are very few, and whose voices are not likely to prevail in this hubbub. If they do, it will not be to call for the immediate coinage of the dollar of our fathers.

It becomes of some consequence to learn who will be most likely to draw up the silver resolution at Cleveland, or, failing that, what are the views of the men who might be appointed to draw it up. With the views of the editors of the Cincinnati *Commercial* and *Gazette* we are tolerably familiar, and should be pleased to think that what they daily reiterate found no echo with the Administration. Mr. Garfield is popularly supposed to be as much in Mr. Hayes's confidence as either of these gentlemen, and we had hoped that his utterances would be both sound and unequivocal. His latest have been neither. They were drawn out in an interview by and apparently for the benefit of the *Gazette*, and while containing much that was sensible were calculated to encourage the demagogues who are engaged in demoralizing the people of Ohio. As regards silver, he admitted that in the present condition of European standards it would be impossible for silv in this country to maintain its ratio to gold, but nevertheless was willing to have $50,000,000 issued "and take more time to consider it." We must quote his own words about resumption:

> "I am not strenuous for a specific day. Let us move on as fast as possible toward a specie basis, and if when the day draws near we are not prepared, we can do as other debtors do—take short extensions—but let there be no step backward. But the plain facts before the people and the popular common sense will decide for us."

We do not pretend to know what this means, but we fear it means that it would make very little difference whether General Garfield or Mr. Richard Smith had to do with the drawing up of the resumption plank of the Cleveland platform.

The work of disestablishing the machine in politics—to employ Mr. Schurz's phrase—has made considerable progress recently, and many close students of our politics must have been amazed at the revelations of the extent to which it had obtained control. The President's order has brought out already some curious facts. In Eastern Pennsylvania, for instance, the United States marshal has twelve deputies, each one of whom belonged to a different Republican executive committee, and all, presumably, looked after the politics of their respective wards as carefully as after the marshal's legitimate business. Again, in Wisconsin, four out of the five members of the State Republican Committee are postmasters, and a nearly equal proportion of officeholders has been discovered upon the political committees of other States. Very many postmasters, again, who are also members of Republican county executive committees, are sending their resignations from these committees directly to the Post-Office Department at Washington, as though this were the body—as in fact it has been—to which they were responsible for their political course as well as for the conduct of public business. Nothing could be more significant of the extent to which officeholders have become thoroughly imbued with the notion of allegiance to the dominant party, or more convincing, we may add, of the fact that civil-service reform had been deferred to the extreme limit of decency.

The carrying out of the order has hardly equalled in forcibleness the revelation of its necessity, although the officeholders are evidently becoming convinced that "something is up," and are quite prompt to fall in with what may be required of them. In Mr. Key's department, as we have just stated, postmasters are rapidly sending in their resignations from political committees. In Judge Devens's department a copy of the order has just been formally issued, and marshals are beginning to follow the example of postmasters. In Mr. Sherman's department Simmons, of Boston, has resigned from the State Committee, and other collectors may be expected to copy his illustrious example. Some of the decisions of the Administration with reference to the practical working of the order have not been consistent with the object to be attained. The four Wisconsin postmasters above referred to, for instance, declared that if they resigned at once the Republican Executive Committee of the State would be destroyed, and no body would be left with authority to call the next State convention; and upon this pretence Mr. Key allowed them to remain upon the committee, and, of course, to manipulate the customary wires until after the next convention. The postmaster of St. Louis, who is a member of the National Executive Committee, desired to retain the latter position, and the President was at first in favor of allowing him to do so, because he would have no political work to perform for nearly three years. This opinion, however, encountered so much ridicule from the press that at a Cabinet meeting held subsequently all officeholders were required to resign from the National Committee—a decision which affects also Assistant-Secretary McCormick, and Mr. Cornell, of New York. It is also said that Washington clerks and other officials must withdraw from the

various State associations at the capital, and will not be allowed to take long vacations in order to vote at home. Mr. Key has further decided that no postmaster can be a candidate for election to any office, even if he intends to resign his postmastership in case of election. He must resign before accepting a nomination.

The Custom-house enquiry at New York, of which we gave a full account at the time of the report of the Investigating Commission, was followed by the appointment by Mr. Arthur of a committee of three employees of the Custom-house, who were instructed to report in detail the reductions that could be made in the existing force. This committee advised the discharge of about 150 employees, a less percentage of the whole number, however, than the Investigating Commission had recommended; and now we are informed that the Cabinet has several times considered this important subject before coming to a decision, though inclined to confirm the recommendation of the Commission. Apparently it has not occurred to the Administration that the New York Custom-house is now supposed to be managed upon strictly business principles, and that the number of employees requisite cannot therefore be correctly decided in Cabinet council, but only by the business manager of the concern, namely, the Collector of the Port. If he cannot be trusted to decide a point so essential to business efficiency, and so impossible to be decided wisely by the President and his advisers at Washington, plain business men may infer that he is retained from political considerations. A discussion by the Cabinet of the respective merits of the recommendations of the "Jay" commission and the "Grant White" committee might be profitably replaced, therefore, by a consideration of the business qualifications of the Collector—a subject which the Cabinet is fully qualified to deal with.

The State Republican Committee of Mississippi have adopted resolutions formally dissolving the party in that State. This action has created but little sensation in Republican circles, the best party papers declaring it the most sensible thing that could have been done. That a party asserting the possession of a majority of 30,000 voters should thus quietly disband is an unprecedented occurrence, and under other circumstances would have been a most remarkable one; but, in fact, in Mississippi, as in South Carolina and Georgia, which will virtually if not formally follow the example of Mississippi, the Republican party of late has had only two excuses for existence—troops and plunder—and when these were withdrawn, the one from its support and the other from its grasp, the natural result followed. Its dissolution is therefore a sign of returning political health which even party managers have the good sense to welcome.

The members of the Louisiana Returning Board have published a statement which, if true, gives a different complexion to the attempt now pending to bring them to justice. They deny that the Grand Jury has found any bill of indictment against them, either on its own motion or anybody's motion, and allege that the proceedings taken against them consist in the filing of an information by the district-attorney; that he kept it secret until the judge of the court before which the case would be tried had obtained leave of absence for ninety days, with the view of having the charge hanging over the accused during all that period without the possibility of their having it enquired into. This certainly gave a suspicious look to the whole matter, and made it incumbent on the district-attorney to explain his share in it. He has accordingly done so in a published statement, in which he admits that the members of the Board are prosecuted in consequence of an information plea filed by him, but furnishes the text of a request made by the Grand Jury to the court to instruct the district-attorney to file it. This, of course, relieves the district-attorney of the imputation of filing the information from motives of political prejudice. He asserts, moreover, in answer to the charge of unnecessary delay, that the request of the jury was made on the 27th of June, and his plea filed as soon as possible thereafter, on the 5th of July. The matter, moreover, was originally brought before the Grand Jury as long ago as January last, but at that time, of course, Wells and his associates refused to recognize the jurisdiction of the court. The present Grand Jury took it up as old business, but had some doubts of its legal right to indict the Returning-Board members at a special session of the court. Hence its request to the judge which led to the filing of the district-attorney's information. The action of the district-attorney, we may add, has had the good effect of drawing out some remarkable definitions of the term "political offence." Formerly this was understood to mean simply a conspiracy or insurrection undertaken with the view of overturning a government, both of them acts of which an upright and brave man might be guilty and retain his self-respect and that of his fellows. But in the Louisiana case it is made to cover forgery, perjury, and falsification committed by officers of the Government for their private gain; and we are told that even if we have the plain proof in our hands we must let the knaves run, lest it should "embitter sentiments." We notice that it has been judiciously remarked by some Republicans who are opposed to the investigation, that "Tilden is at the bottom of it." We sincerely hope he is. If so, it is one of the best things he was ever at the bottom of, and we trust he will stay there.

A number of the taxpayers of Savannah have begun legal proceedings to restrain creditors of that city from bringing suits against it on account of bonds, coupons, or promissory notes; to cause the city bonds, etc., to be declared null and void; and to place the property of the city in the hands of a receiver. The abstract of the application for an injunction, as given by the newspapers, is one of the most shameful exhibitions of dishonest intent ever openly published by the business men of a commercial and civilized city. They ask for an injunction, in brief, because the present rate of taxation cannot be maintained without injury to general prosperity; because some creditors of the city have brought suits against the city, and others are likely to do so, thus creating "serious embarrassment"; and because these hard-hearted creditors allege that they are only asserting their legal rights, and refuse to compromise. The debts of the city amount to something over $4,000,000, more than half of which was contracted, as long ago as 1853, for railroad subscriptions, Savannah River improvements, the construction of water-works, gas-lights, and other city improvements. The tax-rate of Savannah is about two per cent, a high rate, undoubtedly, but no higher than that of some other cities. The repudiators do not deny the authority of the city government to borrow money for the uses of the city, but deny the power to contract "loans in the form of coupon bonds." The argument upon the desired injunction is to be made on the 20th. "The South," says the Charleston *News and Courier*, commenting upon this case, "is too poor to be dishonest, and too much in need of money to refuse to pay her debts"—a suggestion which South Carolina and Virginia, as well as Georgia, would do well to meditate upon.

The financial event of the week was the closing of the subscription-books for the United States 4 per cent 30-year bonds, which have been open since the 15th day of June. The subscriptions came in slowly until two days before the last one, and the calculation then was that if $25,000,000 were taken it would be as good as could be expected. On the next day $9,000,000 were taken, on the next $11,000,000, and on the last day $23,000,000—making the total subscribed $65,000,000, with about two millions more to be reported. This, of course, was a great as well as an unexpected success. The books were opened also in London, and have not yet been closed. The large subscriptions in this country show conclusively that the people who have money to lend want first of all absolute security, and with this assured the rate of interest is less important. When the heavy decline in real estate, the shrinkage of all railroad securities and the utter extinction of not a few, are taken into account it is not strange that the investing public should have at last learned the lesson that the principal of a loan is more important than a high rate of interest.

There has been during the week a striking illustration of the difficulty of getting at the truth about the war in the case of the operations at Bayazid. General Tergukassoff, as we mentioned in our last issue, who was compelled to retreat after his reverse at Delibaba, marched to the relief of Bayazid, in the citadel of which a small Russian garrison, numbering in all 1,600 men, had been shut up by a division of Turkish regulars and a body of Kurds. The question was whether Tergukassoff was able to raise the siege. It was announced officially at St. Petersburg on the 12th inst. that he had succeeded, and had dispersed the Turkish force; Turkish despatches from Erzerum, dated the following day, however, announced just as positively that the garrison of the place was *in extremis*, and General Tergukassoff four hours away. The fact appears to be that he did relieve the garrison, but found the town destroyed and the place in a pestiferous condition, and he retired with the whole force to the Russian frontier. He ascribed the delay on his march to the necessity of protecting crowds of Christian fugitives driven into his camp by the Kurds. The siege of Kars seems to have been substantially suspended. An English officer, writing in the London *Times* from Mukhtar's headquarters on the 9th of June, gives an account of the position at Zevin (in assaulting which Loris Melikoff came to grief), which shows it to be one of extraordinary strength—a plateau approached by a steep ascent, scarped in some places, and flanked by lofty mountains. He gives the whole force under Mukhtar's orders at that date at fifty-seven battalions—say 30,000 men—infantry, about 1,500 regular cavalry, and ninety field and mountain guns. The general opinion in Europe seems to be that the Russians were too weak in numbers for the job before them, and that they cannot resume a formidable offensive without heavy reinforcements.

The Russians have crossed the Balkans. Gen. Gurko, with a command estimated at some 20,000 men, properly made up of all arms of the service, and starting from Elena, quietly surmounted the Tverditza Pass on the 13th inst., and the next day surprised the Turkish battalion guarding the outlet at Khainkoi. Without delay he pressed on westward to Kasanlik, in the rear of the Shipka Pass, whose defenders will thus have some difficulty in preventing it from becoming the main thoroughfare of the Russian advance. Meantime Cossacks sent out to the southward have reached Yeni-Sagra and destroyed telegraphic communication with Slivno, as well as railroad communication with Yamboli. The equally important line between Philippopoli and Adrianople is now menaced with interruption at any moment, and the Turks, who are concentrating all their available force at the latter city, are calling in all their rolling-stock from points beyond. On the other side of the Balkans the Russian progress is no less satisfactory. On the 16th, Nikopoli surrendered after a hard struggle, and 6,000 Turkish regulars fell into the hands of the captors. Better still, two monitors were among the prizes, and may not unlikely be soon heard of in the operations against Widin. Cossacks are already reported at Lom-Palanka. In regard to the investment of Rustchuk we hear nothing positive; but this fortress is said to have been cut off from Rasgrad by the Russians cutting the railroad at Vetova, and the probabilities are that by this time the garrison—say 30,000 men—has been effectually "corked up." Silistria is also isolated, as the Turks have permitted the occupation of Medjidie, and consequently abandoned the Tchernavoda-Kustendshe line of defence. That the Russian advance has not to fear much enterprise is evident from the fact that the staff of Abdul Kerim Pasha, who is an old man, consists of two Turks, one of whom was never in the military service till the outbreak of the present war. The operations are apparently directed by the Council of War at Constantinople.

One of the most important elements in the Turco-Russian problem has been well known all along to be the attitude of Austria, and about this there was a good deal of mystery; but it has been rightly felt that the war could never have been begun if Russia had not had positive assurance of her neutrality, because if she ordered the Russian army to retire behind the Pruth it would have no choice but to obey promptly, so completely are its communications within her power, and so thoroughly could she roll it up by entering Rumania. Nevertheless, as the Magyar element in the Hungarian population was well known to sympathize keenly with the Turks, and to dread Slavic aggrandizement, there was more or less expectation, especially in England, that it might be able to force the hand of the Government and precipitate some kind of interference. All doubts on the subject have been set at rest, however, by the speech of Herr Tisza, the president of the Hungarian Ministry, in which he announced that the Government had pursued from the beginning a policy of absolute neutrality, and meant to adhere to it, until Austrian interests were in some manner menaced, which, as yet, they had not been. He said "they were not bound in any direction whatever"; that "the sole guiding principle of the foreign policy pursued by them was the interest of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy to the exclusion of all antipathies and sympathies," a declaration which was received by the Parliament with "loud and general cheering." The London *Economist* draws attention to the important bearing this may have on England's position. Austria has been looked on hitherto by the English pro-Turks as their most likely ally in case they had to fight Russia; but in the list of "British interests" presented to Count Shuvaloff by Lord Derby which Russia must not menace—the safety of Egypt, the Canal, and Constantinople, and the impassability of the Dardanelles to men-of-war—it is all but certain that only one, Constantinople, would be found in the Austrian list. The inference is obvious.

The home questions by which the British mind is most occupied are ecclesiastical questions. The little Manual of the "priests" of the Society of the Holy Cross has excited intense disgust, and seems likely to have serious consequences, in some shape, for the members, who are said to number seven hundred. The Archbishop of Canterbury has declared in the House of Lords that anybody who detected a "priest" in asking any of the objectionable questions in the Manual of a wife or child, would be justified in forbidding him ever to approach his house again; and the public mind has been still further relieved by the opinion of the Attorney-General in the House of Commons, that the publisher of filthy books is liable to prosecution, even although he does not publish them for money or profit.

The incident has helped to fan the flame of excitement on the Burials Bill, which was introduced by the Government and passed in the Commons, allowing Dissenters to bury their dead in the churchyard silently, without the interference of the Anglican incumbent; but an amendment in the Lords introduced by Lord Harrowby, a Conservative peer, which was carried by a small majority, allowed the Dissenters to have a decent religious service performed by their own ministers. A defeat of a Conservative Ministry on such a question in the Lords is naturally looked upon as a serious matter, and the Government, instead of accepting the amendment, have increased the excitement by withdrawing the bill and promising to consider the matter during the recess. Mr. Leatham seized this opportunity to bring up in the Commons the old subject of the sale of church-livings, of which he showed that there were, when he spoke, no less than 2,383 in the market for sale or exchange. The Government agreed with him so far as to half promise some measure against the sale of "next presentations." The right of presenting *in perpetuo* ministers to church-livings has now a very large amount of money invested in it, as its value goes into the purchase-money of estates, and it would be difficult to abolish it without enormous outlay in compensation. So, as to this, Mr. Cross, the Minister, proposes to confine himself to arousing the consciences of patrons to the solemnity of their trust. But nobody defends the practice of selling "the next presentation"—that is, the right of filling the next vacancy only—which is often put up in the market by advertising that the present incumbent is old and infirm, and the shooting and fishing in the neighborhood excellent.

THE REPUBLICANS AND THE RESUMPTION ACT.

IT was our painful duty at various periods during the late Presidential canvass to call attention to the manner in which the Republican managers endeavored to evade the issues raised by the Republican platform and Mr. Hayes's letter, and to point out the gross improbability that the most prominent and conspicuous of these managers really meant that he should carry out the reforms he promised. Our forebodings as to the state of mind of these worthies have been abundantly justified, as our readers know by this time, by their conduct with regard to the pacification of the South and the reform of the civil service. Their pretence that what Mr. Hayes has done with regard to South Carolina and Louisiana is in some manner different in substance from and will have more dreadful consequences than what General Grant did with regard to Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Arkansas is surely marked by extraordinary audacity, and the kind of support they are giving to civil-service reform would surely be diverting if their sermons during the canvass had not exhausted the public mirthfulness.

But there was one thing for which during the campaign they did with great appearance of earnestness claim credit for superior virtue. "Say what you will," they exclaimed, "about our attitude towards the South and towards civil-service reform; perhaps on these matters we are a little weak and vacillating, and have been and are guilty of considerable humbug. But with regard to the currency and the public credit you will admit that the Democrats cannot for one moment be compared to us. See how we have fought the Democratic inflationists in Ohio and Pennsylvania, and see how we have put on the statute-book a solemn pledge binding the Government to renew specie payments in 1879."

Now, without going back to the origin of the Resumption Act or questioning the motives of its framers, it must be admitted that it was the strongest point in the Republican position last year. It is true that all mention of it was deliberately excluded from the platform, and that the allusion to the duty of returning to specie payments was very vague and indefinite. But Mr. Hayes was very outspoken in his letter of acceptance, and the Republican press was no less so as to the solemn duty of resuming on the day named. Our readers may remember the horror felt in good Republican society over Hendricks's proposal to repeal the Act, and the disgust excited by the passage in Tilden's long letter of acceptance in which he criticised it. He thought there ought to be an accumulation of gold made or steps taken for funding the greenbacks on a great scale before a day was fixed for resuming, and he laid it down "that the proper time for resumption was when wise preparations had ripened into a perfect ability to accomplish the objects aimed at with certainty and ease." It was easily seen that this left a good deal of uncertainty as to the time of resumption if the Democrats got into power, and the Republicans "pointed with pride" to their own Act, which provided that on the first of January, 1879, greenbacks should on presentation be redeemed in gold. If they had no other advantage over the Democrats they at least had this, and it was great.

Extraordinary as it may seem, the Western Republicans are now engaged in the very work which was expected of Tilden and Hendricks and their followers. They have adopted Tilden's position almost word for word. They denounce the Resumption Act almost in the language of the St. Louis platform, which declared it "a hindrance" to resumption and demanded its repeal and called in its stead for "a judicious system of preparation by public economies, by official retrenchments, and by wise finance, which should assure the whole world of its perfect ability and its perfect readiness to meet any of its promises at the call of the creditors entitled to payment." Hayes was at that time being held up to Republican admiration as a candidate who was not only opposed to the repeal of the Act, but who if he agreed to any change in it would be in favor of hastening instead of postponing the day. The Cincinnati *Gazette* and the Chicago *Tribune*, two of the leading papers in the West, are now decrying the Act and calling for its "modification" almost in Democratic words and for Democratic reasons. The *Tribune* says we cannot resume on the day named, inasmuch as no adequate preparation has been made for that purpose, and recommends delay and something by way of preparation which we do not quite understand, but which is of the nature of "public economies" and "wise finance." It says, as the Democrats have been saying, that the country will not submit to the contraction necessary to resumption, and that if the greenbacks are redeemed we must have plenty of silver or bank-bills to take their place. The Cincinnati *Gazette* says, as the Democrats said, that "the Resumption Act is impracticable," a "policy without a plan"; but it does not, like the wicked Democrats, demand the "repeal" of the Act, but only its "modification." The Cincinnati *Commercial* is so occupied with the remonetization of silver that it does not appear to have its head quite clear about the Act, but appears also, on the whole, to have got into the Democratic position. This, for instance, in its issue of July 8, sounds very like the joint composition of Tilden and Hendricks and the St. Louis Committee on Resolutions:

> "The fact is that the declaratory Act was not originally a wise one. . . . The really practical work was to organize such a state of things in the monetary system or machinery of the country as would have established a drift towards specie resumption, and let business solve the problem. . . . Having got the declared intent of the country to resume, it would have been, perhaps, wiser legislation to foster the sentiment in that direction by adhering to the excellent suggestions of Mr. Rowland's whereas, and omitting the designation of a day for the consummation of the Act."

This seems to be a direct call that "wise preparations should ripen into perfect ability," or for "a judicious system of preparation . . . by wise finance." On the following day, it is true, the editor while acknowledging the unwisdom of the measure, acknowledged also that, having gone so far towards resumption, it would be a serious matter "to take a backward step," and a day later still confessed that "wise preparation" would be "in the nature of repudiation." Where he stands now we have no means of knowing, but presume his ultimate conclusion will be that we ought in some manner to "ripen into perfect ability" before we carry out the Act of 1875. The minor Republican organs at the West are rapidly running in the same direction, and probably, by the time Congress meets, the bulk of Republican opinion in that region will have received a strong bent in the direction of the very ground taken in 1876 by Tilden and his Convention upon the national credit, and in the direction of complete repudiation of the most effective of all the arguments used in support of Hayes's election.

It is to be regretted that at a juncture like this there should exist in the public mind any doubt or uncertainty as to the position held by the Administration on the currency questions now under debate, and as to its intentions with regard to the Resumption Act. With a large body of people who do not go very deeply into these matters the word of the President or Secretary of the Treasury counts for a great deal in the formation of opinion, and a clear and distinct enunciation from either of them of the views and purposes of the Government, both with regard to the silver question and the question of resumption, would go a great way towards steadying multitudes of persons who have already forgotten what it was they most "hollered" about when they were supporting Hayes last summer. This is one of those cases where it will hardly do for the Administration to keep its own counsel, because one of the essential conditions of resumption is a state of mental preparation for it on the part of the public. That state has been brought about within the last year. It was strengthened greatly by Mr. Hayes's election. We are now in some danger of seeing it shaken or destroyed. Business men see leading party organs abandoning the party position on this subject, and a powerful effort making to plunge the country into a financial experiment which everybody in the New and Old World who has given the subject long and serious attention considers little short of crazy, and which, the matter being one of pure business, is advocated half the time on grounds purely sentimental. Meanwhile disquieting rumors are afloat in the newspapers as to the President's views and

as to the Secretary's plans, and the only thing for which business men feel it safe to prepare is some sort of financial chaos in the fall. A close examination of the condition of the Treasury, too, does not neutralize the effect of these rumors. There are as yet no signs in that department of active preparation for the work of resumption, which is now so near, and in which the destruction of the discount on greenbacks must be the first great step. The Treasury must meet the resumption-day, if possible, with greenbacks at par, and there is only a year and a half left to do it in, and to convince people that it surely will be done.

PROFESSIONALS AND AMATEURS IN POLITICS.

THERE have been during the past week several expositions of the completeness with which the Republican organization and the management of elections—including the canvass of the voters, which in populous districts has to be perpetual; the provision of booths, of ballots, of inspectors and desks, of rooms, and the raising of money for the expenses, which are very heavy—are now, and ever since the Republican party came into power have been, in the hands of Federal officeholders. The great bulk of the funds, too, needed for electioneering purposes is, we are told, and, judging by the smallness of the contributions from other sources, has to be, raised by assessments on the salaries of Government employees. From all this we are asked to picture to ourselves the probable consequences to the party organization of the execution of the President's late order. In the Southern States, where the officeholders are the only Republicans possessing even familiarity with the arts of reading and writing, or any business capacity, it will probably lead to the disappearance of the party for the present from the political arena; and, indeed, it has produced this result in one State—Mississippi—already. Many writers and some politicians seem inclined to prepare us for something similar even at the North—not, that is to say, for the disappearance of the party, but for its overwhelming defeat at the polls. They produce plenty of proof of the unwillingness of persons not connected with the Government service to give either money or time to the work of party management. They meet the argument based on the fact that the Republican party was formed and won its first and greatest victory without the aid of a single officeholder and without a cent of extorted money, by alleging that volunteers are undoubtedly produced in abundance under the influence of great and exciting questions like slavery or disunion, but that in ordinary times they cannot, as experience has shown, be looked for. It cannot be denied that the politicians make their case look very formidable. They show beyond question the great difficulty of organizing universal suffrage, and making it work through party machinery in a vast and busy community like ours, where there are so few "natural leaders," so little popular docility, and where elections are so numerous and the voter's attention distracted by so great a variety of "issues" and interests, municipal, State, and Federal. Nor is it a wholly despicable reply to the objection that the Democratic party is kept alive and vigorous without the aid of offices to say that it owes a great deal of its power and activity to the hope of offices, and that if plunder were not permitted after victory its ranks also would be very thin.

But this mode of defending the old system is very fortunate, because it goes to the root of the difficulty and danger by which American institutions are now beset. If there be any deduction from political experience more firmly established than another, it is that public spirit, as it is called—that is, the interest of individuals in general concerns, and the willingness of individuals to work without reward for the general welfare—exists in the inverse ratio of Governmental activity. Nothing surprises foreigners who visit this country more than the enormous amount of money contributed and labor given by persons for the promotion of charitable and educational and religious purposes. A vast religious organization—looking at all denominations as one church—and a highly expensive one, is supported and carried on by private labor and funds. So is a vast system of collegiate education; so are a large number of hospitals and other charitable organizations. All the work and all the money expended on these things among us are everywhere on the European continent supplied—if supplied at all—by Government agents paid out of the taxes. No one doubts now that we owe this beneficent activity in a very large degree to the exclusion of the Government from all these fields. No one questions that if the Government took charge of the teaching of religion, as in France or Germany, and made itself the universal almoner, the one reliever of distress and suffering, there would be a rapid decay of the zeal which is covering the country with churches, colleges, and hospitals, and which seems to flow with a more abounding current as wealth and population increase. Yes, and it would decay so rapidly that probably in one generation we should see the Gospel preached by state officers, the sick and poor left wholly to the police, and the colleges put in charge of the Bureau of Education, and the private money now spent on them so lavishly devoted to building up fortunes for the pleasure of idle and ignorant youths. Whatever the Government makes its business, rapidly ceases to be the business of everybody not paid by the Government, and nothing grows more rapidly than a tendency to leave things to the Government, because it gratifies the two great weaknesses of human nature: selfishness and the dislike of labor.

Fifty years ago the provision of adequate means for bringing the opinion of the country to bear on the Government was one of the duties which in America fell as naturally to volunteers, and was as naturally undertaken by them, as the support of churches. The creation of a corps of Government officials, whose bread was dependent on having elections turn in a certain way, as naturally withdrew politics in a greater or less degree from volunteer interest and activity as the state payments of clergy would dry up the munificence of church-members, and would foster the spirit of religious indifference. The existence of a large army of regulars always makes the militia lose its self-respect and feel shy and awkward on parade, and, as soon as "management" was made a department of skilled labor and was monopolized by Government officers, outsiders began to feel unwilling to go to caucuses and conventions in which they would play the part of an awkward squad, and be laughed at for their want of experience and dexterity. For much the same reason, as soon as the system of providing for the expenses by assessment on salaries became established, those who were not compelled to give, and knew that others were, became reluctant to put their hands in their pockets. Anybody who has ever had to collect money for benevolent objects is aware of the chilling effect, even on the most liberal givers, of knowing that some one else will, for his own interest, make up whatever is needed. Money for political purposes can never be raised freely when it is known that there is a large body of persons who, if the worst comes to the worst, must raise it under a most terrible penalty in case of failure or refusal. Though last not least, even if officeholders were a body more respected and trusted by the community than they are, the fact that their positions in party management are arrogated by them and not given to them, and that they are neither chosen by the outside members of the party nor responsible to them, would prevent private citizens from entrusting to them large sums of money, of which they will have to render no account, for political purposes. The bulk of the voters of any party will never subscribe freely for party purposes until they have something to do with naming the persons who are to spend the money.

The present system, whatever its causes, is a direct descent toward the most debased Continental methods of government; for it is not very far removed from a system nominally popular, but in reality engineered under popular forms by a drilled bureaucracy. A Congress nominated and elected by officeholders would be a caricature of republicanism, and yet it is towards this that the bureaucratic management of elections is rapidly carrying us. That we shall get back at once to earlier and better ways, no matter what is now done, we by no means flatter ourselves; the habit of letting the Government "run the machine" is too deeply seated already to be got rid of in a year, and if the President's order be honestly carried

out there may be very likely a period of considerable party loss and derangement. But nothing is more certain than that as soon as it has become clear that victories at the polls will go to the side which can raise most money for electioneering purposes, and supply the best band of volunteer workers, the need for public spirit will be no more wanting in this than in other fields of activity: and who is there who could be useful in such a place who would not sooner sacrifice his time to attend a caucus or convention if he were sure he would not be confronted at it by a body of drilled mercenaries, eager to sneer at his greenness, with a programme of their own ready for his adoption, and prepared to disgust him with his own principles by their cant?

THE ELECTORAL ISSUE IN FRANCE.

PARIS, June 27, 1877.

THE Senate has voted the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies by a majority of twenty, and we have therefore been for two days without a Parliament. According to our Constitution the Senate cannot hold any meetings when the Deputies are not assembled. Though not subject now to re-election, it maintains only a nominal existence, and practically does not exist for the present. The executive power is left alone, and is at liberty to wait three months before the electoral colleges are invited to send new Deputies. The country, to all appearances, is perfectly calm; there has not been a sign of any popular fermentation or agitation in the great cities—in Paris, in Lyons, in Marseilles. I had the curiosity to go two days ago to one of the populous haunts of the Paris faubourgs, and I found the working-men gay and apparently indifferent. I could not help remembering the curious indifference which was shown in the faubourgs at the time of the *coup d'état* of December, 1850; it seemed then as if the *prolétaires* (they used to glory in the name), remembering the bloody days of June and Cavaignac, looked upon Napoleon with some complacency, and considered him as their avenger. They saw with a cynical pleasure the Deputies of the time conducted to the prison of Mazas, and the men whom they had themselves elected a few weeks before could not find an asylum in the Faubourg St. Antoine. Can it be that the working population of Belleville is in a similar mood, and that, remembering the similar days of the Commune, it looks only with contempt on the 363 members of the Left who have "manifested" against the dissolution? Their opinion, after all, is no longer the great political force of the present; the will of the communistic city will be merged in the will of France. The question then arises: What does France think in the present crisis? What is her will? The decision of universal suffrage can be deferred three months, but three months are but a short interregnum.

There is always, if we should believe the best strategists, some advantage in taking the offensive. Dismissing the Jules Simon cabinet, though it had the confidence of the Chamber, taking a cabinet from the minority, and dissolving the Chamber of Deputies, was decidedly taking the offensive. This determination may have some effect with a large part of the nation, which is timid, and which is sometimes led by its very timidity towards men or principles that it really does not admire. Thus far it is impossible to judge if the *act* of the 16th of May (for we call it an act, not a *coup d'état*, as it was strictly constitutional) has added much to the prestige of the President. There are those who would like to see him take the most extreme measures, make himself a Cæsar, a Stadtholder, an absolute ruler, under one name or another; and there are those who would not like to see him step outside the limits of the Constitution. Those of us who are a little familiar with the history of the United States compare MacMahon to General Washington; between the Conservatives and the Radicals, France seems to them in a position which has some analogy with the new state which had to choose between the principles of the Federalists and those of the Democrats. Washington was the type of the conservative, honest, severe President, still imbued with all the ideas of an English Tory, hating and despising the French revolutionary school. MacMahon, monarchical by all the associations and traditions of his past, may still be the founder of a republic. Napoleon I. broke the spirit of the Terrorists and of the Revolutionists by his absolute power, his continued wars, and his administrative genius; the Revolution must now be chained by law; and the honest enthusiasts who look upon MacMahon as a new Washington consider that he is right in stretching the constitutional law to the greatest possible extent in order to give time to France to reflect, to reassure the masses, the peasantry, and to procure a better representation of the great conservative interests of the country.

It may be so. The Marshal certainly has some of the qualifications which make him fit for the rôle which I now attribute to him; he is reticent, enigmatic, silent, stubborn, very determined; he is at the same time the head of the army and the obedient and conscientious servant of the law. He has a deep and sincere hatred of the revolutionary school and of political charlatans. There are, however, great and almost insurmountable difficulties to such a rôle. First of all, it must be understood by a nation. The Marshal himself may be unconscious, or almost unconscious. There have been men who have been led to great destinies by instinct more than by reasoning. But the countries which have followed them had some sort of understanding with them. I doubt if at present France understands exactly the Marshal. France is not always intelligent, politically speaking; France believed, when M. Thiers was chief of the executive, that he was working in the interest of a constitutional monarchy, and all M. Thiers's assurances, all his increasing devotion to the Republic, could not alter this opinion. Does France really believe that MacMahon has no after-thought—none of those thoughts which Pascal called *les pensées de derrière?* Does France believe that she is invited simply to choose between a republic led by ambitious demagogues, who cannot or will not stop the progress of socialism, and a republic led by Conservatives, who think that enough has been done for equality, and that the first duty of the Government is to keep the country *as it is*, without destroying or altering all its institutions? I doubt it, and for this reason: the framers of the Republican Constitution were not ardent Republicans; they could not obtain the vote of the Monarchists, even embittered and disappointed as they were by the foolish action of the Comte de Chambord, without inserting in their work a revision clause. The revision was, in fact, made as easy as possible; the whole fabric of the Constitution can be changed if the revisionists have a majority of *one* in the Senate and a majority of *one* in the Chamber of Deputies; and no limit was fixed to the right of revision. If there is a majority, however small it may be, in both Chambers, the Chambers can unite in Congress, and this majority can alter everything in the state, proclaim the Comte de Chambord or Prince Napoleon or Napoleon IV. King or Emperor.

This revision can only be made in 1880, if the Marshal is opposed to it; till that period, he alone has the right to propose a revision; after that date every man in the country can agitate for it. This date of 1880 is so near that it seems difficult that the French people should forget it. The peasants may say to themselves: It would be, of course, very well to have a good and quiet government for two years, but we should like to know what there is behind it. The choice of the electors will not so much be between the conservative republic and the radical republic as between those who will offer to make the revision in this or that sense and those who will insist upon having no revision at all. The Republicans are all standing in array, and the list of the opponents of the new Cabinet goes from Thiers and Léon Renault, who was Marshal MacMahon's prefect of police for a long time, from Léon Say and Waddington to M. Naquet and Louis Blanc. Such men as Thiers, Gambetta, and Naquet represent a coalition of all the Republican forces; on the other side, what do we see? do we see an army composed of Conservative Republicans? Not in the least; we see, to be sure, some very remarkable men, who would be quite contented with a very stern and conservative republic—M. Buffet, M. de Broglie, and a few others; behind them we see a great army of men who really hate the republican form of government, and who will take the first opportunity to change it into another. M. de Fourtou, the Duc de Broglie, the Marshal himself will tell the country that they do not threaten the Constitution, that they are the firmest supporters of it, that they only wish to defend it against the encroachments of the Radicals, against the violence of open radicalism, and against the dangers of what the Duc de Broglie calls *latent* radicalism. They are perfectly sincere; the question is whether their followers will remain long with them on the ground they have chosen; whether they will be able to hinder their partisans from carrying on, under the protection of a republican form of government, a bitter and unmerciful war against the Republic. When the Republicans taunted the Duc de Broglie with being the leader of a coalition of Legitimists, of Orleanists, and of Bonapartists, he simply replied, "Coalition for coalition, I prefer mine to yours"; he did not deny that he was the Republican general of a monarchical army. He will try, and his friends will try, to organize and constitute what may be called the Marshal's party; but as the next Chamber may be entrusted with the task of revising the Constitution, it will perhaps be futile to try to divide the country between MacMahonism and anti-MacMahonism. It is more likely, and it is more in the necessities of the case, that the electors should decide between revisionists and anti-revisionists.

All the Republicans, though they profess now to be somewhat discontented with the present Republican Constitution, will be more or less anti-revisionists; their adversaries will be in great majority revisionists, and the most ardent of all will be the Bonapartists. The Legitimists know that their chance of making a monarchy could hardly be as good in 1880 as it was in 1870; still they do not abandon their hopes, but they are not arrogant, and their hopes are shadowy. As for the Bonapartists, they don't believe in a conservative republic, nor in honest MacMahonism. To men like the Duc de Broglie, the actual régime is the true "Republic without republicans"; to the Bonapartists, it appears as "the Empire without an emperor." The Empire once reorganized—that is, the administration, the police, the courts of the country being once more in the hands of their partisans, the country being once more submitted not to the strong rule of the law, but to the arbitrary rule of a few powerful and unscrupulous men—the emperor may come and crown the edifice. Such is the avowed design, such is the insolent dream of the Bonapartist leaders. They do not conceal their ambition; they are like hungry men who think they can at last satisfy their appetites. For three months, and perhaps more, the conscience of France will be torn between her good and her evil instincts; what her verdict will be seems to me at the present time so very uncertain that I could not honestly venture to make any prophecy. Many incidents may happen which will make a revolution in the hearts of many. Imagine, for instance, that some great power should take advantage of the absence of a constituted Chamber; suppose that France should wake up with the perspective of some great national danger. All the calculations of the politicians in such a case may prove to be vain. But even under the stillness of our present life there are probably deep and invisible currents; opinions are formed in the cottages, in the huts of the peasants, that have not much to do with the dialectics of our great orators. The atoms of France are in motion, and molecular force will suddenly be transformed into a visible force.

Correspondence.

JUDGE DILLON AND THE CENTRAL RAILROAD OF IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The undersigned, attorneys for the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, trustee under all the mortgages of the Central Railroad of Iowa, and complainant in the foreclosure suit against that road, deem it an act of simple justice to Judge Dillon to protest against the extraordinary insinuations and reflections against that eminent jurist in reference to the case. In all his rulings we believe that he has been actuated solely by a conscientious desire to do justice between the parties, and the idea that he has been influenced by improper motives in what he has done or refused to do has never, so far as we have heard or believe, entered the brain of any counsel connected in any way with the litigation. It is not true that he has denied or delayed justice. The former receiver (previously the superintendent of the road) was removed after charges not affecting his integrity were made and investigated, and in pursuance of the avowed purpose of the Court ultimately to appoint some person unconnected with any party contending for the possession of the property. Moreover, the appealing bondholders claim that they never consented to the decree of foreclosure and sale as entered. The judge's original denial of the appeal taken by the dissenting bondholders from the decree was solely on account of form, and in that denial he pointed out to them the mode in which they should apply, and on application being subsequently made in that manner it was granted; nor, so far as we are aware, has there been any conflict between the various orders and decisions made by him in the case.

The statement that he continued for some time to prevent any execution of the decree is absurd. On the appeal being taken from the decree, Mr. Justice Miller, of the United States Supreme Court, stayed the proceedings on the filing of the usual *supersedeas* bond, the amount of which he fixed. This *supersedeas* was subsequently vacated by the Supreme Court, Justices Miller and Field dissenting. (See 3 Otto's Rep., p. 412.) Since then Judge Dillon has consistently held that, pending the appeal and after the *supersedeas* was vacated, it was for the trustee alone to determine whether it would or would not execute the decree, and has intimated his wish that it might be executed.

The trouble and delay in the reorganization of the road have been caused by the fact that the first-mortgage bondholders are not all satisfied with the decree, a minority having appealed. Judge Dillon has never delayed the foreclosure a day, and the road is now advertised for sale on the 18th instant.

Turner, Lee & McClure.

New York, No. 20 Nassau Street, July 13, 1877.

[We never vouched for the truth of any of the charges against Judge Dillon. What we said was that it was a grave scandal that charges of this sort affecting the character of a candidate for the Supreme Bench should be circulated through the newspapers and by means of printed documents unless they were to be followed by an investigation by some competent tribunal. Messrs. Turner, Lee & McClure are, of course, too good lawyers to expect us to take their view of the case for such an exculpation as Judge Dillon needs. —Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Mr. Winsor has finally decided to accept the position tendered him by Harvard College, and the college is certainly to be congratulated. His management of the library ought to prove equivalent to a heavy endowment.——The fifth report of the Chicago Public Library shows an aggregate of 51,408 books, and a rather slow rate of increase. The institution has suffered from the embarrassment of the city finances, and a healthy progress cannot be expected until a special building is provided.——Mr. Ward's bust of William Gilmore Simms has been ready for delivery for a whole year, but still remains only half paid for. Fifteen hundred dollars are needed to redeem it and provide for the setting up, and the Press Association of South Carolina is endeavoring to raise this sum.——The Globe edition of Milton's Poetical Works published by Macmillan & Co. is one of the best of that series of standard works whose cheapness vies with the excellence of the editing and typography. The editor in this case is Professor Masson, an authority without a rival in his knowledge of the life and writings of the poet. The text is that of his so-called Cambridge edition, and the introductions are an abridgment from the same. They supply in great measure the place of notes, and could least well be spared of the two.——The distinctive features of the one-volume 'Leopold Shakspere' (Cassell, Petter & Galpin) are its arrangement of the poet's works in chronological order, so that the poem of "Lucrece," for example, comes between Part III. of "King Henry VI." and the "Taming of the Shrew"; the inclusion of the "Passionate Pilgrim" and of the plays doubtfully ascribed to Shakspere; the text of Professor Delius; and, best of all, we may say, an introduction by Mr. F. J. Furnivall. The ardent founder of the new Shakspere Society here freely disburses his store of special knowledge in minutely describing the career of Shakspere, and showing in their true colors the man and his time. The result is well worth the cost of the volume. Of course Mr. Furnivall's indifference to extremes comes frequently to the surface, as in his orthography of the preterite (sneerd, ceast, etc.); or in tracing Shakspere's route to London "over lias and oolite at first," then over the "Wycombe chalk," till finally he "descends to London clay"; or in his allusion to the parson who cut down the Shakspere mulberry as "this confounded man." But such eccentricities do not obscure Mr. Furnivall's merits, even if they at times discredit his judgment.——After the fullhandedness of this Introduction, the facts about Shakspere contained in 'Shakespeare's Home' (J. Sabin & Sons) seem rather meagre. This little volume is a compilation, in which Irving has been drawn upon to some extent, and its originality consists in eleven etchings of the scenery about Stratford, by Messrs. J. F. & W. W. Sabin. These, though slight sketches, deserve praise as being still a rare kind of illustration in American books.——The Senate of the University of London has voted to admit women to degrees in other faculties besides medicine. At a meeting lately held in London, and presided over by the Earl of Shaftesbury, it was stated that in addition to the degrees offered by the Universities of London and Dublin, a hospital for clinical practice had been secured by the London School of Medicine for Women; and £2,600 of the £5,000 required to carry out this arrangement were subscribed on the spot.——The French theatrical year-book, 'Les Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique,' the first volume of which we noted last year, seems to have entered on a long lease of life. Its most formidable competitor, the revived 'Almanach des Spectacles,' has not appeared this year. The editors of the 'Annales,' MM. Edouard Noël and Edmond Stoullig, apologize for its delayed appearance and promise the next volume by February 1. In spite of the delay—caused in great part by M. Victorien Sardou, who was at last unable to provide the

preface he had promised—the book is less carefully edited than last year. It is more prolix and less trustworthy. We have detected more than one error which only a careless eye could pass. But the solid merit of the book as a collection of figures and facts, and even of criticisms, more than overbalances these slips in matters of detail.

—The library of the late Professor A. W. Zumpt, of Berlin, is offered for sale. The foundation of this library was the critical apparatus of the earlier Zumpt, author of the Latin grammar. His nephew, who is well known by his treatise on Roman law and his *Geburtsjahr Christi*, had increased the collection to about 3,500 volumes, consisting largely of the literature of Roman antiquity. At the time of his death Zumpt was engaged upon a life of Augustus. This had been for years a favorite study, and he had accumulated for it much auxiliary material. The library is rich in works on Roman and Grecian inscriptions, and in dissertations and critiques upon specialties. Of these last there are about 1,800, many of which are extremely rare. There are copies of Livy, Justin, and other authors, with marginal collations by the late Professor Alsthefski as well as by Zumpt. The books are almost all in good condition. Enquiries may be addressed to Mrs. Professor Zumpt, von der Heydt Str. 6, or to Dr. Jos. P. Thompson, Schöneberger-Ufer 28, Berlin.

—One has often occasion to remark the number of writers of the gentler sex who enjoy the hospitality of *Lippincott's Magazine*. This is noticeably the case with the August number, in which the first six and the eighth articles are by women, who thus fill more than half the entire space. Eliza Wilson's well-written "Irish Society in the Last Century" is a light and entertaining but by no means superficial paper, full of anecdote and of historical information and suggestion. Mrs. Lizzie W. Champney contributes an amusing and plausible slave romance called "Vina's 'Ole Man'"; but with all respect for the artistic execution of it, we must express our doubts as to the John Brown legend on which the story is based. East and West the hero of Harper's Ferry was a great traveller, but that he ever reached New Orleans is not, we believe, recorded. "Château Courance," by John V. Sears, taxes credulity in another way. That there should be deserted and ruined châteaux in France, and that in some of these are to be found rooms whose appointments have been undisturbed for centuries, does not pass belief; but a banquet-hall with a table set before the Revolution and "literally covered" with heirloom silver, and a state chamber containing "the dower of a princess in exquisite point lace," and a dressing-room strewn with swords (one rapier being "fairly encrusted with gems and jewelry") and with "collars and chains set with precious stones, orders and decorations blazing with diamonds"—all this, supposed to have been seen at dilapidated Courance by a couple of American artists after the siege of Paris, may be sober reality or an ingenious fiction designed to fill with vain longings the soul of the bric-à-brac hunter.

—The *North American*, under its new management, is, we understand, having a decided success, part of which is due to its change from a quarterly to a bi-monthly, and part to a perceptible popularization of the character of its contents. The theory of the old quarterly was the publication of contributions by recognized authorities in various departments of knowledge. This has been to a certain extent retained, but to a certain extent also modified by the adoption of what we may call the magazine method, which consists in the publication of articles by well-known or notorious persons, whose writings, when signed, attract the same sort of attention that the authors do themselves when appearing in person in public places, no matter whether they speak with authority or not. In the current number of the review we have, as examples of the magazine method, articles by Mr. J. S. Black on the "Electoral Conspiracy," Mr. O. P. Morton on the "American Constitution," and Bishop Gilbert Haven on "America in Africa." Of all the counsel retained in the Electoral case Mr. Black would probably have been selected by those who followed it, and who knew his general reputation, as least competent to write a fair review of its history. As might be expected, his article is very little more than a heated rehash of his arguments before the Commission, which were more noticeable for their extraordinary exhibitions of contempt for the court than for close reasoning or good rhetoric. Senator Morton gives a second instalment of his argument in favor of changing the present electoral system to an election by districts, not as the best possible method, which he thinks would be a direct popular vote without regard to State lines, but as the best practicable amendment. The rise and progress of Mr. Morton as a constitutional lawyer is one of the most curious facts in the recent history of the United States, inasmuch as it has been accomplished without the production of any evidence of familiarity with Constitutional law, in all former cases considered an indispensable prerequisite. In his present article he goes over very familiar ground, insists that the Electoral College is a sham, that it offers great opportunities for fraud, and that its machinery constantly defeats the popular will. "We can hardly understand," he declares, "now how such a provision could have found its way into the Constitution of the United States." But there is no difficulty in understanding the matter for any one who will examine the debates of the convention that framed the Constitution; in these may be found the arguments used in favor of the Electoral College, many of them still of such weight that a leading publicist like Mr. Morton cannot afford to overlook them. Bishop Gilbert Haven is the same irreconcilable supporter of Grant who last year created such a stir by the gallant stand made by him in favor of a third term, and it is only fair to say that his knowledge of Africa seems from his present article to be greater than that of his own country; but nothing of much interest will be found in it. To turn to the other contributions, we are glad to see that our guess as to the "Japanese Traveller" was not far out of the way, and that he himself acknowledges the close resemblance between Mr. Morton's political reflections and his own. He very shrewdly adds: "This astonished me very much, and it also satisfied me, because I found this very clever Senator agrees so closely with me. But I observe newspapers did not laugh at him; then I thought if I had signed that paper and he had signed mine, they would have laughed at his paper and approved mine." In the present article "Sionara" gives us some of his "moral reflections," which are, perhaps, not as scathing as we deserve. We believe that, as a matter of fact, it is safe to guess that "Sionara" is Mr. Laurence Oliphant of this city, the author of 'Piccadilly.' The "War in the East," with maps, by General George B. McClellan; "How shall the Nation regain Prosperity?" by David A. Wells, and "Reformed Judaism," by Felix Adler, constitute the more solid articles of the number, together with a review of Wallace's 'Russia,' by Mr. W. M. Hazeltine. These will all repay careful reading.

—The *Fortnightly Review* for June comes to us as an American publication ("No. 1 N. American Series"), with the imprint of Craig & Taylor, of Detroit, and with American instead of English advertisements. The disestablishment of the English Church—a subject which has been haunting all the English reviews of late—reappears in this number in the form of "a practical sketch" by Mr. H. W. Crosskey. Regarding disestablishment and disendowment as assured facts of the future, he endeavors to show how the practical difficulties in the way of their accomplishment may be surmounted. With the discussion of these details it will be very necessary, doubtless, for the English people to become gradually familiar; but the difficulties are evidently so great that after the mass of Englishmen have accepted Mr. Crosskey's view of the justice and necessity of disestablishment—and how soon that may be who would dare to prophesy?—there will still remain a long, intricate, and disagreeable task before legislators and jurists. The Nonconformists have heretofore made but little apparent headway, and it is only the prospect of assistance from the Ritualists which gives the discussion its present importance. The metaphysical article of the month, unfinished in the present number, by Mr. J. H. Bridges, is a defence of Positivism and an assertion of its superiority as compared with the more recent philosophy of evolution. Incidentally Mr. Bridges eulogizes Des Cartes as the first to attempt a synthesis of scientific conceptions (Herbert Spencer being an unconscious imitator); and he failed because, unlike Comte, his synthesis was an "objective" one—that is, an attempt to regard the universe as a whole and to explain it, whereas only a "subjective" one, which does not attempt "to stand outside the universe," is possible. In addition to these two, which are the "heavy" articles of this number, there is an admiring article on "George Sand" by Mr. Matthew Arnold, a discussion between Messrs. McLennan and Spencer concerning their theories of primitive marriage, and a candid article on "The Farther Outlook in the East" by Sir George Campbell, all of which will interest different readers, as will also Professor Colvin's account of the paintings exhibited at the Grosvenor Gallery, and Sir David Wedderburn's article on the Maoris and Kanakas. There is not, in fact, a poor article in the number, which is an excellent one, therefore, for beginning the *Fortnightly's* American experiment.

—The question of the day, whether "British interests" have a natural precedence of Russian or Slavic interests, will doubtless not be settled by argument before the Black Sea becomes a Russian lake. The discussion, indeed, is likely to be all on one side, and if England resolves to be judge in her own case she must make good her decision the best way she

can. When Sir John Bowring, who, in spite of his attention to Russian poetry, remained a Russophobist, was urging Canning in 1822 to create in Greece "a strong and popular government, which might be an effectual barrier against Russia," the Foreign Secretary replied: "Yes, that would be a proper argument for English policy, but what language could we hold to Russia to obtain her consent?" Sir John had no answer ready. Mr. Odo Russell probably experienced a similar embarrassment the other day when, if the despatch be true, having notified Bismarck that England would never consent to the occupation of Constantinople, the Prince drily remarked that an occupation seemed to be the best assurance of the objects for which the war was undertaken. As this was clearly to be seen from the beginning, England's protest seems not only late but illogical. It might also be noticed that the three points at which "British interests" would be assailed by the seizure of Constantinople—viz., the overland route to India, through the valley of the Euphrates, the water route by the Suez Canal, and the rivalry of Russia as a Mediterranean naval power—would equally be exposed to attack even if Constantinople were left untouched. "The possession of Greece by Russia," said Sir John Bowring on the occasion referred to, "would give her at once that without which she is not to be feared as a naval power—namely, ports open all the year round." But possession of Saloniki would serve Russia's purposes even better than any port in Greece. Does England mean to protest against that too?

—Signor Zanoni, of Bologna (the engineer who, six years ago, had the good fortune to discover a series of Etruscan tombs at the Carthusian convent near Bologna), while digging a trench two feet deep in the midst of the city, near the church of St. Francis, has come upon a huge earthen vase a yard and a half in height and nearly the same in diameter, containing—packed away with the utmost care—the complete stock-in-trade of a pre-historic bronze-founder and hardware-dealer, numbering altogether not less than 14,000 pieces. Those who have lately visited the antiquarian Museum at Bologna know how rich is that whole region in quasi-Etruscan remains of a peculiar type, called (from one of the best fields of excavation) the Villanova type. It has already been settled—and especially by the discussions of the International Congress of Anthropology which met, with special reference to this question, at Bologna in 1871—that the civilization of "the Villanova epoch" was near akin to that of the lake-cities of the bronze age, and the tumuli of the earliest iron age in France. There was one question in dispute: Did the Swiss lake-dwellers and the French tomb-builders get their elaborately-wrought metallic articles from their more highly-civilized cousins just over the Alps? Or did the French, Swiss, and Italian branches of the family, all three, receive their supplies from the original seat of this civilization at the foot of the Caucasus? The "long-time" advocates, who refer the bronze period to the remotest antiquity, held the latter view, alleging, among other reasons, the absence of any indication of the manufacture of bronze in the Bologna region. This reason is completely overthrown by the discovery of Signor Zanoni's great potful of bronzes. The various articles were packed away "spoon-fashion," so as to stow the greatest quantity within the limited space, and, being tenderly unpacked and assorted, counted up as follows: bronze celts or axes, 2,077—these were in assorted styles, from the rudest to the most elegantly decorated with engraving; fibulæ (buckles or clasp-pins), 2,407; knives in great variety, including some with elegant designs on the blade; chisels—several hundreds, including gouges; spear-points, 275; sickles, about 50; horse-bits, about 60. These last are of great interest. The bits that have been found now and then in the Swiss lakes are adapted to very small ponies. These, on the contrary, are for horses of full size. Besides the foregoing there are fish-hooks and harpoons; hammers, large and small, a plane, an anvil, saws—a dozen or more; and articles of decoration and toilet—bracelets to the number of several hundreds, hair-pins, razors—about fifty, etc., etc.

—It must not be supposed that there was no manufacture of bronze among the pile-builders of the Swiss lakes. The thick quarto pamphlet just published by the Zurich antiquaries, with copious illustrations, giving the results of the last ten years' explorations of the lakes of French Switzerland, exhibits a considerable number of moulds for casting bronze articles. But at Bologna the newly-discovered moulds are in such numbers as to prove an established foundry. Furthermore, the condition in which the various articles are found shows the existence, together, of the factory, the sale-shop, and the repair-shop. Some are in the rough, showing the seams of the mould. Some are hammered and sharpened ready for use, but showing no mark of having been used. Some have been nicked and chipped in service, and had probably been sent to the shop for repair. And finally there is a lot of old bronze, brought back to be melted up. It is very curious to observe the state of the buckles and clasp-pins. Commonly it is the tongue or pin of these that has given way, and the various devices by which it has been repaired would be a good study for a jeweller's apprentice. The similarity of this bronze work to that of the Swiss lake-dwellers was obvious at once; but two of the Swiss antiquaries, Dr. Forel and Mr. Desor, have hastened to inspect the new discoveries, and they find certain differences, not in general style but in detail, and not sufficient to shake their conviction that the objects discovered in Switzerland were supplied in part from the Italian foundries. The much wider dissimilarity in the *pottery* of the two regions is explained by the fact that, by reason of its fragility and its bulk and weight in proportion to value, it could not be an object of transport over the mountains, while, on the other hand, the articles of bronze might easily have been the objects of a considerable commerce, by means of peddlers' packs. On the whole, the evidence points towards a synchronism in Italy with the bronze age in Switzerland. We have to do with a period anterior to the grand Etruscan age, but whether with the Etruscan people themselves, in an earlier stage of development, or with a race that preceded the Etruscans on the same soil, is under discussion. Intelligent travellers in Switzerland, by the way, do themselves great wrong if they fail (as they often do) to see the museum of lacustrine antiquities at the *Wasserkirche* in Zurich—a collection unique of its kind. And it is but a step thence to Robenhausen, where Mr. Jacob Messikommer has a lake village of the stone period, in which his visitors are allowed the rare sport of fishing among the piles with a long-handled hoe. The luck of the fisherman may vary, but the least fortunate will find something to interest him, and the deficiencies of his own find can be supplemented, at no ruinous rate, from the curious piles of primeval treasure with which Mr. Messikommer's humble dwelling is overflowing.

—In 1868 the late Robert Houdin, the ingenious French mechanician and prestidigitator, published a very interesting volume on conjuring in all its phases. 'Les Secrets de la Prestidigitation et de la Magie,' now a rare book, was used by "Professor" Hoffman as the basis of his excellent treatise on 'Modern Magic,' which we noticed last Christmas. At the end of it Houdin promised a second volume explaining in detail his more important stage tricks, but he died before the book was prepared. Sufficient matter was found among his papers, however, to fill the three hundred pages of 'Magie et Physique Amusante,' a volume just published in Paris by Lévy (New York: F. W. Christern). It is embellished with explanatory engravings and a villanous woodcut of the author. The detached chapters were apparently prepared at different times and are entirely wanting in continuity. An unpleasant savor of bookmaking is given to the volume by reprinting as an introduction the description of the electrical labor-saving devices in use in the house of Houdin, near Blois, which had already figured in full at the beginning of the earlier book, 'Les Secrets de la Prestidigitation,' a fact of which there is no mention in the later volume. The style of the author is so easy, and the subjects he discusses and the marvels he explains are so interesting, that any want of sequence may be readily pardoned. Most of the chapters are devoted to the investigation of the illusions to be produced by means of recent scientific discoveries—especially in optics and electricity. To Houdin more than to any one else is due the credit of bringing science to the support of modern magic. Two of the most valuable chapters of the volume discuss spiritual manifestations and the tricks of the Davenport brothers, which Houdin considers so clever that he describes and explains them at length. In his account of a curious experiment in acoustics he cites an experiment of Wheatstone's in 1855 which has a singular relation to the recent invention of the telephone, and which, as M. Houdin suggests, lends itself readily to spiritualistic fraud. The perusal of Houdin's book inevitably excites wonder why the repertory of the ordinary medium is as limited as it is; marvels far greater than the production of paraffine moulds by spirit hands are easily within the reach of any one who will search the annals of recent scientific discovery.

—Paul Meyer, the veteran Old-French scholar, has recently published the second part of his 'Recueil d'anciens textes Bas-Latins, Provençals, et Français' (Paris). The first part, containing the Low-Latin and Provençal texts, was published in 1874, and noticed in No. 461 of the *Nation*. The editor originally intended to complete his work with the second part, which was to contain, in addition to the Old-French texts, the two glossaries, one Provençal, the other Old French. He found himself unable to do

this on account of the great extent of mediæval French literature, and will consequently soon issue a third part, containing Old-French prose and the glossaries. The part before us contains only poetry, and is less a Reader than a collection of independent texts, many of them inedited or containing new readings. The difference between Meyer and Bartsch ('Chrestomathie de l'ancien français') seems to be that the object of the former is to give many short extracts, chronologically arranged, and embracing a wide range of time and topic. The latter gives longer portions of a few works characteristic of the period in their language and subject, and edited with such copious variants as to afford the student an opportunity for the most critical study. The second part contains long extracts from the lives of St. Léger and St. Alexis, two hundred and ten lines of the 'Chanson de Roland' in three different versions, long extracts from the *chansons de geste* of the 'Charroi de Nîmes,' 'Raoul de Cambrai,' the 'Chanson de Jérusalem,' 'Aiol et Mirabel,' etc. Among the other extracts are lives of St. Thomas of Canterbury by Garnier du Pont-Sainte-Maxence, and of Sainte Thaïs and Sainte Euphrosyne, besides a number of shorter lyrical poems. It will be seen that most of the above pieces are not in Bartsch, and many of them are now published for the first time. In short, this work is as interesting and valuable to the most advanced scholars in Old-French literature as to the mere student.

—The city of Leipsic, it would seem, has appointed the anniversary of the proclamation of the new German Empire at Versailles (January 18) for a municipal holiday, and the "Gemeinnützige Gesellschaft" of the city selected for their orator this year the well-known Prussian deputy Lasker. We doubt if their choice could have fallen upon a better man. Lasker not only has opinions of his own, but has also the courage to uphold them, as no one knows better than Prince Bismarck. Those who watched the railroad, building, and other fraudulent speculations that ran riot in Germany during 1872 and the first half of 1873, will not forget the manly part played by Lasker in denouncing and exposing the chief offenders, notably Hofrath Wagner and Prince Pöttbus, both court favorites. The courage then displayed by him, his sincerity, his ability to track fraud and corruption through all their mysterious turnings and hunt them down beyond escape, enhanced his already exalted reputation and made him the unquestioned leader in debate. The theme of his present Leipsic oration (which has just reached us in pamphlet form through L. W. Schmidt) is one which will not fail to interest the general reader, to whom we commend it as revealing the orator in some of his best phases. It treats of "The Future of the German Empire." Being an anniversary oration, it avoids scrupulously everything in the nature of invective, or even of argument. Nothing is called by its name, and one must be tolerably familiar with German politics to detect under carefully-worded allusions the party battle-cries of "Ultramontane," "Particularist," and "Social-Democrat." The general tone is dignified, and the style direct and simple. Only in one or two places does the orator lapse for a second into the "Kanzleistyl" that is the besetting sin of German oratory. This modest pamphlet of sixteen pages will attract at once the student of German history. Not that it contains any discoveries of the past or startling announcements of the future. Lasker realizes thoroughly the fact that it is not the function of oratory to usurp the fields of the antiquarian or the prophet, but to re-state the commonplace in a new form and from a novel point of view. He concedes frankly the grave dangers that beset the new empire—dangers from without, but chiefly from within—indicates their sources and, by implication, their remedy, and traces the broad movement of German history for the past thousand years to show that the present empire is only the latest phase of a nation that, since it came into being under the Carolingians, has never ceased to exist and can never cease. The sudden and marvellous revelations of 1866 and 1870 were only the throwing aside of the husk from a fruit that had been slowly ripening for years and centuries. Germany has had its reverses and humiliations, yet they have always sown the seed of still greater recuperation. The empire must fulfil its appointed mission, but it can never be that mission to satisfy all parties or all idealists. Only the practically attainable is worth striving after; only that which is slow of growth can endure; and the first advice of every true patriot must be: Hasten slowly, and beware of looking to the government for everything. Only strong men can make a strong Government, and in a newly-constituted empire it is the duty of every citizen to be strong in his own right.

—Dr. Marcus Landau has just published his life of Boccaccio, under the title, 'Giovanni Boccaccio, sein Leben und seine Werke' (Stuttgart: Cotta). The author has had this work in preparation for a number of years, and has already issued two works which must be regarded as the complement of the present one. The first, 'Die Quellen des Decamerone' (Vienna, 1869), was a careful discussion of the sources of the 'Decameron'; the second, 'Beiträge zur Geschichte der italienischen Novelle' (Vienna, 1875), noticed by us at the time, was a consideration of the great novelist's imitators in Italy and elsewhere. The work before us is therefore restricted to an examination of Boccaccio's life and less known works in the endeavor to exhibit Boccaccio in his true light as "an industrious and earnest student, a true friend, a tender father, and a zealous patriot." Boccaccio could hardly have imagined, even in his most penitent mood, that he was to be so severely punished by posterity for his frivolous youth and its excesses. But so it has been, and one of the earliest scholars of the Renaissance, the admirer of Dante and the devoted friend of Petrarch, is now known only as the writer of immoral novels. Dr. Landau has given a thorough life of Boccaccio, making good use of the scanty materials at his disposal. He has also subjected to a careful examination all the acknowledged works of the poet, and gives in an appendix a list of the doubtful and spurious works attributed to him. Boccaccio's fame, except as a novelist, has been obscured by his greater successors. He wrote the first Italian epic, but Tasso and Ariosto have made us forget the 'Teseide' and the 'Filostrato,' and the great names of the Renaissance have cast into oblivion his archæological and mythological works.

WALLACE'S GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF ANIMALS.*

II.

THE indications as to the relations of the realms or regions furnished by the different classes of animals are very conflicting, and depend in a great measure, as might naturally be expected, on the ability of individuals to extend their limits, or the reverse. The two classes that perhaps are most antithetical in this respect are birds and inland fishes. The former are in an eminent degree fitted for the extension of their range, and consequently for accommodation to the "lay of the land"; while the latter are restricted by sharply-defined boundaries within very definite areas, and physiologically prevented from extending their range either over the land or across the expanse of ocean to any great extent. The two classes are also antithetical in another respect, inasmuch as the birds are a highly specialized group, very liable to modifications resulting from environing causes, and ever susceptible to the changes of condition that may supervene, while the fishes are a generalized type, and live in a medium where they are much less exposed to the vicissitudes of climate and other conditions, and where change, therefore, is less likely to supervene; consequently the representatives of the two classes might naturally be expected to indicate differences in the relations of the several faunas to each other, and such is markedly the case.

It has already been noticed that Mr. Sclater, from an ornithological point of view, segregated the several regions of the globe under two primary groups—Palæogæan and Neogæan. To a greater extent, perhaps, than would at first be supposed by special students of other classes, he was justified in such a differentiation, for the interchanges of the species of the north and the south with those of the tropics, and *vice versa*, are so numerous as to give a stamp of *comparative* homogeneity to the two great areas known as the old and new worlds. The birds, in fact, indicate in the most marked manner the effected accommodation to existing conditions. The fresh-water fishes, on the contrary, point to an entirely different relationship, and if we should take these animals for the determination of the primary regions of the globe, the present combinations of land and water must be entirely ignored, and their faunas correlated *de novo* on a very different basis. In such case, North America, Europe, and Asia would form one great division, in contradistinction to another, which would be constituted by Australia, South America, and Africa. These great divisions, however, are very unequal in one respect: the northern division, or Pliogæa, is comparatively homogeneous, and its several regions not very well defined, while the southern district, or Eogæa, is, on the contrary, subdivisible into three very distinct regions, the most generalized of which is Australia, and the least so Africa, while South America intervenes between the two, and, on the one hand, shares with Australia some forms, and, on the other hand, some with Africa, the common ones being in each case restricted to the two mentioned together. To some extent our author recognizes these relations (vol. i. p. 174).

These combinations may be explicable by different hypotheses: (1) the

* 'The Geographical Distribution of Animals. With a study of the relations of living and extinct faunas as elucidating the past changes of the earth's surface. By Alfred Russel Wallace, author of the 'Malay Archipelago,' etc.' In two volumes. With maps and illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers, publishers. 1876. (8vo, Vol. I., xxiii, 503 pp., 18 pl.; Vol. II., ix, 607 pp., 9 pl.)

forms found in the several regions may be the remnants of a once widely-spread fauna, or (2) derivatives of a special fauna diffused when the continents were closely connected, directly or indirectly. The former supposition is perhaps best applicable in some cases, as in the dispersion of the sirenoids; but the latter seems to be the more probable in the case of most of the other forms. It is significant that the similarity of the ichthyic faunas of South America and Australia is exemplified chiefly on the southern and western slopes of the former, while the forms common to it and Africa are characteristic especially of the eastern slope. The moral from all these facts seems to be that the birds, and animals of analogous powers of extension, are the most apt exponents of the present relations of land and water, while the fishes, and animals of like restriction of locomotion, furnish the best hints as to the ancient connections of the precursors of the existing continents.

Mr. Wallace asserts that the class of animals best adapted to determine zoölogical regions is the one which exhibits "by their existing distribution the past changes and present physical condition of the earth's surface" (vol. i. p. 56), and that class, he thinks, is the mammals. He maintains (vol. i. p. 57) that "we should therefore construct our typical or standard zoölogical regions, in the first place, from a consideration of mammalia, only bringing to our aid the distribution of other groups to determine doubtful points." Mr. Wallace's argument throughout is tantamount to the admission that the division into regions is an arbitrary matter, and that there can only be a conventional agreement as to those divisions. This is to a considerable extent true, although it is probable that Mr. Wallace would object to this view being the natural outcome of his argument. Here it may be premised that in their indications the mammals are somewhat intermediate between the birds and fishes. And, by the way, we must wonder that when Mr. Wallace considers the distribution of the mammals as all-important, and that "the negative character of the absence of certain families or genera is of equal importance" to the positive character of their presence (vol. i. p. 54), he has refused to recognize the distinction of the Polynesian and New Zealand subregions of his Australian region from the Australian and Austro-Malayan.* His reasons for so doing (vol. i. p. 62) might be extended equally to the negation of one at least of his admitted regions.

As to the geographical distribution of marine animals Mr. Wallace has been quite reticent, simply giving some facts respecting the range of families of sea mammals, fishes, and mollusks in the fourth part of his work, and some brief general remarks in the first (*e.g.*, vol. i. pp. 15, 30). At any rate, he nowhere insists upon the want of correlation between the inland and marine faunas, and no reader would be enlightened as to the positive incongruity, and even contrast, between the two in their relations with others. This antagonism has been appreciated by very few. In most works it is quietly assumed or insisted upon that the sea and inland animals of a given region are integral constituents of a homogeneous fauna, and by implication, at least, that such fauna has in its several parts one and the same relation to others. Such is very far from being the case. In the distribution of marine life temperature plays an all-important part. Thus, the relations between the successive faunas, in a latitudinal direction, of the shores of the several continents are traversed by relations existing in a longitudinal direction. The several tropical faunas are, for example, much more closely related to each other than they are to the faunas along the same reach of shore toward the arctic or antarctic regions. This relationship is evinced more or less in every class and branch of animals, *e.g.*, the mammals, the fishes, the mollusks, the crustaceans, the worms, the echinoderms, and the cœlenterates. Consequently the marine faunas cannot be at all correlated with the primary realms or regions of the globe. To such an extent does temperature determine the distribution of life in the seas that even bathymetrical conditions *may be* subordinated, and types of the shallow arctic and antarctic seas represented in the cold deep sea under the equator. Some forms almost identical reappear at the opposite poles. The inference is irresistible that such types have migrated from common ground, and may have originally developed either in the deep sea and thence dispersed in opposite directions, or at one of the extremes and wandered thence over the bottom to their final resting places. However this may be, a primary combination of the marine faunas is most natural under the categories of tropicalian, arctalian, and notalian, while the temperate ones are rather the complexes of the bounding regions.

It is impossible within the limits of a review to discuss the numerous questions raised in Mr. Wallace's work, or to notice errors of detail. Numerous as are the subjects discussed, many of equal importance are scarcely, if at all, noticed. Such are the correlations between development in size, as a whole and in different parts, and longitude and latitude; the correlation of color with surface of country; and the connection of physiological modifications and habitat. We have to say, too, that the errors in detail are extremely numerous, and are sometimes the results of imperfect information *per se*, and sometimes of misunderstanding of the authorities consulted. Some of these errors are very grave. Thus, Mr. Wallace informs us that "the operculata of the globe are about one-seventh, the inoperculata about six-sevenths of the whole" of the terrestrial gastropods; "but when we come to the Antilles we find them to amount to nearly five-sixths, about half the operculata of the globe being found there!" (vol. ii. p. 527; the exclamation mark is Mr. Wallace's own). The truth is that in the Antilles the operculate species are, as elsewhere (although in a much less degree), very much less numerous than the inoperculate, there being, according to Mr. Bland in 1866 (whom Mr. Wallace quotes), only 603 operculate to 737 inoperculate species. How Mr. Wallace happened to make such an astounding blunder it is difficult to conceive. But we add with pleasure that even this error is to a considerable extent atoned for by the judicious remarks on principles of distribution which immediately follow. The want of familiar knowledge of the different classes treated of, and consequently of immediate and instinctive availability of the facts, has often prevented the author from following the facts to their logical results. Mr. Wallace's aim was a lofty and laudable one, viz.: "that his book should bear a similar relation to the eleventh and twelfth chapters of the 'Origin of Species' as Mr. Darwin's 'Animals and Plants under Domestication' does to the first chapter of that work." His want of knowledge and of research, however, has certainly prevented him from attaining "the standard of excellence" he so nobly aimed at. He is an ornithologist so far as knowledge of the skins and external features, as well as habits, of a number of birds may constitute one; in like manner he is an entomologist; his acquaintance with mammals is slight; he evidently knows almost or absolutely nothing, through autopsy, of the reptiles, amphibians, pisciform vertebrates, and mollusks. By travel in many lands he has gained vivid conceptions of distances and physiographical features, and the *tout ensemble* of animal and vegetable types. Such are his qualifications and want of qualifications for the work undertaken. He can undoubtedly plead his imperfection of knowledge in bar of criticism, and maintain that, for example, he relied for ichthyology on Günther, and for conchology on Woodward. This is a valid plea so far as it goes, even though his suspicions might have been aroused; "for," says he, "when we find a group of [family or generic] rank scattered, as it were, at random over the earth, we have a strong presumption that it is not natural" (vol i. p. 84). Indeed, it might even be a plea for total silence on the subject; for surely it is not unreasonable to demand that a writer should have some knowledge of what he would treat about. We have a right to demand that he should at least have knowledge sufficient to select in matters of dispute.

The imperfections thus indicated detract materially from the value of Mr. Wallace's work. Nevertheless it is a valuable work. A great number of facts, real or apparent, are brought together in new connection; the argumentation on those facts is mostly logical; the composition is generally very good, and much pleasant reading is afforded; the pleasure of perusal is enhanced by the large, clear type. (The American edition is printed apparently from electrotype plates of the English one; but in the binding and in compactness the former is superior to the latter.) There are also several chapters which indicate considerable familiarity with the subjects treated of, as well as a more than moderate acumen. Such are those on "the means of dispersal and the migrations of animals" (vol. i. pp. 10–34), and "distribution as affected by the conditions and changes of the earth's surface" (vol. i. pp. 35–49), as well as those parts of the one on "the oriental region" relative to the Indo-Malayan subregion (vol. i. pp. 334–362). Perhaps, then, on the whole, we should be justified in closing, even at the cost of adding to the onerous duties already imposed, with the trite old formula that "no gentleman's library will be complete without it." We at least recommend it to those interested as worthy of perusal, and as being, on the whole, really the best general work on the subject under discussion that has yet been published.

* There are no indigenous terrestrial mammals in New Zealand or Polynesia, while they are richly developed in the Australian and Papuan regions.

RECENT NOVELS.*

MRS. MARY CECIL HAY differs from a good many writers of fiction in this, that she takes the trouble to invent a complicated plot, whereas many of her craft seem to regard that part of their occupation as an obso-

* 'Nora's Love Test: A Novel. By Mary Cecil Hay, author of 'Old Myddleton's Money,' 'Victor and Vanquished,' etc., etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1877.

lete and superfluous bit of trouble. She by no means stops there, however, for the dry bones of the plot are hidden beneath a good deal of talk and action. 'Nora's Love Test' concerns itself in a thoroughly new fashion with the persecuted country-girl, ignorant of the world and its ways, as penniless as only pretty-faced heroines can be, and tells how she is snubbed by envious young women who notice that Mark always gets her into a corner and talks to her in a low, earnest voice when they are singing, but how, not otherwise than as a perfect lady, she manages to say the last word, which is of a sort to confound and abash the would-be snubbers and drive them to showing before Mark, who draws his own conclusions at the time, how bad-tempered the sweet-looking, highly-educated Victoria and Genevieve can be. Of course this young person at the proper time comes into the possession of a large fortune by a series of incidents which do credit to Mrs. Hay's head, and, it may be added, to her heart, for Nora deserves a generous reward for the unflinching way in which she performs the intricate duties of the leading lady of the story. This is not a novel that will be very well known a few years hence, unless the supply of new novels should miraculously come to a sudden end; but for a season it will deserve to be read, and any one who does not find it rather better than three novels out of five has made a very good selection.

Mrs. Burnett has every reason to be grateful for the present custom of terminating novels with a wedding or the announcement of one. In 'That Lass o' Lowrie's' she has brought matters to that conclusion by means of a somewhat fantastic plot, whose narration shows plenty of humor and pathos and a good deal of power. The story is briefly this: Joan Lowrie is a pit-girl of great beauty and of noticeable force of character, who works at the mouth of one of the Lancashire mines. Her father, a savage miner, conceives a great hatred for a pleasant young civil engineer who has occasion to correct him for opening his safety-lantern in the mine against the rules. He has, moreover, the habit of beating his daughter when he is drunk. She is touched by the kindness of the engineer to her when she is suffering from a blow given her by her father, and in return she saves him from her father, helps rescue him half-dead from a mine after a terrible accident, and finally consents to marry him, seeing that he had long been in love with her. He does not wed at once this savage with a noble heart, but the event is foretold in this way:

"'I conna turn yo' fro' me,' she said. 'Oh! I conna.'

"'Thank God! Thank God!' he cried.

"He would have caught her to his breast, but she held up her hand to restrain him.

"'Not yet,' she said, 'not yet. I conna turn yo' fro' me, but there's summat I must ask. Give me th' time to make myself worthy—give me th' time to work an' strive; be patient with me until th' day comes when I can come to yo' an' know I need not shame yo'! They say I am na slow at learnin'—wait and see how I can work for th' mon—for th' mon I love.'"

Now, it is one thing to be told in a poem, where defects of dress and education are not forced upon the reader's attention, that King Cophetua married a beggar-maid; but it is another and very different thing to have a similar story told in prose with all sorts of realistic details. In the one case we see love a rule for itself, and it is easy to imagine that in the fairy-land where the scene is laid there is not much difference between kings and beggar-maids; but when the romantic story is told of our contemporaries, and we have abundant proof of Joan Lowrie's absolute ignorance, and see what bad grammar she talked, and that she was, in fact, totally unfitted, so far as education goes, to be the companion of a child eight years old, it is impossible to avoid thinking with some concern of the future married life of Mr. and Mrs. Derrick. Indeed, every one will but too surely feel that she will never be fitted to be the young engineer's wife. Reading, writing, and ciphering are only a small part of what is needed before this girl could be turned into a civilized being, and it is a mistake for an author to give such a conclusion to so clever a novel as this is in many respects. There is plenty of ability in the book to justify a fairer treatment of the problem, which, it is curious to notice, is one discussed just at this time by a number of writers of fiction. Mr. James in 'The American' has an amiable American *nouveau riche* agitating a Legitimist family in the Faubourg St. Germain by proposing to marry the daughter of the house, but family pride is too strong and our countryman is defeated. Mr. Howells, in 'Out of the Question,' gets round the matter by begging the question and making his low-born hero the saver of the lives of the whole family, a brave soldier, and a friend of the heroine's brother, so that his position is assured before there can be any doubt about it. Mrs. Burnett has nailed her flag to the mast and determined that Derrick and Joan shall be man and wife in spite of Lindley Murray and the difficulty of acquiring the habit of carrying food to the mouth by means of a fork when one is used to a knife; but it is just as well that the wedding was put off to an indeterminate date. The practised imagination of the novel-reader can be reconciled to any transformation of characters if time be only given.

If a new novel by Mr. Charles Reade is not so important an event as it was say twenty years ago or thereabouts, the difference is not due merely to the fact that he writes less well, but also to the greater familiarity of the public with his manner of work. Moreover, since Mr. Reade began writing there have been many novelists who have gone much more deeply into the drawing of various forms of women's characters, while he is left behind to expound to an indifferent audience the transparent craftiness of his combination of the snake and cat. There is a certain uniformity in Mr. Thomas Hardy's heroines, and a family-likeness to those whom Mr. Reade has taught us to know so well, but they are much more intricate in their thoughts and actions, while novelists like Miss Thackeray, Mrs. Oliphant, Mr. Black, and others of less fame, have left both these authors behind, in this respect at least. Mr. Reade shows greater variety in what the Germans call the *Tendenz* of his books. Under the disguise of a love-affair between a beautiful and somewhat sly girl and a brave hero he manages to hit some great wrong a severe blow. Every one remembers with what impressiveness he attacked prisons in 'It is Never too Late to Mend,' and his subsequent denunciations of trades-unions, ill-managed insane asylums, etc.; and now he makes a very clear showing of the difficulties lately thrown in the way of those women who strove to get medical instruction in England. This forms, to be sure, an episode, but yet not an incongruous one, and the incident is so important, and is told so calmly—indeed, as matter of fact, with such suppression of the most odious details—that it is hard not to share Mr. Reade's wrath at one of the most abominable examples of bullying of which even the English have been guilty. As for the story itself, it is marred by the vulgarity of the heroine, who is meant to be very grand, with snaky and cat-like airs, but who is in reality a decidedly ill-mannered young woman with the breeding of a rather loud nursery-maid. The adult reader will derive about as much pleasure from reading Mr. Reade's crude caricatures of a couple of vulgar girls, with their pouting and quarrelling and making friends again, as he would from playing with two china dolls. In other respects the story will be found entertaining and not wanting in incidents.

Mr. George MacDonald's 'The Marquis of Lossie' tells us how the young fisherman and groom, Malcolm Colonsay, turned out to be no bastard, but a child born in lawful wedlock and a Scotch marquis. If Malcolm is slow in asserting his true position, it is that he may deal more fairly with his sister, who imagines that she has inherited her name and wealth in her own right. Malcolm follows her to London, pretending to be still her groom, and furthers her love for the worthy artist, while he frowns upon an immoral sprig of the aristocracy who had not passed his life between a herring-boat and a stable. Nor does he content himself with frowns, for the young groom even gives the lord a severe thrashing. It is the young fellow's conduct under these difficult conditions, knowing his position but averse to proclaiming it until his sister is safe, that makes the book what it is. Mr. MacDonald has undertaken to represent a simple-minded, half-educated youth, strong in body and with considerable intellectual power, who finds himself opposed by those forces which make up what is called the world. He is a poetical soul, and he means well, but a more self-conscious, bumptious prig was never yet seen in a novel or in real life; and this, added to his facility at thrashing those whom he did not like, must have made him the most unpleasant character in the whole of London at the height of the season. Here is one specimen of his accomplishments as a groom. He had been riding a fierce mare, which he alone could manage, and when she had fallen to the ground in one of her most furious fits of raging, Malcolm found it necessary to sit on her head. The marchioness, who is really his half-sister, though she does not know it, asks him how long he will have to stay there, and he replies:

"'If your ladyship wouldn't mind riding home without me, I would give her a good half-hour of it. I always do when she throws herself over like that. I've got my Epictetus?' he asked himself, feeling in his pocket."

It is well to read Epictetus of course, and it is remarkable for a man who is a groom to read him, but the possession of a certain amount of

'That Lass o' Lowrie's. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Illustrated by Alfred Fredericks.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.

'A Woman Hater: A Novel. By Charles Reade, author of 'Very Hard Cash,' 'Never too Late to Mend,' etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1877.

'The Marquis of Lossie: A Romance. By George MacDonald, author of 'Malcolm,' 'Alec Forbes,' etc.' Author's edition. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

modesty is even more admirable, and this is but one instance out of many of the marquis's lack of it. As to this gifted young man's conversations, it can be imagined by those who are familiar with Mr. MacDonald's other novels, and it would be surprising if those who are so fortunate as to know his sermons did not find a good many familiar passages put into the mouth of this noble hero. There is so much innocence in this groom's colossal conceit and pedantry that the reader frequently forgets what manner of man he has put before him, but his temporary oblivion is driven away by some such passage as this, in which the marquis is announcing to his tenantry his intended marriage :

"'And, in conclusion, why should you hear from any lips but my own that this lady beside me, the daughter of an English earl of ancient house, has honored the house of Lossie by consenting to become its marchioness? Lady Clementina Thornicroft possesses large estates in the south of England, but not for them did I seek her favor, as you will be convinced when you reflect what the fact involves which she has herself desired me to make known to you—namely, that it was while yet she was unacquainted with my birth and position, and had never dreamed that I was other than only a fisherman and a groom, that she accepted me for a husband. I thank my God!'"

The author of 'Lola' is apparently free from uneasiness regarding man's relations to the universe, and he avoids, at any rate when writing a novel, all contemplation of such extraneous subjects as the origin of sin and the grandeur of the ideal. Indeed, he carries his realism so far that he seeks to interest the reader in the old-fashioned recital of the love-affairs of a good-natured young English officer and an ignorant Spanish girl. The scene of the story is laid in Gibraltar and the adjacent parts of Spain, and in England. There is no excessive display of familiarity with Spanish soil and Spanish people, but it is easy to see that the author is at home with what he has undertaken to describe. The love-story borders on the commonplace ; in spite of a great variety of incident it is hard to keep the interest awake over a couple who remind the reader of the heroes and heroines of Lever's early novels. But the high spirits which nowadays would probably seem boisterous and childish to readers accustomed to the refinements of novel-writing, are replaced by a good deal of delightful "local color." The talk of the Spanish people is wonderfully well given ; even the hackneyed bull-fight is described anew with much more than the usual success. What is best of all, however, is the large number of proverbs which the Spanish characters let fall from wise mouths. Here are a few :

"Apple-trees grow apples, and oyster-beds oysters, and a bad bough can only come from a rotten trunk."

"Make yourself like sugar and the flies will come to eat you."

"The lunatic is more powerful in his own house than is Solomon in anybody else's."

"Those who would grow rich in a twelvemonth sometimes get hanged about June."

"Parties" in search of entertaining and harmless French novels for summer reading can hardly do better than try those of the lady whose *nom de plume* is Henry Gréville. She has, as her writings show, lived long enough in Russia to be familiar with the life of that country, which has in recent years become so prominent in fiction, and yet she writes so well as to stand in no need of that accidental aid to find plenty of readers for her books. 'Les Koumiassine' describes the love-affairs of a young girl, the niece and dependant of the rich Countess Koumiassine. This countess has, too, a daughter who is sincerely attached to her cousin, and the life of these young people together—their intimacy, their sports—is capitally told. The plot cannot be divulged here ; it is intricate and original. What it all hangs on is the determined, obstinate will of the haughty countess, who has never been denied her own way, and there is a great deal of cleverness in the delineation of her treatment of her niece and her ingenious demonstrations that whatever she does is right. Every one of the women, the good as well as the bad, is well drawn and with a flavor of innocence which is not the insipidity of the virtuous French novel, but the accurate copying of life. This praise by no means implies that the men are lifeless sticks ; on the contrary, they are far superior to the average heroes of fiction in the accuracy with which they are described. It is a strictly domestic tale, yet it is easy to see how the national life has had its influence on the various characters. The countess is the most marked instance of this, but the Prince Chou- with his aristocratic tastes, is another example. The reader will incidentally a good deal about an almost unknown country.

'ola : A Tale of Gibraltar. By Arthur Griffiths.' Leisure Hour Series. New York : Holt & Co. 1877.

'es Koumiassine. Par Henry Gréville.' 2 vols. Paris : E. Plon et Cie. 1877. ork : Christern.

Another of Henry Gréville's novels, 'The Princess Oghérof,' has been put into English. It is interesting, though by no means so good as the one just mentioned. There is a likeness between the two, for in both there is a sly woman who plots mischief ; but there is no repetition of one tune. 'The Princess Oghérof,' too, bears marks of what seems like hasty composition, but this may be in part the effect of the translation, which is generally good, though there are obscurities here and there which are not to be solved by either English grammar or dictionary. The punctuation, too, is very wild.

THE TEGETHOFF EXPEDITION.*

THE French author who pronounced the verdict that "les marins écrivent mal, mais avec assez de candeur" might with equal justice have paraphrased the sentence with reference to the writings of German travellers. Almost a century has elapsed since George Forster, the companion of Cook in his exploring expedition round the world, furnished his countrymen with a model narrative, but he has scarcely had any followers. With the exception of Alexander von Humboldt, who in his 'Aspects of Nature' evolved glowing pictures of tropical scenery, based on careful observation, full of deep poetical sentiment and splendor of color, there have been but few German travellers who have understood how to make full use of their rich and flexible language. If we mention the names of Chamisso and Pöppig, and those of Spix and Martius, our enumeration of earlier authors is almost complete. In later times only a very few well-written German narratives have been published, but amongst these Mr. Payer's book takes a prominent place. Somewhat abridged, the work now makes its appearance in an American dress.

The volume not only contains the narrative of the ship *Tegethoff*, as one might infer from the title, but also a short account of the summer cruise of the *Isbjörn*, made one year before the *Tegethoff* left for the unknown North. The history of the second expedition, however, occupies by far the greater portion of the book. Unlike other modern Arctic expeditions, the Austrians did not aim to reach the Pole, but to gain the long-sought-for Northeast Passage and to explore the coast and sea between Novaia-Semlia and Bering Strait. With a complement of twenty-four officers and men the *Tegethoff* left Bremerhaven on the 23d of June, 1872, having Lieutenant Weyprecht, of the Austrian navy, as commander of the vessel, and Lieutenant Payer, of the army, in special charge of the sledge operations. After having established a depot of provisions on one of the Barents Islands off the coast of Novaia-Semlia, the vessel took the ice on the 21st of August, but had hardly made fifteen knots when the pack closed in upon her. Until the 9th of September the condition of the ice underwent scarcely any change. In the afternoon of that day, however, a brisk northeast wind set some of the larger fields in motion, producing some open water, but the vessel could not reach the far-off "lead." All efforts to free her were in vain. Drifting in the direction of the wind, she found herself on the 1st of October in lat. 76° 50′ N., long. 65° 22′ E. from Gr. ; four days later the explorers lost sight of the coast. At about the same time the pressure of the ice began. On the 13th of the same month,

"Mountains threateningly reared themselves from out the level fields of ice, and the low groan which issued from its depths grew into a deep rumbling sound, and at last rose into a furious howl as of myriads of voices. Noise and confusion reigned supreme, and step by step destruction drew nigh—the crashing together of the fields of ice. Our floe was now crushed, and its blocks, piled up into mountains, broke hither and thither. Here they towered fathoms high above the ship and forced the protecting timbers of massive oak, as if in mockery of their purpose, against the hull of the vessel ; there masses of ice fell down as into an abyss under the ship to be engulfed in the rushing waters, so that the quantity of ice beneath the ship was continually increased, and at last it began to raise her quite above the level of the sea" (p. 102).

Scenes even more alarming than the one described were of frequent occurrence during the winter, and many a time was the vessel in danger of being crushed by her icy cradle. To be prepared for the worst, Lieutenant Weyprecht had two houses of coal built on the ice, and near them were placed the boats and a portion of the provisions. Ere long, however, the two structures were destroyed by the "hummocking" pack, and a tent containing the magnetic instruments was likewise buried. The vessel continued to drift, her course, as before, depending almost solely on

'The Princess Oghérof. From the French of Henry Gréville. By T. H.' New York : Charles F. Roper. 1877.

* 'New Lands within the Arctic Circle. Narrative of the Discoveries of the Austrian ship *Tegethoff* in the years 1872-1874. By Julius Payer, one of the Commanders of the Expedition.' With maps and numerous illustrations from drawings by the author. Translated from the German with the author's approbation. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1877.

the direction of the wind. On February 4, 1873, she reached her greatest easting—viz., long. 73° 18′, in latitude 78° 42′ N.; then she drifted back in a west-north-westerly direction. In April the attempts to free the vessel were renewed; the whole of the crew worked with almost superhuman effort, and with the steadiness of true sailors "who are bound never to give it up." Again all exertions were in vain. Spring passed into summer and summer into autumn. The navigable season came to a close; when, on the 30th of August, the vessel being in lat. 79° 43′ N., long. 59° 33′ E., "a wall of mist, lifting itself suddenly, revealed afar off in the north-west the outlines of bold rocks, which in a few minutes seemed to grow into a radiant Alpine land." This newly-discovered territory was named Francis-Joseph's Land, in honor of Austria's sovereign. During September and October the vessel drifted along the coast, crossing the 80th parallel during the first part of the latter month. Early in November the field in which the *Tegethoff* was imbedded brought up at the stationary land-ice, to which it froze solid. Unmolested she remained there during the winter, her distance from the coast being not more than about two miles and a half. On the 23d of February Lieutenant Weyprecht held a consultation with his officers as to the course to be taken; the unanimous opinion was that the vessel had to be abandoned. Lieutenant Payer says:

"The necessity of returning home admitted of no question; but the exploration of the land of which we had hardly seen anything beyond the cliffs that lay in our immediate neighborhood, was also felt to be a necessity. That land which we were all predisposed to imagine as stretching far beyond this wall of rock—of what did it consist? Was it an island or a group of islands? And those white masses lying on these lofty ranges, were they glaciers. To these questions no one as yet could give an answer. But of this there could be neither doubt nor question—that we could not count on our floe for a moment, and that those were lost who were not on board the ship if the floe with the ship began to drift. . . . As the commander of the expeditions on shore, I explained to the council we held on the 24th of February [according to Lieut. Weyprecht's official report, reprinted in Petermann's *Mittheilungen*, vol. xx. p. 419, this consultation was held on the 23d, as we stated above] my plan for the projected sledge-journeys, namely, that the sledge-parties count on the means of escape being left behind to supplement those they may have at their command, and that the depositing of these means be completed before the sledge-parties started; that the expeditions shall begin between the 10th and 20th of March, and be continued for six or seven weeks" (p. 213).

So, on the morning of March 10, Lieut. Payer started on the first of his hazardous sledge-journeys, returning from the third and last one on the 3d of May. The highest latitude to which the daring explorers penetrated is stated to have been 82° 5′ N.; this point was reached April 12, 1874. During Payer's absence Lieut. Weyprecht made all the preparations necessary for the retreat of the expedition. On May 20 the *Tegethoff* was abandoned; three boats (to which another was afterwards added), mounted on sledge-runners, were destined to carry the crew homeward. In consequence of the ruts and deep snow, progress was very slow and laborious; the same route in many places had to be traversed five times, as it required the combined strength of the whole crew to drag a single boat across the hummocky ice. It certainly is not surprising that under such difficulties the daily progress did not average more than half a nautical mile. After innumerable toils the open water was reached on August 15, in lat. 77° 40′ N., long. 61° E.; the sledges were demolished and the four boats launched. Nine days later the explorers were taken on board a Russian schooner which was found at anchor in the Bay of Dunes at Novaia-Semlia, and here their sufferings ended. Fortunately, all the records of the expedition had been saved; these were of great scientific value, as most of the observations were made in a region far distant from meteorological stations. Besides the discovery and exploration of Francis-Joseph's Land, geography is indebted to the explorers for a complete series of meteorological observations extending over a period of two years; for numerous determinations of the three magnetic elements; for a large series of soundings and deep-sea temperatures, as well as for numerous observations on currents and on the conditions of the ice. With the exception of the magnetic observations, Lieut. Payer's volume contains the condensed results of almost all, as far as they may be of interest to the general reader.

If we were to point out the most excellent portions of the volume, we should certainly have to mention the descriptions of arctic scenery. Here the author evidently is in his true element; nobody, except a person familiar with the handling of the pencil and brush, can give such descriptions as Lieut. Payer does. He describes his landscape as a true painter would make an entry in his diary, to accompany a pencil-sketch which he intends to execute in colors; but whenever he appeals to his muse for assistance in picturesque effects he is somewhat led astray. Sometimes, too, he is rather unfortunate in his comparisons; it is hard, for instance, to agree with him that the ice-covered Arctic basin is analogous to an Alpine glacier, and that the débris dropped by floating icebergs are the equivalents of the terminal moraines of an ice-stream. A great portion of the awkward expressions to be met with in this volume is evidently due to the translator, who has used considerable artistic license in discharging his duty. Sometimes we find him at a loss for an expression, and he has to resort to a paraphrase in order to convey the author's idea to the reader. Whoever takes the trouble to compare the German original with the translation, as we have done, will also find a number of rather strange blunders; but at the same time we must confess that now and then Lieut. Payer's pages contain a little more of Austrian *patois* than is necessary, and those passages are somewhat difficult to translate. Frequently the English style is polished with more care than the original, but then it shows rather too great a rhetorical tendency, and idioms more German and French than English. Those who are not willing to admit that a sentence forming a part of an oration should be different in euphony from a passage contained in an essay, and who are accustomed to satisfy not only the rules of grammar but also the ear, will find a great many objectionable points in the translator's style.

The illustrations in general are drawn with more artistic feeling and good taste than those of most books of travel. It certainly would have been better if the artist (especially in some of the night scenes) had adhered a little more to the principles of descriptive geometry in the distribution of his lights and shades than to Doré's mannerism. The contrasts are mostly by far too strong to be true, and some portions of the pictures that ought to be perfectly dark exhibit high lights. In this respect the full-page illustration on page 204 may be called a warning example. The defects in the plate on page 189, "Noon on December 21, 1873," are not less serious; and, besides, the moon, as represented above the dark outline of the vessel, is about forty-five degrees out of bearing, and ought to be on the opposite side of the twilight-arch, provided the date is the correct one. As to the moon's altitude we will be generous; but at the time Lieut. Payer professes to have taken his sketch, our satellite stood about twenty-two degrees east of the sun. Some of the genre pictures are charming and worthy of a master. The faults we have pointed out are more than balanced by the great merits the book possesses. If the volume is not one of the most attractive in the literature of travel, it certainly is the best Arctic narrative ever written.

The Wit and Wisdom of the Haytians. By John Bigelow. (New York: Scribner & Armstrong. 1877.)—Nearly twenty-five years have elapsed since Mr. Bigelow, while visiting the land of Toussaint, Dessalines, and Boyer, then ruled over by Faustin I., began collecting the ninety-two proverbs which we have here in print. The difficulty usually experienced in making such collections readable has been overcome in the usual way. That is to say, Mr. Bigelow does not barely record and translate each proverb, which could have been done in ten pages, but he comments at greater or less length upon each, seeking to reveal its inner meaning and to connect it with other proverbs in various languages. In such a quest it is easy to be supersubtle, as in expounding Shakspere or the Scriptures, and we cannot entirely acquit Mr. Bigelow of erring in this direction. Clearly it depends upon our mental habit whether the saying: *Ous pas capabe manger gumbo avec nion doigt* (You can't eat gumbo with one finger), "illustrates our dependence upon each other in every stage and condition of life," or suggests the adaptation of means to ends, like our proverb, "You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear." Mr. Bigelow is fortunate, however, in having at his elbow a mentor who brings him back to earth again if he soars too high. We refer to Mr. B. P. Hunt, of Philadelphia, a very high authority on all that pertains to Hayti and the Haytians, who supplies most of the foot-notes. Thus, when Mr. Bigelow finds "the principle of division of labor, the discovery of which is one of Adam Smith's titles to fame, and a forecasting of specialization which is the distinguishing characteristic of the march of modern science," in *Chien gagné quatre pieds, mais li pas capabe* [*couri?*] *quatre chemins* (The dog has four feet, but he cannot walk with four roads), Mr. Hunt is of opinion that "this slave proverb in Hayti" a simple protest against being required to do too much"; and would regard this as the obvious meaning.

Two or three other examples may be cited from Mr. Bigelow. *Pravette pas jamain gagné raison devant poule* (The cock

wins its cause when the chicken is judge). Mr. Hunt throws light upon this by remarking that "hens feed on cockroaches in the West Indies to such an extent as to make the yolks of their eggs pale, thin, and at times more or less bitter, just as our hens' eggs are affected in the 'locust year' by a similar course of feeding"; and he gives these capital versions of the proverb in the British West Indies: "Cockroach neber in de right before fowl," "Cockroach eber so drunk, him no walk past fowl yard," "When cockroach make dance, him no ax fowl." The application of this saying to the slave's condition does not need to be pointed out. Here is another, similar except in tone, in which there is nothing humorous: *Bon blanc mourri, mauvais rête* (The good white dies, the bad remains). The following is worth remembering by all legislators and other makers of precedents (and Presidents) in a constitutional country: *Même bâton qui batte chien noir la pé batte chien blanc la* (The same stick that beats the black dog may beat the white one).

The typographical errors of this little brochure of only 112 pages are both numerous and perverse. In the note on p. 31, "our judge" manifestly usurps the place of "one finger." If the English suffers in this style one may guess what happens to the unlucky sentences borrowed from the Greek, Latin, Italian, Spanish, and French; we have marked gross errors in each one of these languages. This circumstance would lead us to distrust the spelling of the Haytian proverbs, even if Creole orthography were not purely arbitrary; and in fact inconsistencies might be pointed out if it were worth while. In his very first proverb, p. 14, Mr. Bigelow commits himself to a derivation which we think must be incorrect. Of *guetté* he remarks that it is a "corruption of *voir* ['to see'], one of the few words in common use differing widely from the French." But is it not simply the French *guetter*, 'to watch,' 'to spy,' which, by a process of decay familiar in all languages, has acquired the weaker general meaning of 'to see' (compare Germ. *sterben*, Eng. starve, Lat. *auscultare*, Fr. *écouter*, etc., as well as the degradation which *capable* has undergone in the Haytian substitution of it for *pouvoir*)?

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Continued from page iv.

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Total amount of Marine Premiums	$7,101,457 73
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 26, 1877.

The Week.

THE most extensive and deplorable workingmen's strike which ever took place in this, or indeed in any other, country began a week ago Monday among the freight-train hands of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad at Martinsburg, in West Virginia, the location of extensive repair-shops and terminus of one of the regular divisions of the road. The ostensible cause was a reduction of about ten per cent. in the wages of all employees, which went into effect July 1 on the Baltimore & Ohio and on many other roads. On Tuesday the strike extended to Grafton and Cumberland and other stations on the same division of the road, thence running west along the Ohio division of the road to Newark, Ohio, until finally all the freight hands of the road were engaged in the movement. On Thursday the strike, which by this time had become epidemic, broke out upon the Pennsylvania Railroad at Pittsburgh, thence running rapidly east and west along the line of that road, and on Friday appeared upon the Erie Railroad at Hornellsville, New York. Saturday night found nearly all the freight-train hands of three out of four of our great through lines combined in one gigantic strike—the only exceptions being those employed upon the easterly or New York divisions of the Pennsylvania and Erie roads—and wild rumors were afloat of other strikes in prospect or already commenced upon railroad lines throughout the Northwest.

Had the movement been a simple strike, a term we have used for convenience, it would not in all probability have extended far beyond its point of origin at Martinsburg. But from the first it was much more than this. The men not only struck work at Martinsburg—an event which would not in itself have seriously inconvenienced the railroad company, as many applicants for situations stood ready to take the places of the strikers—but they refused to allow others to take their places or to permit the departure of any freight trains until their demands were complied with. No sooner had they struck, therefore, than they began to stop the passage of all freight trains through Martinsburg, and in this they had the active co-operation of the workers in the repair-shops, of the Chesapeake & Ohio Canal men, 200 of whom joined the strikers on Wednesday, and apparently of the people of Martinsburg in general. The railroad authorities appealed to the Governor for protection against the rioters; but West Virginia has no organized militia, and the two feeble volunteer companies sent to Martinsburg by the Governor were easily repulsed by the mob—being, in fact, in sympathy with the mob—and immediately disbanded. In this emergency the Governor called upon the President for assistance, and on Thursday a few United States troops were sent to Martinsburg, when, a few freight trains being successfully started out under their immediate protection, there was some prospect, apparently, that the strike would be brought to a close.

On Friday, however, there was a sudden change for the worse. Several companies of Maryland militia who had been ordered to Cumberland to protect railroad property there were attacked in Baltimore, while going from their armory to the train, by rioters in sympathy with the railroad strikers, and in the *mêlée* which followed a number of persons were killed and many more wounded. The rioters then proceeded, for the first time since the strike began, to destroy railroad property, burned some freight-sheds and other railroad buildings in or near Baltimore, and brought to a standstill the entire business of the road. In the meantime several companies of Pennsylvania militia had been ordered to Pittsburgh, where they were fiercely attacked by the strikers and their sympathizers, who were maddened by the news received from Baltimore. Unable to face the mob the militia took refuge in a railroad "round-house," where they were literally besieged on Saturday by a host of railroad employees, coal-miners, iron-workers, stevedores, and an innumerable contingent from the "dangerous classes," who had armed themselves by breaking open and gutting the gun-stores of the city, the authorities having lost all control of them. Throughout Saturday night a reign of terror existed in Pittsburgh, and an enormous destruction of railroad property and merchandise in transit took place, the mob first pillaging and then burning up all the freight-cars which the strike had collected there, setting fire to several costly buildings, and tearing up the car-tracks. The soldiers were finally driven out of the "round-house" by the expedient of setting fire to oil-cars and running them against the building. They were pursued by the mob and took refuge in the suburbs. Less serious riots took place also at Altoona and Harrisburg.

Sunday gave railroad employees and other dissatisfied classes an opportunity to hold meetings and mature plans, and on Monday, therefore, strikes broke out in every direction, occurring on the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern; Indianapolis & St. Louis; Chicago & Alton; Toledo & Wabash; New York Central; Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne & Chicago, and other smaller railroads. Several roads, we are sorry to say, acceded to the demands of the strikers or compromised with them in some way. Among these were the Union Pacific; Central Pacific; Great Western of Canada; Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé; Missouri Pacific; and the Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati & Indianapolis. Other roads were prevented from running on account of the seizure of their rolling stock or depots by mobs, although their own employees did not strike, and a few stopped running as a precautionary measure. There was more or less mob violence during the day at Reading, Pennsylvania, where several lives were lost and a valuable bridge was burned; at West Philadelphia, where a few cars were burned; at Buffalo; Harrisburg; Columbus, where the mob compelled the stoppage of work at factories, mills, etc.; at Zanesville, Fort Wayne, and San Francisco. Tuesday brought some cessation of the violence of the mob, but the strike reached several roads not above named, the most important perhaps being the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, which employs many thousands of coal-miners, all of whom quit work and from whom violence is apprehended. Mobs stopped all work at Albany, Chicago, and St. Louis. Passenger trains on the Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne & Chicago road were sent out and run by the strikers, one of their number acting as superintendent of the road. As we go to press it is impossible to predict what may happen. All the available United States troops and State militia are in motion and concentrating as rapidly as possible at the chief centres of disturbance. The time has never been more propitious for a rising of the worst elements; for the hardships which the long-continued business depression has brought upon all classes have inclined workmen everywhere to give ear to current demagogical platitudes regarding the oppressions of the poor and the injustice of the rich.

One of the aggravations of riots in this country is that the force which has to be relied on for their suppression—the militia—is very unfit for the task, because not sufficiently in control of the officers, and therefore apt either to break up at critical moments, or more frequently to lose patience and take life prematurely or unnecessarily. Another aggravation is that labor riots are apt to impress a portion of the press, especially if they occur in the dull season, with the notion that they are the signs or precursors of some great social change or convulsion, and the product of some great wrong or injustice so deep-seated that an earthquake or a revolution will be needed to remove it. For the most part this view is produced as an

occasion for fine writing, but it often does mischief by giving an air of dignity to simple ruffianism. In the present case there has been very little of it. The right of the brakemen and firemen to live off the railroads at wages fixed by themselves has been universally as well as emphatically denied by the press, and the danger of admitting the kind of persons who are now engaged in obstructing the tracks to any practical control of the companies, is pointed out with unusual boldness. There are doubtless wrongs, injustices, and hardships in the railroad business, as in all others; but it will be a dreadful day for America when the right of any man to extort pay from any other man for services which are not desired is admitted either in law or usage.

What is most to be feared now is that through some weakness on the part of the companies the strikers may come out of the struggle with an appearance of victory. This would result either from concession as to wages or the retention of persons engaged in the strike at any wages; and it would be a national calamity, for it would be virtually the surrender to a body of day-laborers of the lowest grade of the power, whenever they were discontented with their condition, to block all the great highways in the country, and arrest the travel and traffic of the whole community—a power, in short, which we would confer on no President or Congress or Legislature, or any body of men in the world, however intelligent or trustworthy. At any rate, if it would not amount to such a surrender, it would furnish a temptation of the strongest kind to a repetition of the horrors we have been witnessing during the past week. And it will not do to plead now that it is not "the railroad men" who have destroyed property and taken life, but the mob of outsiders. Any man who seizes on property and forcibly detains it, or obstructs the owner in its use, in the prosecution of a private dispute, and, above all, who entrenches himself in the high road in order to stop travel, knows well, whatever his aims may be, that he is sure to be joined by the disorderly and criminal class, and is, therefore, responsible for their excesses as well as his own. This is the fundamental objection to all violent and unlawful modes even of redressing wrongs. The railroad companies owe it to the public to see that the men who have prepared this hideous disorder are got rid of utterly, are put off the railroad and its belongings, or, in other words, removed from all opportunity of further mischief. It is no longer a question of wages or commercial convenience, but of public safety. It is better and easier to dismiss such ruffians than have finally to kill them; for we may rely on it that none of these strikers, if they succeed, will ever get over it morally.

It is hardly probable that the agitation caused by the strike will be without its effect on the Democratic Convention which meets by appointment, as we go to press, at Columbus, Ohio. It would be nothing strange if a labor plank, sufficiently vague to bear a double interpretation by the friends of order and by the mob, should be brought forward and adopted; and if this be done, we may be sure the Republicans, who meet at Cleveland, will not allow themselves to be left far behind. What seems equally certain is, that the question will come up in Congress next October, and that the pitiful condition of the regular army will be a prominent topic, each party trying to shift the blame for it upon the other, and the Republicans getting the worst of the argument. The moment the discussion quits the ground of party, however, we believe that there will be much to say of the proved necessity of the army as a national police. Those who advocate this in an enlarged sense will, of course, have to draw the line between its execution of Federal laws, or protection of national interests, and its execution of State laws, which was the crying evil of the Southern situation when President Hayes took the helm. In spite of the distinction, which is nevertheless a clear one, we must expect an outcry about the danger of a standing army to the liberties of the country; but we are not likely to see soon again a crisis in which liberty and civilization are both more at stake than they are now, when a disposable force of half a dozen additional regiments in the Department of the Atlantic would have sufficed to quell the disturbance at its source. Everything, of course, should be done to encourage the efficiency of the State militia, but the States cannot be compelled to look after this; and some of them, like West Virginia, will be sure to go by default at the critical moment. So long as we follow the English in preference to the Continental notions of national defence, and refuse to make every able-bodied man a soldier, our only guarantee against extraordinary violence overstepping State lines is an efficient standing army. In 1870, the United Kingdom, with about the same population but an incomparably smaller territory, had an army of 80,000 men, of which one-half were considered the home police—the force that could not be spared to leave the country. Its army, on a reformed basis, now numbers 133,000 men, or six times the number of the hard-worked little band which guards the Mexican frontier, maintains the defences of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, and meets the Sioux and the Nez-Percés in prolonged and costly conflicts.

The railroad strike and the far more serious discontent among the working-classes at large which it has elicited have completely paralyzed business in this metropolis. The great centres of trade and transportation being virtually in the hands of the mob, the local processes of distribution are suspended, and little is being done beyond a small business for export. Contracts for delivery are thrown into confusion through the stoppage of supplies from the interior, and consequent losses stare merchants in the face. Should the freight blockade be continued much longer, a very serious condition of things must result in the grain, provisions, and petroleum trades, since contracts for forward delivery could not be fulfilled. As yet the effects are not very marked in Wall Street, the prices of railroad securities having yielded comparatively little; but the banks keep a sharp lookout upon those branches of trade most likely to suffer from a continued suspension of transportation.

The New Hampshire Legislature passed the other day a series of resolutions upon national matters, and some of the newspapers, we observe, have been unable to determine whether these resolutions do or do not approve the policy of Mr. Hayes. Had the editors who have discussed the matter made any careful study of New Hampshire politics they would have learned that the members of the two political parties in that State hate one another with a righteous hatred. The Democrats hate the Republicans because they are Republicans, and the Republicans hate the Democrats because they are Democrats. The knowledge that the members of one party desire the passage of a resolution affecting national politics is, therefore, sufficient to decide every member of the other party to vote against it. The resolutions above mentioned were, we believe, originally proposed by a Democrat, and for that reason, even if they had been copied from the last Republican platform, they must have been rejected, or laid upon the table, or amended, or had something else substituted for them before any Republican could vote for them. We doubt if the average member of the New Hampshire Legislature knows anything more of the intent of the resolutions than some puzzled editors. The meaning of one resolution which was passed in New Hampshire, however, was well understood by both parties—namely, that opposing the granting of subsidies by the national Government. It is said, we know not how truly, that Southern politicians are already endeavoring, by promises of support to the Administration, to keep a similar resolution out of the Ohio platform at the coming convention; and as this is a subject on which Mr. Hayes and one or two members of his Cabinet are supposed to be unsound, the action of Ohio upon it will be watched with interest second only to that which attends its decision with regard to silver and resumption.

Our Mexican border difficulties, so far as they have had any real existence outside of the imaginations of a few politicians, do not seem likely at present to bring on a war with Mexico or to lead to the annexation of territory. Diaz, it is true, issued a very warlike

proclamation as an offset to the orders to General Ord to pursue raiders, if necessary, across the Rio Grande and capture them on Mexican soil; but it was generally understood at the time that this proclamation, like the average Congressman's speeches, was intended for effect at home. General Treviño, moreover, the Mexican general in command on the other side of the river, has been for some time carefully guarding that portion of it across which no raiders are at all likely to pass; and if General Ord, therefore, should find any pursuit of raiders necessary he would *not* find Mexican troops on the other side to drive American invaders from their sacred soil. The Administration, moreover, has just rendered Diaz the important service of capturing Escobedo and a score of his followers, who were engaged in organizing in Texas a force to invade Mexico in the "interests" of Lerdo. Altogether, therefore, Mr. Blaine's Mexican ghost is at present a very faint one; and as for his Canadian annexation scheme the *Spectator* unfeelingly suggests that he would be sadly disappointed were it successful, for the Canadians hate the New-Englanders, and if annexed would join with the Southerners to rule the Union.

The remarkable success of the subscriptions to the 4 per cent. United States loan has taken the financial community by surprise. The subscriptions at home amounted to $65,982,500; of which sixty millions were received through the Syndicate, and the remainder directly through the Treasury. The London subscriptions aggregated $10,200,000, making the total sum taken here and in England $76,182,500. This gives the loan a prestige at the start calculated to aid its future negotiation very materially. The Syndicate are now receiving subscriptions on their own account, and have advanced the price of the bonds to 100½ in gold here and 103½ in London. The Treasury issued, on the 16th inst., a call for ten millions of five-twenties, and on the 19th inst. a call for a like sum, each being for seven millions of coupon issues and three of registered. Further calls are expected to be shortly forthcoming. It is not at present known whether the Secretary of the Treasury will devote the whole proceeds of the "popular" subscriptions to the redemption of five-twenties or will employ a portion for augmenting the coin reserve to be provided against the day of resumption. Upon his action in this matter the future of the gold market must depend materially; the Syndicate, however, would find it to their interest to use their large influence to prevent any embarrassing fluctuations in the premium.

The only foreign news of moment, besides what relates to the operations of the armies, comes from England, where the undoubted success of the Russians in passing the Balkans, and their probable success in reaching Adrianople and possibly Constantinople within a brief period, has again stimulated the alarm about the communications with India; and there are again rumors of dissensions in the Cabinet, Lord Beaconsfield wishing to send out a corps of 20,000 or 30,000 men, to encamp somewhere under the guns of the fleet, but compromising with Lords Derby and Salisbury by sending the fleet into Turkish waters—Besika Bay. The sending of the corps is still talked of, and the destination assigned to it is Gallipoli, where the British first landed in the Crimean War, and where it is supposed it could close the Dardanelles to the Russians. But if any armed precautions are to be taken against Russian aggression, the growing opinion seems to be in favor of the seizure of Egypt, to which Russia would probably have no objection, and which would effectually secure the road to India and be an enormous boon to the unfortunate fellahs. Mr. Gladstone, in replying to an address presented to him by an association of Baptist churches, approving of his policy on the Eastern question, points out that there will be no proper analogy between the vote of $10,000,000 or $12,000,000, which the Ministry are said to be going to ask for military purposes, and the vote which he asked in 1870 on the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian war, because the present government has already obtained over $20,000,000 more for army expenses than the Gladstone government had before asking for the increase in 1870; because that vote was obtained for the purpose of protecting the neutrality of Belgium, which England had bound herself by treaty with each belligerent to do, and because there was then no difference of opinion in the country as to what the foreign policy of the Government should be, and no party or clique clamoring for intervention.

The members of the Society of the Holy Cross have been sufficiently affected by the storm of indignation called forth by their manual for the use of "the priest" in confession to agree not to circulate it any further, but they refuse to express any disapproval of its contents. The manual and their action upon it have, therefore, been brought up before the Bishops of the Canterbury Province, sitting as the Upper House of Convocation, in which both the book and the declaration of the society received unanimous condemnation. The Archbishop of Canterbury made a strong speech (for him), and intimated that those who take to the confessional in this spirit would do well "to go to Rome," as the phrase is. He mentioned among other things that the Society of the Holy Cross is a secret society, and that nobody knows how large or how small it is. He produced one of a series of "Books for the Young," issued by another body called a "Committee of the Clergy," and which, the book says, might be used on children from the age of six, and one of the things he found in it was that "it is through the priest, and the priest only, that the child must acknowledge his sins, if he desires that God should forgive him." The archbishop commented in vigorous language on the shocking impropriety of teaching young children that there is no use in their confessing their sins to God or their father or mother. The whole exposure fully justifies the warning of the London *Times* to the bishops, that if they cannot get rid of these "conspirators," as the archbishop called them, "against the doctrine, the discipline, and the practice of the reformed church," "the people of England will before long make short work of the institution which shelters them." There is, in fact, no Anglo-Saxon community that will long stand dirty-minded, prying priests of any church, or have their souls doctored by them on any terms.

The chief change in the situation in Turkey during the week has been the Russian occupation of Shipka Pass. This took place on the 19th, two days after Kasanlik and the village of Shipka had fallen into Gen. Gurko's hands, and ensures the perfect ease of the Russian passage of the Balkans hereafter. On the 20th, Yeni-Sagra was captured. Of any further advance on Philippopoli and Adrianople we hear nothing definite. The Turks assert that the railroad between these places has been cut, which is quite probable; and that a Russian force from Slovino has reached Kirk-Kilissa, east of Adrianople, which seems premature. On the other side of the mountains the Russians have occupied Loftcha, but are reported to have failed in their attempts on Plevna, after two days' fighting with Osman Pasha. In the Dobrudsha, Kustendshe and Tchernavoda have been evacuated, and the latter place burnt by the retreating Turks, so that the railroad connecting these places is now controlled by Gen. Zimmermann. His army is operating against Silistria on the one hand and Bazarshik on the other. The hemming in of Rustchuk is making deliberate progress, and the bombardment of the town has recommenced. Gen. Gurko's success in crossing the Balkans led at once to the dismissal of Abdul Kerim, who is succeeded by Mehemet Ali, a Prussian by birth. Raouf and Redif Pashas have also been recalled to Constantinople. The main if not the last hope of Turkey now rests with Suleiman Pasha, who has transported his forces by sea from Antivari, landed at Enos at the head of the Ægean, and taken the shortest railroad route to Adrianople. He is invested with supreme command in Rumelia. His absence revives the flames of insurrection in Bosnia and Herzegovina; the Thessalians and Cretans are said to be getting uneasy beyond restraint; and the Greeks continue to be more or less "agitated," but will evidently not strike so long as the common enemy has any power to return the blow.

THE PLAN OF "DRIFTING" IN RESUMPTION.

WE lately drew attention to the fact that a portion of the Republican party and press at the West has almost in terms adopted the position towards the Resumption Act occupied by the Democrats in the late Presidential canvass. During the canvass they all treated it as a solemn pledge binding the nation to its creditors before all the world. They now say that it is a pledge which cannot be carried out on the day named. This is comprehensible and rational, as far as it goes, however untrue or indefensible it may be. It seems to put the Government in the position of a private debtor, who has to ask for an extension. But a private debtor, who has promised to pay at a certain date and finds he cannot do so, usually proposes some other arrangement. He offers to pay the amount originally promised on some other day, or he offers to pay a smaller amount on the original day. For a definite promise, in short, he substitutes another definite promise. If he cannot do what he said, he says in precise language what he will do. If he refuses to make any other promise whatever, he only escapes reprobation by showing that there is no promise to pay which he could possibly fulfil.

One would naturally expect, therefore, that the Cincinnati and Chicago financiers would produce some plan of resumption of their own, to take the place of the Act of 1875, which would be recognized by business men as a plan. They want to have the Act "modified," and one might reasonably expect that they would express in business language the kind of modification they desire. We say in "business language," because the relation of the Government to its creditors is a business matter, and has to be transacted in terms of finance, and not in terms of poetry or charity. The Government in all that regards finance is substantially a business man. It is both a creditor and a debtor; has various kinds of obligations outstanding, on some of which it pays interest by contract, and on others of which it does not. It has an income which it applies, or will apply, to the satisfaction of these obligations. As the issuer of the greenbacks it is primarily and essentially a promiser on a note, and the fact that these notes are used as currency is only an incident of the transaction, which increases the difficulty of calling them in, but in no degree affects the obligation to call them in as soon as possible. In talking about all this, therefore, we are as much bound to apply commercial ideas to it, and use commercial terms, as if we were discussing the affairs of an embarrassed firm at a meeting of its creditors. The only proper substitute for the Resumption Act is, therefore, a proposal either to redeem the greenbacks on some other day than the one named in it, with coin provided in some other way, or to redeem the greenbacks on that day at a lower rate than par. In other words, if the Government in undertaking to pay a gold dollar for every paper dollar presented in 1879 has undertaken too much, the only thing it can now do is to offer to pay dollar for dollar at some later date, or seventy-five, or fifty cents, as may seem best, on that date.

Do the Western financiers propose anything of the kind? Nothing. What they suggest is, that when the holders of the Government notes present them in January, 1879, the Government shall reply that it has decided on the whole not to redeem in cash on that day, but "to organize such a state of things in the monetary system or machinery of the country as will establish a drift towards specie resumption, and let business solve the problem." We are here honestly quoting one of the Western sages. If the noteholder asked about what time this would lead to payment, the reply would naturally be that it was impossible to say; that "a drift towards resumption" was an uncertain thing; it might be rapid or it might be slow; and that anyhow there was no telling when "the monetary system or machinery of the country" would "establish the drift," and perhaps even after "the drift" was in full operation "business" would refuse "to solve the problem." An individual creditor dealing with a powerful government would of course have to receive such a reply in amused or embittered silence; but if young and vigorous, and carnally-minded, and dealing with an individual debtor, he would feel sorely tempted to lay hands upon him and relieve his feelings by a few hearty kicks. Suppose that an embarrassed merchant, after having long put off the holders of his overdue notes, had at last of his own volition solemnly pledged himself to pay them on a day certain fixed by himself, but before it came, and without having made any effort to accumulate funds for the purpose, were to announce that his plan was impracticable, and call a meeting of his creditors; suppose that on their assembling and asking what he proposed instead, he were to say that for active and definite exertion to meet his liabilities he proposed to organize his affairs in such a way as to "drift" towards solvency, and that when he reached it in this way he would let them know. Would not the discussion be apt to take a very acrimonious turn?

Nor are the opponents of the Resumption Act any more explicit in giving reasons why we cannot resume at the appointed time than in describing what we are to do instead of resuming. They say in a vague way that we cannot get gold enough to take up $700,000,000 of paper, but fail to give any reason for supposing that if paper were at par gold would be needed for $700,000,000, or even for $150,000,000. A great demand for gold in lieu of paper circulating in trade at par would be contrary to all experience of human nature. They say also that "the people" will not stand the contraction needed to bring paper to par, but they do not mention how much contraction would be necessary or what harm it would do "the people"; nor do they offer any excuse, if the people really are suffering from any delusion in the matter, for not seeking to enlighten them instead of falling in with the delusion and trying to spread and confirm it. If, ten years ago, when gold was at 140, the people had been told that to-day gold would be at 106, they would not have believed that the country could bear it, and would have scoffed at the notion that money under such circumstances would be plentiful at four or five per cent. The one great horror which, since the close of the war, has been predicted as likely to result from resumption or contraction—a great fall in prices—has happened without resumption or contraction; and if there are persons in the community simple-minded enough to believe that there is something worse still in store for them from either of these causes, and that to escape it we ought, if necessary, to violate a solemn national pledge, expressed in an Act of Congress, to pay a certain class of public creditors on demand, it is surely the duty of honest journalists not to promote the panic by pouring out windy rhetoric to which no human being can attach any definite meaning, but to enlighten the popular mind and fortify the popular conscience. The silver delusion was, however, the natural forerunner of the nebulous hostility to the Resumption Act. Anybody who has passed months in compounding essays showing that a "cheap money" is a fine thing for the poor man, and that it is a good thing for a country to make itself a possible receptacle for the discarded and depreciated coin of all other countries, in a time of great financial perplexity, can hardly face so unpleasant a task as paying debts without a strong desire to substitute phrases for cash.

HOW VOLUNTEER MANAGEMENT WOULD IMPROVE PARTY MORALITY.

WE tried to show last week that none of the analogies offered by American life and manners afforded any ground for the belief that volunteers would be wanting for the conduct of party organization if the Government would only abandon it. In fact, the notion that parties would perish or lose their efficiency in a community as intensely political and public-spirited as this is, if there were no tide-waiters or postmasters to work them, may almost be pronounced grotesque, and, if the pending reform is carried out, will probably ten years hence be generally so regarded. The change, however, is demanded by most people mainly in the interest of the civil service, which it is easy to see it will benefit enormously, and its friends are apt to be satisfied if they show that it will not damage parties. The fact is, however, that politics will profit by it as much as or more than the service. For example, nothing is more necessary to healthy politics and sound party morality than that formal state-

ments of party principles should be sincere and truthful; that is, that the platforms or resolutions put forth by the party should really describe the opinions held by the bulk of its members, and the policy which, if it has the power of legislation, it means to put into practice. In the absence of this truthfulness and sincerity, and of necessary connection between party principles and party practice, party politics becomes a form of thimblerigging, in which the talents most needed are those of the "confidence man" rather than those of the statesman. Now, of late years, there is no question—in fact, ever since 1868—there have been very alarming signs, by which the souls of honest men have been much troubled, that in the Republican party this connection was lost; that the platforms did not contain the doctrines really held by the men who framed them, and did contain promises which they had no intention of fulfilling. The trite and ever-ready observation that "the Democrats are just as bad" may be true, but we have not had the same opportunity of testing Democratic sincerity as of testing Republican sincerity, because the Democratic party has not since the war been called on to legislate or administer.

Examples of what we mean will occur in abundance to those who have watched Republican attempts during the last ten years to deal with the currency and the civil service. On both these questions the platforms have promised everything that could be wished for, but when the time came for legislative performance it has been found that the platform had no connection with legislation in the minds of leading politicians. Accordingly, the voters who elected Grant and Hayes on specie and reform platforms, vigorously condemning prevailing abuses, have been treated to the extraordinary and debauching spectacle of the party leaders vigorously supporting inflation of the wildest kind, and treating attempts to apply even the mildest rules of business prudence to the management of the civil service as foolish and visionary schemes.

Nothing has done more to promote this mischievous and unseemly state of things than the management of the party machinery by office-holders. Their connection with it has produced in the minds of party leaders, in rendering them indifferent to public opinion, very much the effect which confidence in the army produces in the minds of Marshal MacMahon and M. de Fourtou. Knowing that they had a band of trained and obedient mercenaries, who did not trouble themselves about opinions or policy, to see to the nominations and elections and "put things through," and knowing that with these persons in charge the average voter could not help himself, and would have to swallow whatever disgust might be excited in his mind by hypocrisy and inconsistency, they naturally cared little whether their practice tallied with their professions. They knew that the discontented outsider had no remedy but to go over to the Democrats; reform within the party was not within his reach, and this desertion to the Democrats they prevented to some extent ordinarily by having a good "main question" and keeping "sound" on it.

Were the organization in the hands of volunteers these volunteers would perforce be, as they were in the early days of the Republican party, comparatively disinterested and public-spirited men, with greater or less eagerness for the general efficiency of the party as an instrument of government rather than for its particular efficiency as a distributor of offices. They would be men more or less earnest about particular questions, and anxious to keep the party in power in order to secure certain kinds of legislation, and could have no personal object in managing it which could be attained otherwise than through securing the confidence and gratitude of their fellow-citizens. Offices which political activity would give them, would, of necessity, be elective offices, and would have to be earned by conspicuous devotion to the general interest, and not, as now, by obscure zeal and intrigues in the interest of one man. Caucus managers of this sort would have to be deferred to by framers of platforms and legislators. They could not be treated as regular troops whose obedience was sure under all circumstances, and who could be relied on to suppress émeutes by the word of command, as Mr. Cornell put down the Union League Club rising against Mr. Conkling. The party in their hands, whether strong in numbers or not, would be organized public opinion, and not organized servility. Promises made to it would have to be kept; policies traced for its approval at elections would have to be honestly put into execution. Congressmen at Washington would, before voting or speaking, have to refer to the party programme and see what it bound them to. In short, there would be a revival of party morality, and with it a great work of salvation among leading politicians.

We must, however, guard against the supposition that we expect all these good things to come suddenly, or imagine that by any little device parties can be made better than the human nature of the men who compose them. There is nothing politicians dread so much as any attempt to "bring in the millennium," and we can assure them that reformers have no such design. All they seek or look for is the application to American government of the great principles of human nature on which Americans conduct their private affairs and their ecclesiastical and philanthropic affairs. What they war against is the idea that the work of government is exceptional in anything but its magnitude, and in the feebleness of its hold on the popular morality, and that it can dispense with any of the precautions and tests and guarantees which the experience of mankind has proved necessary for the successful prosecution of all other enterprises.

PROVINCIALISM IN PARLIAMENTARY ELECTIONS.

LONDON, July 3, 1877.

I WAS listening the other evening in the House of Commons to a portion of the "Five Days' Debate" upon the Eastern Question, sitting next one of the better specimens of our returned colonists. He had seen a good deal of colonial parliamentary life and institutions, and had studied the question of popular representation in various countries. He had not been much at home, and had not been present at a debate in this country since he was a boy. He watched the proceedings for some hours. He heard the wrangling at the commencement of the debate. He listened with amusement to the taunts hurled by the rank and file of the Tory party at Mr. Gladstone and the official leaders of the opposition. But when Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Jenkins and Mr. Anderson and others of our new school of sympathetic radicals got up one after the other to bewail Mr. Gladstone's lamentable change of front, and to enumerate all the unkind and arbitrary things that the constituencies would say and do to Mr. Gladstone and his friends for his temporary defection from the policy of sentiment which he had originated, and his temporary submission to the dictates of reason and common sense, my colonial friend's amusement changed to blank dismay at the decadence of parliamentary and political life. It was impossible, he said, for the degradation of representative institutions to sink below the level of the present British House of Commons. Place, he added, the names of all the adult male population of the kingdom into a hat (if you can find one big enough) and draw out 658 names at random, and you will secure quite as able and a much more independent body of men than you have here by your present system. Men so selected will be quite as intelligent as the mass of those who are sitting there. They will be more representative, because you will have every sort of interest represented, instead of beer, and coals, and railways, and acres of arable land, and consols. Above all, they will during the period of their parliamentary career owe nothing to their constituents. They will be free to form and express their own views and opinions on all matters which emerge, whereas now there is hardly a man on either side of the House who has not the dread of his constituency's displeasure and the loss of his seat, for which he has paid so much, dangling over his head, suspended merely by the thin thread of the two or three years' tenure which the present Parliament gives him.

Having been brought up to a traditionary respect for our parliamentary institutions, and, like most Britons, regarding the House of Commons as the greatest national assembly in the world, I was startled and somewhat shocked by this abrupt declaration. But, on thinking the matter over, I am bound to confess that there is more truth in it than I was willing to admit. It is a fact that every year our members of Parliament become more and more subservient to their constituencies, and that the latter become more and more exacting. The competition for seats in the House is keener and keener every year. Some time ago no one thought of Parliament unless he was educated for political life. He was not unfrequently a son of a noble, or at least of an acred, house. From his babyhood he was trained with a view to the House of Commons. He was

made to recount in his own language the incidents of each day and week, in order to give him self-reliance and facility of expression. At Eton he studied the classical and the English orators, he took a leading part in the debating society, and when in London he attended the debates in the two houses of Parliament. At Oxford or Cambridge his studies were directed to the same end, and on his leaving the University some pocket borough or some county constituency was willing to receive him. He began practical politics before he was five-and-twenty, and might be in the Cabinet, having served his apprenticeship in the subordinate offices, by the time he was in the meridian of life. That golden age of parliamentary life is gone. Such a system had many faults, but it bred up statesmen and orators. Money is now the key to Parliament, and men do not generally have money till they are far on in years. We are fast approaching the point where men who sit for borough seats are not free agents. They are dull, middle-aged, wealthy men, untrained in politics, and ignorant of the first elements of oratory, who buy their way into the House of Commons, and arrive there steeped to the eyelids in fantastic pledges to carry out the hobbies of their constituents—mere delegates of the noisiest and most clamorous among men.

Mr. Goldwin Smith has preached an instructive sermon on this theme in the current number of the *Fortnightly Review*. He looks despairingly on English politics. He finds them honeycombed by newly-acquired wealth. Everything bends before the plutocrat, except his constituency, and before that the plutocrat is but a reed. The constituencies are no longer on the outlook for young men of ability and promise but without wealth. Such characters are thrust aside by the managers of the constituencies just as paupers are warned away from fashionable churches or needy bachelors from the belle of the season. What the constituencies look to is, for first choice, local reputation for wealth ; for second choice, general reputation for wealth ; and for third choice, notoriety. The local brewer or provincial land-jobber who has made his fortune in his native place and spends a good portion of it there, will always be preferred to the man of political knowledge or of statesmanlike capacity, whose ambition is to serve his country rather than to pay blackmail to the borough tradesmen. A millionnaire who is known only by the reputation of his money-bags comes next in order of merit in the eyes of the local politicians who pull the strings of the elections. If he has not already spent his money in "nursing" the constituency, the wire-pullers know how to make him do so in the future. Failing these two classes of aspirants for political celebrity, the fancy of the election managers lightly turns to notoriety. Dr. Keneally secured a seat whenever he applied for one, and though he has done nothing since he got into the House, it is by no means certain that he will be discarded when he has to stand again. Mr. Whalley was within some thirty votes of heading the poll at Peterboro', though no fewer than five candidates contested the honors of the seat with him. If the claimant to the Tichborne estates were released from prison to-morrow there are half a dozen constituencies who would elect him on the first opportunity. The affections of such constituencies are necessarily fickle, and the man who has secured them for the time must humor his constituency and do its bidding, otherwise he will be passed over for some new notoriety at the next election. This obedience to the will of the electors, this self-renunciation and abasement, is one of the prices which we have to pay for our present inchoate democracy. The people are feeling their strength and have found pliant objects in the shape of socially ambitious plutocrats on which to use it. It is a price which many among us do not like to pay, but we see it is getting higher and higher every day.

In the same number of the *Fortnightly Review* in which Mr. Goldwin Smith bewails the increase of localism and provincialism in our elections, Mr. Chamberlain, one of the members for Birmingham, propounds a scheme for perpetuating the triumphs of provincialism and extending them beyond the rough machinery of elections into the more delicate fabric of private judgment. He proposes to start a grand organization, which, with a centre in Birmingham, will extend its arms over every constituency where it has any chance of success, and will govern, not only the selection of candidates for Parliament, but their votes also when they are in Parliament. Each borough—for he begins with the boroughs—is to provide itself with a council of Liberal or Radical electors, and this council is to select a candidate whom the electors, on pain of excommunication, are bound to support. All the councils in their respective boroughs are to be federated with Mr. Chamberlain's own council in Birmingham, and are to move when his council bids them move, and in the direction in which his council bids them move. Such candidates only as Mr. Chamberlain and his council approve are to receive support in the future ; all others will be elbowed out of the way or opposed by one of Mr. Chamberlain's candidates. Whenever any question arises in Parliament on which Mr. Chamberlain and his council hold particular views, all the federated councils will be set in motion from Birmingham to make their puppet members dance in accordance with the particular views held by Mr. Chamberlain—the price of disobedience being the forfeiture of the seat at the next election. Such, put shortly, is Mr. Chamberlain's grand scheme for controlling elections and coercing representatives. At present it is only in embryo, but its promoters have had the assurance to besiege Liberal members of Parliament in the lobbies of the House of Commons and solicit subscriptions from them for its support ; and some of the rich Liberal sheep that have been solicited have yielded up their fleeces to the shearer without a murmur. They have been so used to leave their political consciences in the hands of their constituencies that it may have been a relief to them to have found one keeper in the place of many. But they can hardly have reflected that if their constituencies chastised them only with whips, they have handed over funds to Mr. Chamberlain to lay in a stock of scorpions for their future chastisement. Coercion systematized, and on so vast a scale as Mr. Chamberlain contemplates, may be an improvement on the present unorganized coercion, which is generally regulated by caprice. It may even be a step towards the achievement of that final triumph of democracy to which Mr. Goldwin Smith looks forward with serene satisfaction, when society is clearly and definitely organized "for the good of all, on the basis of reason and morality, with securities against anarchy as well as against reaction, against popular passion as well as against oligarchic privilege." It may be so, and worthy of commendation. It seems to me, and it would seem, I think, to my colonial friend, that it may be more truly regarded as another step in the degradation of representative institutions, leading not so much to the triumph of democracy as to the personal ascendency of one of the members from Birmingham, and to the self-imposed debasement of the Liberal representatives of the people from the position of comparatively free and responsible agents to that of automatons or marionettes worked by Mr. Chamberlain and his council in Birmingham.

Correspondence.

THE BALTIMORE COLLECTORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Although in your last issue you refer to the Baltimore Collectorship as a matter "which the newspapers have fully discussed," I cannot help feeling that its bearing upon the question of reform in the civil service has been but imperfectly observed. The action of the President in this affair has been altogether bewildering, and should command the anxious attention of all who are giving him their support in the belief that he is going to supplant the old system of appointments to office by something better. The published letters and statements of all the parties to the wrangle excite the apprehension that in appointing Thomas and suspending Wilkins the President was duped very easily indeed, or that he is less fixed in his devotion to civil-service ideas than his friends had hoped.

Mr. Thomas, the successful applicant for the office, is a man who would hardly care to have his character sifted. He is known as one who is cunning in running primaries and manipulating political conventions by methods which are well understood by "the boys," but he does not possess the esteem of any one outside the workers of his party. Like all men of his kind, he is wonderfully energetic, and in the pursuit of his ends can display an effrontery which, to common minds, is simply startling. Once before this he was Collector of Baltimore, and in that capacity made a record which we might have supposed would have made it morally impossible for him to have applied again for the same place. His two chief and trusted deputies stole many thousands of dollars of the public funds in his keeping, and were convicted of the offence and sentenced to jail. With characteristic audacity, Mr. Thomas begged Congress for a resolution relieving him from his legal liability for the acts of his subordinates. The resolution was passed (*vide* 'U. S. Statutes at Large,' vol. xvi., page 703) and one might have been pardoned for fondly imagining that the immunity thus graciously, if not inconsiderately, granted by Congress would have provided some protection to the people against his further inroads upon their welfare. Not so. He did not blush to besiege Mr. Hayes for reappointment to the same office with an impudence seemingly

whetted by his past disgrace; and in the prosecution of his schemes, unfortunately for the public, he was aided and abetted by C. C. Fulton, the proprietor of the Baltimore *American*—the leading newspaper of the State.

On the other hand, Wilkins, among all the people, both Democrats and Republicans, has a thoroughly excellent reputation as a worthy and reliable citizen. He has been a Republican, but, at least until recently, has had no concern in party feuds. He was made Collector by President Grant without any personal solicitation. The appointment came to him. He did not seek it. He is alleged to have been put in office by some sort of bargain between Fulton, Creswell, and Grant, by which it was understood that his commission was to be surrendered upon the expiration of Grant's term. This bargain is asserted by Fulton and Thomas, and denied by Grant and Creswell; but if it existed, it seems on all sides to be conceded that it was unknown to Wilkins; and if it existed, it everywhere appears as a bargain whose object, single and unmixed, was party efficiency to be secured by the reconciliation of party leaders who had quarrelled; and when this bargain was thrust upon Hayes as something by which his action ought to be constrained, how did he behave? Did he turn with contempt from the man who urged it, or lead him out by the ear from his presence? Alas, no! He treated him with respect and complaisance, and at once gave out that upon the question of the existence of this bargain (utterly abominable in the view of a reformer) his decision of the Baltimore Collectorship would finally hinge. Until this, Wilkins seems to have been attending tranquilly to the business of his office in the comfortable conviction that the President's civil-service notions and his own character and conduct were his abundant protection. But now the fight waxed hot. Evidence about the supposed bargain was industriously submitted. A despatch was sent to General Grant, who was in England, to ascertain what he had to say upon the subject; and Mr. Fulton addressed his note to the President, in which he charged Wilkins with being a "more persistent disorganizer than his predecessor, Booth," and assured the President that if he would promptly make the appointments for Maryland suggested to him by Mr. Thomas and himself "it would electrify the whole State," and he promised him in return "the election of a reform candidate for mayor next fall."

As the upshot of it all Mr. Hayes appointed Thomas and suspended Wilkins; and this he did before he had heard what Grant had to say about the bargain, and although Wilkins was administering the office to the entire satisfaction of the mercantile community, and although his commission had more than three years to run, and although Mr. Hayes had assured him in writing at the time of requesting his resignation that he had "a sincere respect for his character."

Is not all this very gloomy to one who has been hopeful of the President's firmness and consistency in enforcing his views of reform in civil-service matters? I own that I cannot imagine a case which could more shock all ideas I hold upon the subject than this case of the removal of Wilkins.

Very respectfully,

GEO. C. MAUND.

BALTIMORE, MD., July 17.

OUR "EX-SOVEREIGN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just seen your paper of June 21, containing a communication from this country, in which the writer says that "it is believed in England by very well-informed persons that the British Government has received a communication from the Government of the United States with regard to the reception to be given to General Grant, desiring that he should be treated as an 'ex-sovereign.'"

Your correspondent, and yourself in your comments, throw doubt on this statement. Perhaps I can explain how it may have arisen.

The American Minister here, Mr. Pierrepont, was appointed by General Grant, and is an ardent admirer of his. The same statements are true of General Badeau, the Consul-General of the United States at London, who (it is said) is to be removed from office, but is allowed to retain his place for the moment in consideration of his relations to General Grant. Mr. Pierrepont, also, it is supposed, is likely to be replaced—his place having been offered to at least one other gentleman. Now, the story here is that Mr. Pierrepont and General Badeau prepared an "ovation" for General Grant prior to his arrival here. It is said that Mr. Pierrepont intimated to the Government and municipal authorities here that public attentions to General Grant would be of great value toward "cementing good feeling, etc., etc.," and he further (it is reported) solicited the invitations to dinner which were given to General Grant by the Duke of Wellington and the Prince of Wales. General Badeau's part has consisted in playing the chaperone to General Grant and writing letters to mayors, etc., in behalf of the latter. To these communications General Badeau has signed himself "Brevet-Brigadier General in attendance." I am told that Badeau wears around his neck, on important occasions, a silk ribbon with a brilliant ornament of some sort pendant therefrom, after the manner of the "grand crosses" of orders of knighthood. What may be the nature of Badeau's ornament is a puzzle to people here.

This note may throw some light upon the questions put by your correspondent, and may also explain why it will be very satisfactory to many Americans here if Mr. Pierrepont and General Badeau are replaced.

D. W.

LONDON, July 9, 1877.

[It is explained that General Badeau's ornament is the insignia of the Cincinnati Society, of which it is confidently believed that he is a member in regular standing; but it is none the less true that all American "brevet brigadier-generals in attendance" ought to be and remain in this country, as the only place where they are fully understood.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE seventeenth annual meeting of the National Educational Association will be held at Louisville, Ky., on August 14, 15, and 16. The programme of the last day includes papers and discussions on the Educational Interests of Texas, the Educational Wants of the South, and the Promotion of Popular Education in that region.——It is announced that a professorship of Chinese has been established, though not yet fully endowed, at Yale College. The selection of Mr. S. Wells Williams to fill it is most judicious.——The Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture reminds the public that entries must be made on or before March 1, 1878, to Mr. Francis Skinner, Brookline, Mass., for prizes which the Society will award in 1888 for the best and second-best plantations of 5,000 and 1,000 white-ash trees; the best and second-best five acres and one acre of white-pine raised from seed by the competitor; the best and next best acre of Scotch pine, and of European larch. Seeds and trees may be ordered on favorable terms through Mr. Skinner.——A serious robbery of the Department of Antiquities in the British Museum has been published with a view to the recovery of the articles stolen. Two out of sixteen have already been brought in by an English dealer, and some may find their way to this country. A list of fourteen is given in the *Athenæum* of July 7. They are mostly Oriental intaglios, and several bear Pehlevi and Himyaritic inscriptions. A rectangular carved ivory panel, from Nimroud, has been engraved in Layard's 'Monuments of Nineveh,' fol. pl. 89; and an oval convex sardonyx in the 'British Museum Himyaritic Inscriptions,' pl. xviii. 42.——The Paris bibliophiles are willing to pay high prices for their books. On Morgand & Fatout's late catalogue, a very good one by the way, we notice the Molière of Paris, 1666, the first collected edition, 6,000 frs.; the Amsterdam edition of 'Manon Lescaut,' 2,000 frs.; and 1,500 francs for the original edition (1835, 2 vols.) of Gautier's 'Mademoiselle de Maupin,' a romance which would be honored by being burnt.——M. Arthur Pougin, a learned and yet lively French music critic, has just published a biography of Adolphe Adam, the composer of many charming ballets and comic operas. The book is adorned with an etched portrait of Adam, and with a fac-simile of his autograph; certain of his own criticisms on musical topics are appended.——M. Adolphe Jullien, another French writer on music, has gathered together half a dozen kindred essays, which are published in a volume by Charpentier (New York: F. W. Christern) under the appropriate title of 'Airs Variés.'——Admirers of Manzoni, and indeed all students of the Italian, will prize Prof. Riccardo Folli's "comparative edition" of the 'Promessi Sposi.' It indicates, by varieties of type above, below, and on the line, the minutest alterations from the original edition, and thus becomes a valuable lesson in style.——Students of Anglo-Saxon will be pained to learn of the death of Grein, the celebrated editor of the 'Bibliothek der Angelsachsischen Poesie,' June 16, in Hanover. Grein was the foremost Anglo-Saxon scholar and editor of our day, and, as he was still in the prime of life, his death must be regarded as a very serious loss to science. ——The death is also announced of M. Ernest Griset, whose peculiar humor as a designer is well known even in this country.

—A correspondent writes us from Paterson, N. J. :

"In the *Nation* of July 5 there appeared a notice of the discovery of a copy of Charles and Mary Lamb's 'Poetry for Children,' with a statement that 'this little work appeared in 1809, was sold out rapidly, and then disappeared.' A long notice of the same work appears in the *World* of this date. It would seem to have escaped your knowledge, as well as that of the writer in the *World*, that the work was republished in the United States. The writer of this has now before him a copy with the following title-page : 'Poetry for Children,' entirely original, by the author of 'Mrs. Leicester's School.' Boston : Published by West & Richardson and Edward Cotton. 1812.' The book contains eighty-one poems, while the original is said to have contained eighty-four. It has probably escaped notice on account of the absence of the authors' names from the title-page."

—Mrs. Lizzie W. Champney writes us from Deerfield, Mass., under date of July 20 :

"Your critic in his review of *Lippincott's Magazine*, in your issue for July 19, while noticing very kindly my story, entitled 'Vina's Ole Man,' expresses doubt that John Brown ever visited New Orleans. My authority for the part of the narrative which concerns the old anti-slavery leader is his brother, Mr. Jeremiah Brown, with whom our family were intimately acquainted in Kansas. I remember his relating many personal anecdotes of John Brown. That of his visiting the slave-markets on the line of the Mississippi, and especially in *New Orleans*, and of his becoming convinced of the iniquity of the system before commencing his public work, remains perfectly clear and distinct in the minds of my father and mother. I do not now know the address of Mr. Jeremiah Brown or I would refer directly to him for confirmation of the assertion. The incident which I have used of Vina's marriage at the slave-pen has also its authority, for the fact of mating young girls with decrepit and unsalable rice-swamp negroes on the eve of their auction, and then hypocritically refusing to violate the family relations by selling them separately, especially (so his brother told us) stirred up the blood of Old Ossawattomie to righteous indignation."

—He must be a bold littérateur, one would think, who should offer at this late day a paper on the White Mountains to any of our magazines. But here is one in the very forefront of *Harper's* for August, introduced by a cut of the Old Man of the Mountains. One looks next, as of course, for the Willey House and Miss Lizzie Bourne, and finds them in the text, where, to tell the truth, Mr. Rideing has little to impart that is in the least novel. A single observation, however, may be worth quoting for the sake of our readers dwelling (and proud to dwell) under the shadow of Pike's Peak :

"It is singular that, according to the writer's impressions, a White Mountain summit gives a fairer idea of the immensity of space than the highest of the Rocky Mountain peaks. The height of the latter is so great that only the pinnacles surrounding them have a distinct shape. All below is drowned in a yellow mistiness. But the downward glimpses you get in the ascent of Mount Washington reveal so varied an extent of country that it is possible to realize how great your altitude is. . . . From the highest of the Rocky Mountains the view resembles a desolate ocean ; from the White Mountains it is an earthly paradise."

The peculiar monopoly of this number of *Harper's* is Mr. William C. Prime's description of the "Golden Treasures of Kurium," with numerous and excellent illustrations. This is the public's first introduction to the second Cesnola collection secured by our Metropolitan Museum of Art, and we may be sure that when they are permitted to look upon the objects themselves they will flock eagerly to the exhibition. It is, in fact, easy to share Mr. Prime's enthusiasm in this matter. There are various legitimate ways of puffing the summer resorts that Nature has lavished upon the New England coast, but Castine, the "New Watering-Place," is recommended to us by a writer who affects an excessive dread lest somebody may go there. The last article that we shall mention is one on Keats, from which we learn that the poet's brother George came to America and settled finally in Louisville, where he died. Two daughters of his, both married, still reside there ; and from their recollections, and the relics of their uncle John in their possession, the writer obtained the pictorial and other material for his article. Portraits of John and George Keats, and a fac-simile of part of an inedited sonnet, written in 1817 (also here printed in full), are given. As to the sonnet, we have Keats's not wholly unnecessary explanation : "The plain English of this is, the Bible is the best book for a poet to form his taste by."

—Mr. Henry James, jr., is always at his best in descriptive passages, and the paragraphs describing a part of London on a day in June during the season, the preface to his "Picture Season in London," in the August *Galaxy*, are quite characteristic of him. He agrees with other writers upon the recent Grosvenor exhibition in regarding the pictures of Mr. Burne-Jones as "by far the most interesting things" in the gallery. "In my own opinion," he adds, "they place their author quite at the head of the English painters of our day, and very high among all the painters of this degenerate time." This opinion is all the more to be considered inasmuch as Mr. James is "not at all in sympathy with the school of art, if school there is, to which Mr. Burne-Jones belongs," the productions of which he is able to enjoy "only with a dozen abatements." "Typical Turks," by Mr. Henry O. Dwight, is another good article, presenting very vividly the characteristics of "old Turk," "young Turk," and "good Turk," and strengthening the conviction of many persons that there is not a great deal in any kind of Turk that the civilized world need care much about saving. "Forces in European Politics," by Mr. George E. Pond, is a thoughtful article which repays reading, whether its generalizations be accepted or not. Mr. Grant White's account of his visit to Stratford-on-Avon will certainly deter many tourists from visiting the birthplace of Shakspere, and if it should ever reach Stratford will call down anathemas upon him from its hotel-keepers. Instead of an old-time English country-place, with an air of antiquity and simple country life, such as he had expected, he found "a thrifty, airy, clean, hard, progressive-looking place," "more like a new one-horse 'American' city, half made by a railway, than any place that I (he) had seen in England." The most original article in the *Galaxy* in some respects is the short verse by Mr. Sidney Lanier, entitled "The Mocking Bird." After describing in eight lines the song of the bird, he adds six more which we must quote :

> "Then down he shot, bounced airily along
> The sward, twitched-in a grasshopper, made song
> Midflight, perched, primped, and to his art again.
> Sweet Science, this large riddle read me plain :
> How may the death of that dull insect be
> The life of you trim Shakespeare on the tree ?"

—a question which we must leave the philosophical biologist or the Rev. Mr. Cook to answer.

—It is to be hoped that before long a theatrical manager will be found with courage enough to put upon the stage one of Mr. Howells's comedies, and to bring it out, moreover, with all the care hitherto bestowed upon adaptations from the French. Soon after the publication of "A Parlor Car" there were numerous rumors of its coming out *en scène*, but they died away at last, and we cannot say that we were sorry ; for "A Parlor Car," enjoyable to read, was not very well adapted for success upon the stage, and we never supposed that Mr. Howells intended it to be played. It would require a small theatre, a very select audience, and actors peculiarly adapted to it. Any attempt at stage effect would ruin it. But "Out of the Question" and the first part of "A Counterfeit Presentment," in the August *Atlantic*, seem to have been written with reference to a stage and a general audience. There are scenes in both of them that could hardly fail to be well received if played even moderately well, and in the hands of good actors they would go far towards tempting some other writers to follow Mr. Howells's lead. We admit that it would be difficult at present to name any other American writer who has displayed any genius for writing equally graceful and delicate comedy ; but until others appear we trust that Mr. Howells will "remain under conviction" with regard to his literary duty. A new comedy from him is a greater public necessity than a new novel, notwithstanding the warm welcome always ready for the latter. There is no other article of peculiar merit in this number of the *Atlantic*, although Mr. Perry's "German Influence in English Literature" is painstaking, and Mr. Harney's "How Captain Ascott Floored the Ghost" shows vigor, but of a somewhat slangy sort.

—"Maine's Place in History" was the subject of an address at the Centennial Exhibition, November 4, 1876, by ex-Governor Joshua L. Chamberlain, President of Bowdoin College. This address has just been printed by order of the Legislature, and makes a handsome pamphlet of 108 pages, freely interspersed with maps, some of which were prepared expressly for it and are a very desirable acquisition. Mr. Chamberlain's discourse was chiefly devoted to the provincial history of his native State, as he was most anxious to assert the early settlement of the colony, prior to and independent of those of Massachusetts, and its value as giving England a clear advantage in combating the claims of France to the same territory. In doing this he was obliged to assume a polemical attitude, because Massachusetts historians have sought to belittle a settlement which was sporadic for some time after the failure of the Popham colony, and, in contradistinction to Plymouth Colony and the Bay, was animated by no more cohesive motive than a spirit of enterprise and adventure. But he cannot be accused of embittering a discussion which has been at least as warm as its importance justifies, and he has rendered full justice to Massachusetts as the guardian of a province to which her claim to have been a mother cannot be made good. As a matter of detail in the subsequent portion of the address, we note the omission of any allusion to the services of Colonel John Allan in securing the St. Croix as the eastern boundary of Maine and of the United States, by his skill in keeping

the Indians loyal to the cause of the colonies during the Revolution. The brief chapter on the present condition of Maine with which the address closes contains many interesting facts and statistics. In analyzing the positive falling off in population shown by the census of 1870, Mr. Chamberlain finds that this decline of 1,364 does not appear in the polls (the number of men of voting age), who had increased by 16,396; nor in the women, who had increased by upwards of 2,700, and were 900 in excess of the males, whereas "in 1860 the males were 6,000 more than the females." The loss, therefore, appears to have been among the males under 21 years of age; and this is confirmed by the School Commissioner's report, which shows that, "during the decade ending in 1870 the number of persons of school age in this State had decreased by 15,753," and again by the census returns, "showing from 1860 to 1870 a thousand a year less children born in Maine than for any year of the twenty preceding." How far the war, and how far physiological and moral causes, had a share in this result may never be determined, but the next census will undoubtedly throw light on many of the irregularities revealed in the last.

—The Ridsdale judgment and its results are discussed by the Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol in the July number of the *Nineteenth Century* with the good temper natural to a man perfectly satisfied with the judgment, and regarding it as "wise, convincing, and conciliatory." The bishop is evidently no believer in the Ritualists. The best among them he believes will conform to the judgment; the rest "will be quietly squeezed out" of the Church of England—some of them, of course, finding their way to Rome. Mr. Brassey, in "Round the World in the *Sunbeam*," gives the first part of a narrative of "an amateur voyage" around the world in a small steam vessel which sailed from Cowes last year on the 6th of July. The voyage was 35,400 miles in length and took forty-six weeks, the only passengers on board the vessel being Mr. and Mrs. Brassey and their four children, the youngest under two years of age. Mr. Brassey's observations upon the hardships of the sailor while at sea are well worth the consideration of philanthropists; and his noting of a significant circumstance—namely, "that no vessel of the merchant service of the United States" has ever passed through the Suez Canal—may prick some of our merchants and politicians keenly enough to induce them to reflect upon the meaning of Mr. Evarts's "full" trade. Mr. Grant-Duff furnishes an excellent review of the "Five Nights' Debate," and incidentally suggests a policy for the Liberals and expresses an opinion with regard to the possible results of the Eastern war. He would like to have the Eastern Question definitely settled now by, in brief, the taking of Egypt by England, and the declaration that, this done, Constantinople would cease to be a British "interest." Mr. James Stansfeld, in "Medical Women," gives a good review of the struggle of women for admission into the medical schools and hospitals of Great Britain, for the success of which movement great praise belongs, in his opinion, to Dr. Sophia Jex-Blake. Our space forbids at present the mention of other articles. With the July number, the fifth of its existence, the *Nineteenth Century* closes its first volume, having already an assured place as one of the most excellent and indispensable of the English reviews.

—In the *Contemporary Review* for July the Duke of Argyll, in an article on "Morality in Politics," comes to pretty much the same conclusion reached by Mr. Grant-Duff in his article in the *Nineteenth Century*, although he gets to it by a very different route. He too believes that the English people have at present "no interest in keeping even Constantinople in its present hands," and he accuses the British Government of political immorality in dealing with Turkey. Mr. Gladstone's "Piracy in Borneo" gives the evidence on which was founded a statement made in his speech on the 7th of May. Mr. Proctor gives a clear exposition and defence of "the method of measuring the motion of very swiftly-travelling bodies by noting changes in the light-waves which reach us from them." Readers who were interested in our notice of Sellar's 'Virgil' will enjoy Julia Wedgwood's "Virgil"—an article written *apropos* of Prof. Sellar's book; and Transcendentalists will find good things in Mr. Dowden's article. On the whole, however, we are obliged to pronounce this number of the *Contemporary* a shade dryer and duller than seems necessary even in a stately review. It contains scarcely an article of really general interest, and Lady Verney's "Pictures in Holland" is the only one not addressed to some special class of readers.

—The current number of the *Gazette des Beaux Arts* (June, 1877) contains an article upon the sculpture in the *Salon*, by M. Ch. Timbal. This is an interesting paper, and from it we make the brief extracts that follow of statements and conclusions which seem almost incredible when compared with the general and loud wails over the grave of buried sculpture with which the art-world has resounded for the last thirty years. There has been seen an awakening and an arising of painting and of original engraving, of many of the subsidiary arts, and even of some of the heads of the many-headed master, architecture—but sculpture! The art of the third century before Christ, and the sixteenth century after, was thought to be as dead as those centuries, or to live only as they do, in history and antiquarian study. But now read M. Timbal:

"It is not easy to deny that sculpture is taking precedence of painting. This is a fact which several exhibitions have made visible already. . . . How the times have changed! It is already long past, the time when a few amateurs, ashamed of their curiosity as of an act of pedantry, walked about among the uncomprehended works of our statuaries without daring to stay too long; the time when, to secure a glance for a work of sculpture even of the first order, the authorities were obliged to set it as an outpost among the picture-galleries. All this coldness, all this indifference, have given place to a new and growing popularity which is almost a mania. . . . There are orators among the crowd who point out to their friends the accurate modelling of a bas-relief, and teach them how a combination of hollows and projections has given to colorless material the appearance of life. More than this, they even know the names of the exhibiting sculptors! Yes; to-day a sculptor may be as famous as a painter! Like a painter, the sculptor holds his annual sale at the great public counter of true renown. A reduction of Mr. Chapu's 'Joan of Arc' has brought twelve thousand francs under the hammer of the auctioneer."

These are startling statements; and it will be a few years yet before English-speaking people anywhere will be able to say as much on their own behalf.

—So far as this growing popularity of sculpture in France covers and accompanies a real progress in the art, the cause of it is worth seeking, and it may be found in the free use of statuary of life-size, and of greater than life-size, in connection with modern buildings in Paris and elsewhere. A large public building built to-day is hardly left without sculpture, in relief and in the round, the subjects of which are often real and of living interest, and which is entrusted to sculptors of reputation. No one will mistake us as giving anything like enthusiastic praise to modern Parisian architecture in the mass. But nowhere in Europe has there been so general a willingness as in Paris to glorify architecture by the restoration to their places in that mighty whole, of all the arts which should go to make it up. And, as regards sculpture, it is to be noticed that there are questions as to the best way of using it in connection with buildings in modern times. We know the Greek way, but cannot follow it for many reasons. The system followed in Imperial Rome we can guess at, but cannot really appreciate, still less imitate; the noble abstraction of Chartres or of Rheims, or even of Abbeville, is still further away from all possibility of restoring to our modern art. But while the French sculptors have been, no doubt, discussing these matters hotly among themselves, they have also had the chance to do something right or wrong; they have done much and have often done well, and the future of sculpture is made more clear by their labors than it could have been by argument and by inferences drawn from the past.

—M. Th. Muret some years ago published in Paris a very interesting work called 'L'Histoire par le Théâtre,' tracing in turn the influence of the stage on public affairs and the reflections of political life in the mirror of the stage. M. Louis Moland's 'Théâtre de la Révolution,' just from the press, is, to a certain extent, a collection of the documents cited in the earliest of M. Muret's three volumes. It contains six of those dramas acted during the French Revolution which created the most excitement at the time of their performance, and are most characteristic of the period. They are printed from the earlier and unexpurgated editions and accompanied by the author's notes, dedications, correspondence, speeches, and such other documents as are needed to shed light on the career of the piece. M. Moland contributes an introduction in which he sketches the history of each play. The volume is a most useful supplement to ordinary accounts of the French Revolution. In the chronological sequence of the six plays we can trace the changing phases of the times: Chénier's 'Charles IX.' (1789) is the beginning; in 'Les Victimes Cloîtrées' (1791) we see the height of the attack on the church; Laya's 'Ami des lois' (1793) marks the thick of the fight of the Girondists and the Jacobins; 'Le Jugement dernier des Rois' (1793) shows the quieting feeling, and in the 'Comités Révolutionnaires' (1795) the reaction is fully under way. The sixth play which M. Moland reprints is the famous 'Madame Angot, ou la poissarde parvenue,' the ancestress of the tuneful creature of our day. It was first performed under the Directory in 1796. The Revolution was over; society was recovering from the shock and was crystallizing anew, and in 'Madame Angot' was first shown the strange upsetting

and almost equally strange setting which society exhibited. The success of the play brought forth countless imitations and sequels, the most remarkable of which, 'Madame Angot au Sérail de Constantinople,' M. Moland has reserved for a second volume continuing the characteristic plays of the first thirty years of this century, the period of the Empire and the Restoration.

THE ART OF ADVOCACY.*

"WHEN Scarlett," said the Duke of Wellington, "is addressing a jury, there are thirteen jurymen." This sentence sums up Lord Abinger's claim to fame. He was the most successful advocate whom the English bar has produced. To make this statement is, in fact, to state that he achieved a success which hundreds of men of the highest ability have for centuries aimed at without completely obtaining. The question which readers of his life are certain to ask is, What was the art by which this success was achieved? The 'Memoir of Lord Abinger' provides the answer. The book is, for the most part, the dull work of the dull son of a remarkable father. The writer knows little or nothing of the pursuit in which his father gained celebrity, and but for one happy circumstance the memoir might be described as a record of everything which the world does not care to know about Lord Abinger and his family. Fortunately, it contains ninety pages of autobiography. These pages are invaluable. They give Scarlett's account of the causes of his own success, and are a compendious statement, by the first of English advocates, of the principles on which depends the art of advocacy.

Two points enhance the practical value of Lord Abinger's forensic precepts. He did not, in the first place, owe his success to any extraordinary oratorical gifts, or to graces of voice or demeanor. He speaks candidly of the "very indifferent appearance" he made as a public speaker. His "style of speaking was rapid," and his "voice rather weak." He did not attempt, and indeed on set principle renounced, the composition of elaborate addresses. He did not, in the second place, owe much to the political circumstances of his time. In both these respects Scarlett stood in marked contrast to Erskine. The latter had all the gifts and graces of a born orator. His powers as a speaker are underrated, because of his supposed failure in the House of Commons. Lord Abinger's memoir disposes completely of the popular paradox that a man who could lead the bar was contemptible in the House:

"I admit," he writes, "that Erskine's success in the House of Commons was not equal to his reputation at the bar, for in that he surpassed all other men; but I am far from conceding that he had not a very great success. I have heard him several times when he spoke second only to Pitt and Fox, and commanded the profoundest attention. Certain it is," he adds, "that neither Mr. Pitt nor Mr. Fox nor Mr. Sheridan . . . ever excited a tear in any eye, or a strong movement of passion, in the House of Commons, whereas I have known the whole audience dissolved in tears at a speech of Erskine's, and many eager to press round him, and, as it were, to kiss the hem of his garment. To his parts as an orator he added those of a consummate actor. His eye, his countenance, the action of his limbs and body, were full of expression, elegance, and dignity. . . . I am satisfied that if one who had not understood the language had merely seen his action and heard the various tones and modulation of his voice, he could not but have experienced considerable pleasure and excitement from the exhibition."

If Erskine gained much from the bounty of nature, he also owed much to the era at which he appeared. From circumstances which will not soon recur, the juries of England represented at the end of the last century the democracy of the country unrepresented in Parliament. Erskine's great speeches were appeals to popular sentiment against an aristocratic government. He was a political leader whose field of warfare was the law courts. His talents were gifts which no training can secure. His position was open to no modern barrister. Scarlett, on the other hand, possessed the kind of talent of which every successful advocate must have at least a share, and his position was one which might now be filled by any barrister capable of filling it. His precepts, therefore, have a practical as well as theoretical importance. They will be found to be, as is the case with the elementary precepts in every art, simply the application of sound common sense to the attainment of the object which an advocate must propose to himself as his aim.

On the nature of this aim our instructor is as precise as any pupil can wish. An advocate's "sole object ought to be to persuade . . . twelve men to come to a specific conclusion." This precept is so obviously true that it may sound like a useless truism; but to have made it the fundamental principle of his advocacy is, it may be suspected, the source of half Scarlett's superiority as an advocate to men of equal or greater abilities. He was, clearly, constantly impressed with the danger of mistaking oratorical for forensic success. "An advocate," he writes, "must show that his mind is busied about nothing else" than his cause. "He must be always working upon the concrete, and pointing to his conclusion. He must disdain all jest, ornament, or sarcasm that does not fall directly in his way and seem to be so unavoidable that it must strike everybody who thinks of the facts. He must not look for a peg to hang anything upon, be it ever so precious or so fine."

This principle leads, when thoroughly apprehended, to much more than the mere rejection of rhetorical ornament. It leads, for example, at once to the conclusion that "the most essential part of speaking is to make yourself understood." Hence the immense importance of a clear statement of the case. "For this purpose it is absolutely necessary that the court and the jury should know as early as possible *de quâ re agitur*. It was my habit, therefore, to state, in the simplest form that the truth and the case would admit, the proposition of which I maintained the affirmative and the defendant's counsel the negative, and then, without reasoning upon them, the leading facts in support of my assertion. Thus it has often happened to me to open a cause in five minutes which would have occupied a speaker at the bar at the present day from half an hour to three-quarters of an hour or more." A generation who are oppressed by causes which last for months, and speeches which are measured not by hours but by weeks, may envy the days when three-quarters of an hour might be deemed a waste of time. But common sense suggests that Lord Abinger is right, and that brevity is as truly the soul of persuasion as of wit. He draws a further inference from his fundamental principle which may sound to most readers a paradox. "I learned," he writes, "by much experience, that the most useful duty of an advocate is the examination of witnesses, and that much more mischief than benefit generally results from cross-examination." This sentiment will shock the feelings of an intelligent public, who know law courts from the pictures of novelists, and hold the crowning triumph of advocacy to be the crushing of hostile witnesses under the weight of cross-examination. Yet no one who has watched actual trials can doubt both the difficulty of examination and the comparative inefficacy of cross-examination. To examine well is to lead an untrained witness to tell a complicated story with lucid clearness; and this is a task which is as difficult as when it is successfully achieved it appears not difficult. To cross-examine is to force the truth out of a mendacious witness. The process must constantly fail, first, because no art is always sufficient to force a deliberate liar to tell the truth, and, secondly, because in the vast majority of cases the witness is not mendacious. For once that an acute cross-examination compels a liar to tell the truth, a hundred instances could be given in which the question of an injudicious counsel clears up the confusion, and establishes the truthfulness of an honest witness. Nor in the fight between barrister and witness does the layman always come off the worst. "You are a clever fellow," said a counsel to an adverse witness; "I would gladly return the compliment if I were not upon oath," was the reply with which the witness brought the cross-examination to a speedy close. In advocacy, as elsewhere, it is of as much importance to know when to hold your tongue as when to speak; and the zealous cross-examiner is in constant peril of meeting with a rebuff which turns the feelings of the jury against him.

The principle that the aim of advocacy is to bring over twelve men to your opinion involves the necessity of subordinating every other consideration to the paramount object of conciliating the jury. Whoever wishes to know how adverse jurymen should be gained over should weigh well this description of Scarlett's behavior when he felt that the jury were impressed with the strength of his opponent's case: "I avoided all appearance of confidence, and endeavored to place the reasoning on my part in the clearest and strongest view, and to weaken that of my adversary; to show that the facts for the plaintiff would lead naturally but to one conclusion, while those of the defendant might be accounted for on other hypotheses; and when I thought I had gained my point, I left it to the candor and good sense of the jury to draw their own conclusion. This course seems to me not to be the result of any consummate art, but the plain and natural course which good sense would dictate." The dictates of the same good sense naturally suggested that to win over the judge was at least as necessary as to conciliate the jury. Skill in leading a judge by the nose is, to put it plainly, half of an advocate's talent, and in no part of advocacy did Scarlett shine more than in his treatment of judges. Lord Ellenborough, for example, must have been a difficult person to lead. "It was the turn of his mind to set himself in opposition

* 'Memoir of Lord Abinger. By the Hon. Peter Campbell Scarlett, C.B.' London: John Murray.

to the advocate who addressed him, and to endeavor to refute him as he went along; but when, upon hearing the evidence, he found more important facts than had been urged in his speech, his sagacity in discovering what had escaped the counsel achieved a triumph which . . . flattered his vanity and gave him something like the interest of a parent in the cause." "Before him," says Scarlett, "I soon found it necessary to allow him the merit of discovering the best parts of my case." It is easy to understand how the advocate who could thus humor Ellenborough's weakness can assert that "withal he was an excellent judge"; for to an advocate a good judge or a good jury means a judge or a jury easily influenced by his advocacy.

If Lord Abinger's memoir explains with singular clearness what is the art by which forensic victories are gained, it also tells, though indirectly, what are the qualities which go to make a great advocate. The rules of art are nothing as compared with the qualities of the artist. Lord Abinger, as he draws his own picture, shows clearly enough what were the characteristics that made him a master of advocacy. He was not a striking orator. He had good abilities, but his talents do not appear to have been in themselves extraordinary. He had not a touch of originality or of greatness. His political sagacity does not appear to have been unusual. Foes would probably say, even on the facts which appear in the memoir, that he ratted from his party because the Whigs had not duly appreciated his claims to promotion. The charity of readers may suggest that Scarlett understood the law courts much better than Parliament, and that his conservative type of Liberalism was naturally alarmed at a scheme of reform which looked like the commencement of a revolution. But no modern critic can believe that the acute advocate was more than a second-rate politician. Whenever, indeed, you take him off his own line, there is something almost humorous in the commonplace character of his views. "I recollect," writes his son, "to have heard him say, that independently of moral conviction there was sufficient circumstantial evidence of the truths of Christianity to convince any twelve unprejudiced and enlightened jurymen. This was his remarkable legal view of the question." What is in our eyes "remarkable" is that the great "thirteenth juryman," who had led judges and juries by the nose, should yet himself make his final standard of truth the verdict of twelve "unprejudiced and enlightened" gentlemen of the jury. Yet this very narrowness of view is closely allied with Scarlett's powers. His essential sympathy with sensible and commonplace views placed him in easy relations, so to speak, with the men he addressed. His highest quality was supreme good sense, and with this was allied a sagacity in seizing the characters and the weaknesses of other men which it may be suspected occasionally came near to cunning. His sense is shown both in his exact appreciation of his own talents and his clear view of the true aim of advocacy. His insight into character, if it were not apparent from his success in influencing others, might be inferred from the acuteness of his criticisms on celebrated men. If you take the precepts which he lays down, together with the sketch which he gives of himself, you may draw roughly, at least, a conclusion both as to the art of advocacy and as to the qualities required in an advocate. The art itself consists of the rules which sound common sense suggests for influencing the opinion of twelve men of neither more nor less than average intelligence. The persons who can follow these rules with success need not be great orators nor profound jurists, but must be men of sound judgment, who have their eyes about them, and have the keenness to observe and the sagacity to understand the sentiments and foibles of judges and juries.

THE EGYPTIAN PROVINCES OF CENTRAL AFRICA.*

MANY highly-colored and sensational stories of personal adventure and accident have recently emanated from Central Africa—narratives, startling perhaps to the ordinary reader, but indeed amazing to such persons as may be familiar with the dry facts. After reading those fantastically-conceived tales, it is refreshing to take in hand the official publication of the Egyptian General Staff. Early in the winter of 1874 Colonel C. G. Gordon, a distinguished officer of the British Royal Engineers, well known by his valuable services rendered to the Emperor of China in 1863–4, was appointed by the Khedive Governor-General of the Egyptian Provinces of the Equator. He was directed to continue the reconnoissance of the Upper Nile and the lake regions, to establish firmly regular and just government, to create facilities for the final establishment of legitimate commerce, and to destroy the slave bands throughout the provinces confided to his charge. The summary of letters and reports before us relates the progress of Colonel Gordon's work during the year 1874.

On the 21st of February Colonel Gordon left Cairo for the field of his labors *via* Suez, Suakim, Berber, and Khartum, having under his orders Lieutenant-Colonel Long and Lieutenant Hassan Wassif, of the General Staff, and a number of civil employees. At Khartum Colonel Gordon held a conference with Ismail Pasha Ayoub, the Governor-General of the Sudan, when it was decided that Fashoda should be the most southerly post on the White Nile remaining under the government of the Sudan, and beyond that to the south the whole Nile region was embraced in the Provinces of the Equator—an extent of territory larger than the entire portion of the United States east of the Mississippi river. On the 15th of April Colonel Gordon reached Gondokoro, thus accomplishing his journey from Cairo in fifty-four days, including a few days' sojourn at Khartum. Here he first met Colonel Raouf-Bey, commander of the Egyptian troops in those regions. The provinces in actual submission to the Khedive did not at this time amount to much, being merely the country near Gondokoro, where three hundred Sudan soldiers and one hundred and fifty Egyptian soldiers were quartered, and the country about Fatiko, occupied by two hundred Sudan soldiers.

Colonel Gordon caused the occupation of Bor, an important position to the north of Gondokoro, and ordered the immediate planting of *doorah*, thus avoiding the lack of food—the sole cause of wars with the negroes, who have never been known to commence attacks or to fight except in defence of their cattle.

At Gondokoro an embassy was received from M'tesa, king of Uganda, who sent presents of ivory and various articles of the manufactures of his country to the Khedive, and expressed his desire to be on friendly terms with the Egyptian Government. King M'tesa also requested that an ulema might be sent him, in order that he and his people might be instructed in the Koran. The negro prince, Rionga, also sent messengers desiring the friendship of the Khedive. Colonel Gordon requested the Egyptian Government to send from Cairo a good sheik, well versed in the Koran, for the instruction of M'tesa and his people, and recommended that suitable presents be sent to the king in the name of the Khedive. These requests were complied with.

Colonel Gordon returned to Khartum in order to hasten by his personal presence and exertions the transfer of supplies for future operations, and to put matters there and at Berber in such a state that he might be enabled to devote himself exclusively to his task in Central Africa without being again obliged to leave his provinces. On the 8th of June he left Khartum, accompanied by Major Campbell, who had in the meantime joined him at that place, and on the 19th he arrived at the mouth of the river Sobat, and there established a military post of from 30 to 40 men, for the purpose of arresting the passage down the Nile of boats of the slave-traders, and to put in force the Khedive's order to suppress utterly the slave-trade within the provinces entrusted to his charge. Colonel Gordon in a short time had liberated between five and six hundred slaves, and had assembled them at the Sobat station, where they were employed in cultivating the soil. As an instance of the manner in which attempts were made to elude his vigilance, he reported that two river boats belonging to the Government, and under his own authority, arrived at the station in August, descending the river. "They were laden, ostensibly, the one with ivory and the other with ebony. The cargoes belonged to a wealthy mercantile house of Khartum, and were consigned to the Khartum agency of that house. An inspection of these boats was made, and from beneath the ivory and ebony were drawn forth *ninety-six slaves.*" The poor wretches were immediately liberated, and the ivory and ebony confiscated.

Early in September Colonel Raouf-Bey, who had been for several years on duty in these regions, requested permission to visit Cairo. Colonel Gordon deemed it only a matter of justice that his request should be granted, and was thus deprived of the services of this excellent officer. Lieutenant-Colonel Long was absent on his mission to Uganda. Major Campbell, Mr. Auguste Linant, his private secretary, and Mr. Russell were all dangerously ill with fever; so that nearly all those upon whom Colonel Gordon would naturally rely for aid in his work were not at his disposal, and much of his time was taken up with the care he devoted to them. Nevertheless he was planning the establishment of water communication between his posts to replace the slow and expensive land transportation then necessary between his headquarters and all points to the south. "The project of utilizing the Nile for transportation south of Gondokoro," writes General Stone, "was a bold one; for up to that time it had been generally conceded (without sound rea-

* 'Publications of the Egyptian General Staff. Provinces of the Equator. Summary of Letters and Reports of His Excellency the Governor-General. Part I. Year 1874.' Cairo: Printing-Office of the General Staff. 1877.

sons) that the Nile to the south of Rageef to Duffli was impracticable." Admitting this theory for the moment, he sent a small steamboat in sections with Mr. Kemp, his English mechanical engineer, by land to Duffli, to have her there put together for service, deferring for a time the examination of the river between Rageef and Duffli. Abou Saoud, a man made notorious by his actions under Sir Samuel Baker, was appointed second in command, and entrusted with the important duty of attending to the details of the transportation of the steamboat alluded to, in which it was intended to navigate the Nile between the known rapids and Lake Albert. Colonel Gordon, wishing to avail himself of the thorough knowledge possessed by this former slave-dealer concerning the country, native tribes, and bands of slave-hunters employed by the traders, had good reason to suppose that the severe punishment already administered would have cured him of his former treachery. Abou Saoud did exceedingly well at first, and displayed great energy and intelligence. In the latter part of September, however, four of Colonel Gordon's European assistants out of six having died, the "condition of affairs proved too tempting for the newly-born virtue of Abou Saoud and the principal officers of the irregulars." These men had resolved to seize upon the government of the country. Colonel Gordon was too quick for them, however, and upon the earliest information of their design, Abou Saoud was arrested and sent as a prisoner to Khartum.

On the 1st of October Colonel Gordon wrote from Rageef, giving an account of his successful efforts to teach the natives the use of money :

"On the first day I paid the people for bringing straw for the construction of houses by means of a few beads. The custom has been to give nothing to the men, but to make a present to the sheik. This was a bad system, for the reason that the men who worked received nothing for their labor.

"The second day I gave a piece of money to each man employed, and then offered them beads in exchange for the money. By this they came to understand that a piece of copper money is worth so many beads.

"It is thus that I hope to break the feudal system of the sheiks. Let the negro once know that by his own labor he can earn money for himself, his subordination to his sheik will be weakened, and his attachment to the Government increased.

"The sheiks as yet perceive nothing of this, and are themselves now well pleased to receive money. To-day there came a sheik, bringing an elephant's tusk, for which he wished to get in exchange two bells for his cattle. I refused to give him bells, but offered him two dollars for it, which he accepted, and then I offered him the two bells for his two dollars, and he purchased them. Later in the day he brought in two more tusks to sell, and now I feel confident that we shall henceforth be able to purchase with money, and without difficulty, ivory, ebony, doorah, etc. It must be admitted that the former system here was the exact opposite of this."

It must be remembered that Sir Samuel Baker when in this place had to make raids to procure cattle and food.

On the 17th of November Lieutenants Watson and Chippindall, of the British Royal Engineers, arrived at Colonel Gordon's headquarters at Lardo, and reported to him for duty. They had temporarily resigned from the British army, and for the time being had taken service in the Egyptian army. The presence of these highly-instructed officers gave the Governor-General more liberty, and permitted him to devote himself to his appropriate duties—the organization and economic administration of his provinces. On the 15th of December he was enabled to forward to Cairo records of scientific observations made by these gentlemen. These records comprised the observations of the transit of Venus, December 9, 1874 ; meteorological observations taken on the White Nile, and the position of seven stations determined astronomically, viz., Fashoda, Sobat, Shambé, Cosis, Bor, Gondokoro, and Rageef. On the 15th of December Colonel Gordon announced that he had a large amount of ivory on hand, and that he had reason to hope that he should not only have enough to pay all the expenses of administration in the province, but that there would remain a surplus. He was also enabled to report the organization of governmental districts along the whole line south from the northern frontier of his province down to the Victoria Nile (the Somerset river of Speke)—a distance of about seven hundred miles.

With this letter closes the series of reports for the year 1874. The results of that year are briefly summed up by General Stone as follows :

"1st. The White Nile had been mapped with very considerable accuracy from Khartum to Rageef.

"2d. The slave-trade on the White Nile had received the deadliest blow ever yet dealt to it. This trade had been rendered so dangerous and so uncertain in its pecuniary results that no intelligent trader, however great his desire to engage in such traffic, would venture to do so while Colonel Gordon, or any man like him, should be there to carry into execution the precise orders of His Highness the Khedive for its prevention and suppression.

"3d. Confidence and peace had been established in all the region about Gondokoro ; and the tribes which nine months before had been so hostile and so watchful that food for the troops had to be obtained by transporting it from Khartum or by military raids—these tribes, now at peace between themselves and with the Government, gladly brought into the posts for sale their beef, their doorah, and their ivory.

"4th. The work of opening a line of water communication between Gondokoro and the great lakes had been seriously commenced and greatly advanced.

"5th. Communications had been opened between the Governor-General and M'tesa, the powerful chief who ruled the country of Uganda on the shores of Lake Victoria, and all doubt had been removed as to whether or not the stream which flows from Lake Victoria to Ripon Falls is in direct communication with the stream which pours its waters into Lake Albert near Magungo. The connection had been proved.

"6th. Governmental districts had been formed, and government organized from the northernmost limit of the provinces to Foweira, and communications between the distant posts and central station secured.

"7th. New expeditions for exploration and organization had been prepared, and were ready to commence their operations with the beginning of the new year."

The Khedive was so well satisfied with these results of nine months that Colonel Gordon was made a Ferik-Pasha (Lieutenant-General), and received the insignia of grand-officer of the Order of the Osmanieh.

The appendices to the publication contain Colonel Long's itinerary of his expedition from Gondokoro to King M'tesa and return, including the discovery of Lake Ibrahim ; and tables of the scientific observations made by Lieutenants Watson and Chippindall, of the Royal Engineers. The work contains two views of Gondokoro and several small sketch maps, and is printed at the printing-office of the General Staff at Cairo. We welcome it as the first serious narrative of the steps taken by the Khedive in the gigantic task of adding to his dominion and opening to the civilized world the vast empire which lies buried in Central Africa. Ceaseless toil and vigilance and the better part of the lives of many clear-headed and energetic men must be expended before perfect success can be attained. Time alone can demonstrate whether or no the efforts of General Gordon have been thus far exerted in vain. We also commend it as being the first of a series of publications which may give an insight into the labors of the Egyptian General Staff, an organization which claims our interest as being one of those which owes its birth and present usefulness to a distinguished graduate of our own Military Academy.

CUMBERERS OF THE GROUND.*

MR. DUGDALE'S pamphlet is an essay toward the illustration of this principle, as stated by himself : "that the whole question of crime, vice, and pauperism rests strictly and fundamentally upon a physiological basis, and not upon a sentimental or a metaphysical one." He does not discuss, however, what he calls somewhat vaguely "the whole question of crime, vice, and pauperism." For that enquiry properly includes at least three distinct questions, each one of sufficient importance in itself, and important, too, to be distinguished clearly from the others. The first is the old practical question which immediately concerns most of us—How can we best protect ourselves from the existing criminal and pauper ? The second is the philanthropist's question, How best to deal with the criminal when we have caught him—whether to punish him or to seek to reform him ? And third, the scientific question, perhaps even more important than the others, How to check the rapid multiplication of the diseased and vicious members of society—the predestinate paupers and criminals ? To this last enquiry less attention has been given for now a long time—since the time, indeed, when the "stirpicultural" laws of Lycurgus were in force—than might perhaps seem desirable. Mr. Dugdale deals at first hand with none of these questions, though he offers some criticism upon the second in our enumeration, the question of prison management. His enquiries have led him in another direction—to the study, namely, of the growth of crime and of criminals. The main causes of that growth he considers under the classes of "heredity" and "environment." "Heredity and environment," he says, "are the parallels between which the whole question of crime and its treatment stretches, and the objective point is to determine how much crime results from heredity, how much from environment." This determination he seeks by "viewing the career of individuals, and recording the facts of each life in chronological order." His observations were made in the prisons and poor-houses of this state, and also, more particularly, upon a number of paupers and criminals, connected by descent and by more or

* 'The Jukes : A Study in Crime, Pauperism, Disease, and Heredity. By R. L. Dugdale.' New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877. 8vo, pp. 117.

less legitimate marriage relations, who have cumbered the ground in one of the central counties of New York for six or seven generations.

Their class is a familiar one: most of us who have lived in a New England village remember the "town loafer" as vividly, perhaps, as the squire or the "general" himself; and Mr. Dugdale has studied a large number of town loafers from a somewhat unusual point of view, namely, the genealogical. He has counted the unrighteousness of their generations with not less zeal than the squire or the "general" might display in tracing his own descent from the early Puritans, and has recorded here the lineage, the relationships, and the main facts in the edifying careers of seven hundred members and more of this misbegotten family, to which he gives the pseudonym of "The Jukes." The student of social pathology will not often find a more instructive collection of brief biographies than these. Thus, on the first of Mr. Dugdale's charts he has tabulated "the illegitimate posterity of Ada Juke"—this Ada, by the way, being the person of whom considerable mention has been made of late under the name of "Margaret, the mother of criminals." The following are fair examples of the fortunes of her progeny: "At 12, mother dies; poorhouse 4 years; 17, county jail; 18, petty larceny, 30 days; loafer; syphilis; no property; laborer." Of another descendant it is recorded that he was a "mason; excellent workman; idle; in middle life an habitual drunkard; deserted wife and children, and took up with A. B.; thief, though never caught; trained his children to crime; father, of good family and well off; his brother swindled him out of his property; 1850, out-door relief, 2 years; 1852, died; town burial." Mr. Dugdale computes that this particular family of *mauvais sujets* has cost the State since 1800 more than a million dollars.

Contrasting the traits of pauperism and of crime, he has some good remarks. Pauperism is generally, he says, "an indication of weakness," of "waning vitality." The word "laziness" does not explain it; for laziness is "a state which may be the result of twenty causes," pathological or other. Pauperism is caused in the main by deficient intellectual power, itself often the result of disease. Crime, on the other hand, "is the misdirection of faculty."

"The ideal pauper is the idiotic adult who never could and never will be able to help himself. . . . The ideal criminal is a courageous man in the prime of life who so skilfully commits crime on a large scale that he escapes detection, and succeeds in making the community believe him to be honest. [A sufficiently large class.] And between these two extremes there are endless gradations, . . . till at last you reach a class who are too weak to be dangerous criminals and too strong to be almshouse paupers; they form the bulk of the tools who execute what others plan, and . . . of those who are found in prison during their youth and prime, and in the poorhouse in their old age."

"With true criminals, pauperism occurs either in old age or in childhood." During the prime of life, when the will-power is at its highest, a criminal may abandon crime and earn his living; and, later in life, when the will grows weaker, he may revert to his early habits of crime. It is easier to reclaim a criminal than a pauper, because the latter, being generally "undervitalized," is comparatively untrainable. But it is hard to reform a real criminal. A jail-bird said to Mr. Dugdale: "A thief, *if he is a thief*, when he is going through the street, takes a thing if he has a chance, no matter how much money he has, for he'll never have that chance again." *Qui a bu boira.* And, by the way, Mr. Dugdale tells us that the importance of intemperance, as a cause of crime and pauperism, is much overrated by current opinion. That it is a serious cause is not doubted; but it is by no means the most serious, and the temperance agitation, he adds, has taken on a partisan character which interferes with the proper study of the subject. Even the main witnesses in the matter, the criminals themselves, have learned to protest, "with great gravity, . . . 'It wasn't me, it was rum did it.'"

But how does Mr. Dugdale propose to deal with these disintegrating social forces of crime and pauperism? In "industrial training" he finds the proper method of repressing them; the offspring of criminal parents should be subjected to "something like general training of the faculties. . . . Reform schools must inform and develop the senses of touch, hearing, sight, smell, and taste, so that the mind shall be filled with the knowledge of things." Through industrial training, he thinks, "the mental attributes will gradually develop, æsthetic tastes take the place of debauchery, and a new social equilibrium be established." This is a pleasing view; but it need hardly be said that those methods have been tried by the strongest governments and by the most philanthropic communities and found insufficient. And even with methods tenfold more effective than our present ones, mere instruction would still prove nugatory so long as the multiplication of the criminal constitution goes on. How to check the multiplication of the diseased and vicious would seem the more important question, but it is one which we must not enter upon here. Of the special reforms more urgently needed in our prison system Mr. Dugdale speaks advisedly, and he urges especially the abolition of congregate imprisonment. This system makes of each jail a college for the propagation of crime, providing a full corps of expert criminals as professors, and large classes of apt and zealous students. "The experience of other nations has demonstrated," he says, "that two years of separate imprisonment has more effect in checking crime than ten years of congregate imprisonment."

We cannot leave Mr. Dugdale's little book without noting, in the interest of the general reader, its unusual crudeness in manner, and often, indeed, in thought. We have seldom found a more trying book to read; it is given to few persons to write so ingeniously bad a style. The note of that style is struck in the preface by Dr. Elisha Harris, who has a constitutional difficulty in calling a spade a spade; and Mr. Dugdale, following his example, seems to think that of any two given words the longest is clearly the best. He even uses phrases that are illiterate, as in his frequent mention of "a discrete strata" of convicts. As to the quality of his thinking, we have quoted his best. Among its inferior flights we may find, gravely announced as the result of special studies, such conclusions as the following: "In view of this it is safe to say that the tendency of marriage is to extinguish prostitution." Or, again: "The pauperism of childhood is an accident of life rather than a hereditary characteristic"! We have called Mr. Dugdale's book hard reading, and such it is; but we must admit that it "combines instruction and entertainment" in a way which is, to say the least, unusual.

Thomas de Quincey: his Life and Writings, with unpublished correspondence. By H. A. Page, author of 'Memoir of Hawthorne,' etc. 2 vols. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.)—It cannot be said of De Quincey that he "praised other names but left his own unsung," for his earlier books were autobiographical, and his delightful 'Literary Reminiscences,' giving the best pictures yet recorded of the society of the Lake poets, give equally graphic indirect glimpses of the author. But the best autobiography needs a biography by its side to eke out its deficiencies and give the man as he seemed to others; and this memoir by Mr. Page errs only on the side of excess, as a good memoir should. The writer gives too many documents, and perhaps too many letters; since a few of these would have shown, as well as many, the thoroughly kind and domestic qualities of the man. But for his daughter, however, Mrs. Baird Smith, whose graphic reminiscences are here freely used, we should never have known half of De Quincey's whims and oddities—peculiarities so great that opium-eating seems merely the commonplace beginning of the series. Fancy the inconveniences attendant on a habit which was technically called in the family "papering" his study! Omnivorous as a reader, and infinitely various as a writer, he naturally made an immense number of pencilled memoranda. These he immediately deposited in piles on the floor. The floor was gradually covered; soon there was no chair that could be sat upon, no table on whose corner a tea-cup could be placed; the bed could no longer be slept in, and nothing remained but a narrow path leading from the door to the fireside, between the piles of paper. At last this also was closed, and then he adopted the most extraordinary measure of relief ever tried by an embarrassed author: he coolly locked the door of the room, took possession of another, and proceeded to "paper" floor, chairs, table, and bed in a manner equally hopeless. Thus proceeding from room to room, he had actually, at one period, six different rooms rendered "no thoroughfare" by papering.

Warned by this experience, his daughter, on finally taking possession of a new house, assigned to him one large room for his private and permanent occupation, with the agreement on his part—for he was the most amiable of men—that every scrap of paper he laid down in any part of the house should at once be transported to this one den of chaos. To this room he had recourse every night, after sitting with his family till ten. He was not a consoling housemate, apparently, for a timid person, as there was seldom an evening when he did not set something on fire, usually his hair, brought in too close contact with the candle. A daughter would casually remark: "Papa, your hair is on fire," on which he would extinguish it with his hand without interference with the reading. On one occasion the sacred den itself caught fire; the housemaid took the alarm and terrified the family; it was winter and all waterpipes were frozen, but at last the proprietor of the room appeared, and, locking

himself in with a large rug, spent several hours in fighting the flames, with final success obtained by burnt fingers. As he speaks more than once in his letter of spending the whole night in searching with a candle for a missing piece of proof-sheet, the only wonder is that the evils of "papering" did not often cure themselves through the wholesome instrumentality of fire.

It was De Quincey's theory that the ordinary chronological style of biography was most dreary reading. "One is so certain of a man's having been born, and also of his having died, that it is dismal to be under the necessity of reading it. That he married—that in the fulness of time he was hanged, or (being a humble, unambitious man) that he was content with deserving it—these little circumstances are so naturally to be looked for . . . that any one life becomes in this respect the echo of thousands" (II. p. 11). This accounts for the fragmentary way in which he has written of himself, and for the lingering traces of the same thing in Mr. Page's book. Add to this a good deal of De Quincey's own habit of endless episode, and we have the chief defect of the book. But it has very great merits; and even its collateral excursions may be supposed to contribute toward that ideal work of De Quincey's conceiving—a work for which, no doubt, his most out-of-the-way pile of paper might furnish some valuable material—'The History of the Unborn'!

One of the most valuable portions of the book is "A Medical View of Mr. De Quincey's Case," by Surgeon-Major W. C. B. Eatwell. He advances the theory—for the first time, so far as we know—that many of the results attributed by De Quincey to opium were actually the result of a severe form of gastric neuralgia, called *gastrodynia*. It seems that this disease is peculiarly common in Bengal, where Dr. Eatwell once served, and that its specific remedy is opium. After a careful examination of the evidence, this surgeon is of opinion that the disease was developed in De Quincey by unhealthy living in early life, and that the effect of opium was, in his case, rather beneficial than injurious. "I came to the conclusion," he says, ". . . that whatever might have been the degree of abuse of opium, this drug had in reality been the means of preserving and prolonging life" (II. p. 310). This suggestion aids in promoting that kindlier feeling toward De Quincey which it is the tendency of the whole book to create. It is impossible not to love him in his home relations, and to admire his extraordinary powers and attainments; it is impossible to close the book without keen regret that his vast and varied knowledge and his wealth and delicacy of style could not have been concentrated on some single work which would have been a worthy monument to his name.

The Cyclopædia of Education. A Dictionary of Information for the Use of Teachers, School Officers, Parents, and others. Edited by Henry Kiddle, Superintendent of Public Schools, New York City, and Alexander J. Schem, Assistant Superintendent. (New York: E. Steiger. 1877.)—The scope of this work can most briefly be indicated by enumerating some of the articles: School Age, School Furniture; Co-education, Female Education, Higher Education of Women; Corporal Punishment, Expulsion; Hygiene, Eye, Voice; Coach; Delphin Classics; Geology, Geometry, History; Bible; Normal Schools, License, Diploma; Massachusetts, Ecuador, Rumania; Lafayette College, University of Pennsylvania, London University; Ascham, Milton, Goethe, Pestalozzi, Guizot; Mann, Wayland, S. G. Howe, Nott, Cyrus Peirce, Josiah Holbrook, Geo. B. Emerson, Peet, Gallaudet; Baptists, Friends, Mennonites, etc., etc. Decidedly the two particulars in which this Cyclopædia is distinct from others, and distinctly valuable, are its educational statistics of the leading countries of the world, of the several States of the Union, and of cities whose population exceeds 100,000, and its short account of the origin, growth, and present condition of all our American and of many foreign colleges and universities. We should include also the description of the several religious denominations from the educational point of view. The facts thus presented cannot be found so readily elsewhere, and some of them not at all without laborious research. In all other classes of articles we may say that this Cyclopædia has no claims to superiority over the best biographical dictionaries, gazetteers, and conversation-lexicons. For instance, Italian Language, French Language, etc., are treated better and more fully in 'Appleton's Encyclopædia.' Nevertheless, the bibliographical references often atone for mediocrity of treatment, in the case especially of the pedagogic articles and those relating to school management. Some of the contributors are scholars of weight and standing; the majority have a certain local authority, but their names would not generally be recognized outside their several States or institutions.

Mr. Higginson's summary of the rise and progress of popular education in Rhode Island may be selected as the best type of its class, both for the historical knowledge displayed and for the literary skill with which the writer has set it forth. The article is readable enough to serve as an appendix to Professor Greene's 'Short History of Rhode Island,' which we lately noticed, and which would be the better for such an addition. What we then said, by the way, concerning the cause of Rhode Island's backwardness is confirmed by the following passage from Mr. Higginson, which we had not then seen:

"Finally, there was no such powerful body of clergymen as existed in Massachusetts, sustaining by potent influence the whole system of schools. There was, on the contrary, a strong reaction against this clerical influence, and against the traditional institutions of Massachusetts and Connecticut."

The striking defects of this work, apart from its quality, are such as spring from want of plan, proper classification, or unity in the editing. Thus, among American colleges Vassar is included, Smith College (which we were taught to believe ranked with Harvard) is omitted, for no apparent reason. Girard College is expressly ruled out as an orphan asylum, and for that reason, we suppose, no article is assigned to Girard himself, although Peabody is admitted. Astor, again, is slighted, as if libraries were extraneous to the "Education" contemplated by the title of this Cyclopædia. John Harvard is mentioned, who gave a library to a college already founded; so is Elihu Yale; Bishop Berkeley's contribution to the cause of education in this country is not recognized. Franklin's writings, his share in founding the University of Pennsylvania, the medal which he instituted for the Boston schools, would seem to entitle him to pass for an educator; but he is passed by. Gall has an article, but Spurzheim, though his grave is in this country, has none. The line between living and deceased educators is not clearly drawn, nor between educators and non-educators. For example, beginning with the living, A. Bronson Alcott, Henry Barnard, Dio Lewis, A. Guyot, and Mark Hopkins are, more or less deservedly, allowed a place; so is Prof. J. D. Dana, as if for his valuable text-books, yet not Prof. Gray, whose text-books in another branch of science are held in similar esteem. In like manner, Prof. Peirce's title seems as good as Prof. Davies's. An energetic president of the University of Nashville, Philip Lindsley (the account of whom, by the way, is copied literally from Drake), is remembered—we will not say superfluously; but can he be imagined to have rendered educational services equal to those of President Sparks or President Quincy, of Harvard; or of George Bancroft, who was a teacher at Round Hill before he was an historian? More curious, perhaps, is the omission of Noah Webster, apparently under a ruling as to dictionary-makers like that applied to the founders of libraries. Yet his Speller, still a mine of wealth to the proprietors, might have saved him. However, he suffers in company with Dr. Johnson and Walker and Smart, who are all relegated to the article Dictionary, although by some freak Richardson has an article to himself. Another American worthy, Jedediah Morse, is excluded, whereas "Peter Parley" is welcomed along with Woodbridge. Buttmann the editors know, but Zumpt they know not. Mrs. Barbauld and Maria Edgeworth perhaps call for Ann and Jane Taylor, but in vain, though their brother Isaac gets in.

Some of the catch-titles are very vague and abstract, like Industry. Any one wishing to find a discussion of the marking system must look for it under Emulation, without a cross-reference. We conclude by recurring to libraries, the article on which is meagre in the extreme, being chary of figures, and without a single allusion by name to the great libraries of the country. We find in it this mistaken doctrine as to school libraries:

"The books should be instructive and interesting to children, so that through their perusal they may not only obtain useful information, but imbibe a taste for reading."

The writer takes no account of the wasteful experiments in this direction which many States have made, and which have been thoroughly exposed in a pamphlet, not ten years old, on the 'Daily Public School in the United States.' It is, in fact, the teacher who needs the library, which should therefore consist mainly or altogether of books of reference. The periodicals, and the public and circulating libraries, will furnish the scholars all the reading that they require.

Ueber deutsche Volksetymologie. Von Carl Gustav Andresen. (New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—This little volume of 150 pages, with its modest title, treats of a subject which it is strange should not have received more attention than it has. It is true, the very first article of the first num-

ber of Kuhn's *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung* was on this subject, written by E. Förstemann. Max Müller and Dean Trench have also touched upon it. But it was never fully treated until Prof. Andresen announced a course of lectures upon it in Bonn, and published this book, which has just appeared in a second edition somewhat enlarged. Two editions within less than a year show with what interest and appreciation the work was received, not only by the linguist but also by the public.

The first 14 pages treat of the subject in general—"Volksetymologie," or "popular etymology." Etymology has for its object the origin and history of words, and is the basis of all philology, which is by no means an exact science nor even a physical science, as some would have us believe. Its methods are those of an historical science. Its agencies are most subtle. Nowhere is enthusiasm more mischievous. Now, if etymology is the most important and difficult task of the philologist, what must we expect when the people attempt it? *Popular* etymology might be defined as *false* etymology, which affects word-making and effects word-changes. The philologist's false etymology, on the other hand, leads to a useless result which has no influence upon the language of the people. Since so many words owe their forms and existence to popular etymology it may well be considered a branch of the science of language. The question *how* we etymologize, the author tries to answer by the one expression, assimilation, understanding by this the transformation of a word, or part of a word, into another which is like it at least in form or sound. Take, *e.g.*, the German class-room's old orthodox etymology of *Sündfluth* (Deluge). The word looks as if compounded of *Sünde* and *Fluth*, the flood that came on account of sin. But *Sünd*, Luther wrote as *Sindfluth*. Earlier it was *Sintfluot* and *Sinfluot*. *Sin*, now out of use, meant 'great, lasting,' as in *Singrün*, 'evergreen.' *Sinfluth* means the 'great flood.' The reason *why* we etymologize the author finds in the linguistic consciousness, "*Sprachbewusstsein*, which objects to a name that has an empty sound, and strives to give it a special meaning and an unmistakable intelligibility." There is no doubt that this attempt to explain words that are going out of use, whose meaning is not transparent, and foreign words, is quite natural to us; *e.g.*, causeway for causey, from Norman French *calsay*, Latin (*via*) *calciata*. But this is not the only reason. The explanation is, as a rule, false, unsatisfactory, and senseless. What sense is there in cause-way, craw-fish, etc.? But there need be no sense: the effort of the mind to explain is unconscious and instinctive. It is not so much the mind or "linguistic consciousness" as the ear that is watching for familiar and intelligible sounds, especially in foreign words. Love of euphony,—*i.e.*, ease of utterance—seems to us one of the causes of popular etymology that the author does not consider—*e.g.*, a "Welsh rabbit" for "rare-bit." Again, caprice and accident ought to be allowed their due influence. Of course, intentional and forced changes and adaptations of words, such as occur in satirical and witty authors, do not come under our author's consideration. One class of words he treats of separately, namely, those which have arisen from what he calls "vulgäre Volksetymologie"—*e.g.*, "vermost" for "famos," "rattekahl" for "radical." Not a few of these are collected, which though interesting, as they show the ingenuity of the popular mind, are not received into the written language. The same principle is at work in other languages, as the author shows by many examples, pages 14–27, though in German and English more than in any other. Why, he does not say.

The rest of the book consists of German words from the three periods of the language, a few from Old High German, more from the Middle High German, the bulk from modern German. In this collection of about two thousand words lies the chief value of the book. Professor Andresen invites additions from everybody. It would be easy to take exception to some of the explanations, but on the whole he is cautious and sober-minded. The classification of the words according to meaning into proper names, appellatives, verbs, adjectives, exclamations, etc., was not the lightest task. Proper names are the most numerous, abstract nouns the fewest. The material is not only valuable, but is also made serviceable by the complete alphabetical list of words at the end.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 2, 1877.

The Week.

NO important railroads were affected by the strike in addition to those mentioned by us last week, the crisis being reached probably on Wednesday, when the firemen on the New Jersey division of the Pennsylvania road decided not to strike. On Thursday the New York Central hands resumed work without any formal action, and the strikers at Hornellsville on the Erie road were persuaded by the people of the town to give up the contest. As the men on the eastern division of this road had from the beginning refused to strike, two great through-lines, on which but little mob violence had occurred, were thus thrown open. In Chicago there was rioting until Thursday, when several lives were lost, and also at St. Louis and Peoria, with less serious consequences. On Friday the Pittsburgh & Fort Wayne strikers surrendered the road, of which they had held undisputed possession for several days, but, as we go to press, have not abated their demand for increased wages. The Governor of Pennsylvania started out with a large force of soldiers on Thursday to open the Pennsylvania road, which he succeeded in doing as far as Pittsburgh by Saturday. By Monday of the present week, or just two weeks from the time of its first outbreak, the strike was virtually at an end, although sporadic manifestations of it still continue, especially among the Pennsylvania miners. The strike did not reach New England or the South, with the exception of a road in Texas.

In the suppression of the strike three distinct agencies have of course combined with very different and unequal effects—viz., the regular forces of Government, including the police and State and national soldiers; the railroad companies; and the influence of public opinion, as expressed chiefly by the newspapers. The first of these, except perhaps in the State of New York and the city of Philadelphia, has been nearly everywhere lamentably deficient; and even in these places neither police nor soldiers were able to cope with the mob with sufficient promptness and vigor. In Pennsylvania it cannot be said even yet, after more than two weeks of preparation, that the authorities have full control of the State, and this is true not only of the mining regions, where they are almost powerless, but also of some of the large towns along the railroad lines. So far as proclamations could go the authorities have generally done all that was necessary, although some of the mayors of cities evinced a disposition to temporize with the mobs; but hardly anywhere was the force at command adequate to put down riot. We have discussed this point elsewhere, however, and the necessity of greater force at the command of the authorities will hereafter be universally recognized. A decided quickening of the public judgment, moreover, will ensue if all the places in which riots took place are held accountable pecuniarily for the destruction of property.

The action of the railroad companies themselves has been in many instances very far from commendable. Several of the leading Western roads, as mentioned last week, either prevented threatened strikes by withdrawing notices of intended reduction of wages, or else acceded at once to the strikers' demands, or assented to some form of compromise—actions almost sure to be followed by disastrous consequences hereafter. On the Eastern roads there have been few direct compromises, or none at all. On the New York Central the strikers, numbering about 500 out of a total of 12,000 employees, will be discharged, and a gratuity of $100,000 divided among the rest. On the Erie and Baltimore & Ohio roads, however, strikers who were not guilty of destructive violence but who simply assented to the strike, or were at least not leaders in it, have been allowed apparently to resume work at former wages. On the Pennsylvania road the strikers thus far appear to have been for the most part ignored, and trains are moved by a transfer of hands from non-striking divisions of the road or by the substitution of new men, of whom there has been no lack at any time, provided the companies could give them protection from violence.

The press is deserving of decided commendation. Almost every influential paper in the country placed itself at once and unequivocally upon the side of law and order, and it cannot be doubted that newspaper comments on the strike from day to day did a great deal to suppress popular excitement and to prevent injurious compromises with rioters. At one time, for instance, in this city, considerable alarm was felt concerning a meeting of labor-reformers, professed socialists, and people with bees in their bonnets generally, which had been called in Tompkins Square, a dangerous quarter of the city; but the press, by persistent ridicule and by warning all decent people to stay away, did a great deal to make it a complete failure. To the influence of the press in this instance, however, must be added the fact that the would-be agitators knew that a strong and well-organized police force, backed by the militia under arms, was ready to act promptly if necessary. There were no parties to divide the newspapers, as at the time of the uprising here in 1863. Various demands of the dangerous classes also—like the demand at St. Louis that the Governor should call a special session of the Legislature to revise the labor laws of the State; the address of the Central Council of Labor Reformers to the President, urging him to take possession of the railroads unless the officers of the roads agreed to compromise with the strikers; the speech of a demagogical Congressman, Hendrick B. Wright, in which he declared his intention of asking Congress for $10,000,000 to be divided among laboring men, etc.—have all been met by the newspapers with much healthy argument and ridicule.

The effect of the railroad strikes and labor troubles on the Wall-Street market for shares and securities of the railroads was precisely the reverse of what any one capable of reasoning would have concluded it would be. Instead of a large decline in prices as the result (1) of a direct loss to the companies of a week's traffic or more, which cannot be fully recovered, and (2) the loss of a large amount of property destroyed by the strikers, which can be recovered, but not without waiting on the slow processes of litigation, and (3) of the loss of whatever would have been saved by the reduction in wages—for it is probable that all the companies will, so soon as they can do it consistently with self-respect, advance wages—instead, we say, of the decline which should have followed these losses, there was actually an advance in prices. It is evident, therefore, that there were reasons unknown to the public which gave this turn to the stock market. The controlling reason was that nearly every large speculator of means was, when the strikes came like a thunderbolt in a clear sky, a large holder of railroad shares, which had been acquired on the theory that large crops and a foreign market for the exportable surplus would cause a general improvement in trade, and particularly in the carrying business. Accordingly, when the news of the strikes and of their rapid extension was received, these speculators were forced to sustain the market by additional purchases, to the end that the public might, from the course of prices, infer that, after all, "it was not much of a shower"—nothing, in fact, which should so shake the confidence of investment holders as to induce them to sell, or even prevent them from buying more. The coal stocks, for no better reasons than that the strikes of the miners are likely to continue, and that the mines have in several cases been flooded, were advanced, as if the companies can be benefited by an advance in the value of their coal product when that is cut off and the mines injured for future production,

The only possible advantage to the companies will come from the advance in the price of coal mined and ready for market, which, while considerable in itself, is comparatively inconsiderable.

That there was for a time general apprehension of a widespread revolt of labor, and a disorganization of the relations of labor and capital, was shown by the rush to buy gold, which went up to 106⅛—a large rise in these times. When it was ascertained that the strikers were being brought under control, and that the communistic demonstration at Tompkins Square was a contemptible failure, the gold bought as a safe refuge for idle money was sold, and the price fell back to 105¼. For a few days trade was almost suspended, and the foreign trade was as nearly as possible brought to a dead halt. The receipts of Western produce were interrupted, and with few or no foreign exports the supply of commercial bills was cut off, and the market for sterling exchange advanced, only, as was the case with gold, to fall off again. Even the rate for money temporarily advanced from 1 to 4 per cent. United States bonds were less affected than other securities, although 4 per cent. bonds could not be sold at the subscription price.

The second report of the Custom-house Commission, dated July 4, but only made public a few days ago, confirms what every one knew before it was made—viz., that the Custom-house has been managed as a political and not as a business concern, and that consequently a large percentage of its employees are for various reasons unfit for the services nominally expected of them. In invoices returned from various divisions to the appraiser's department, for instance, are found upon an average nearly 800 errors per month, and in the single item of the accounts of the liquidation of vessels the Naval Office is said to discover errors enough to bring in to the Government, when corrected, $1,500,000 per annum. As regards economy of management, the Commission quotes some statistics of the Chamber of Commerce showing that in Great Britain, in 1874, the expense of collecting the customs was about $5,000,000 as against $7,000,000 in this country, although the total value of our imports and exports was about one-third that of Great Britain. The Secretary of the Treasury approves the report of the Commission, including their reform recommendations, and writes to Mr. Arthur a corresponding letter of directions.

Subsequently to the report of the Commission Mr. Arthur addressed to the Secretary of the Treasury a letter intended apparently to annul or weaken the effect of the statement of the Chamber of Commerce with reference to the extravagant cost of collection of our customs. For this purpose he makes use of some statistics collected by Mr. J. S. Moore, showing that the ratio of the cost of collection to the amount collected of customs is less in the United States than in any of the five chief commercial countries of Europe. Mr. Moore's figures are presumably correct, but Mr. Arthur, in making use of them, quietly assumes that they show the expense of collecting customs revenue to be less in proportion to the amount of *imports*—a very different statement, which is not at all true. Our average tariff is not less than 30 per cent.; that of Great Britain is 5 per cent., and as it costs nothing, or but very little, more to collect $6 than $1, our ratio of cost to amount should, other things being equal, be very much less than that of Great Britain—hardly one-sixth, indeed. As matter of fact, however, it is only a fraction of one per cent. less.

The Ohio Democrats have adopted a platform which declares essential to free government, among other things, home rule; separation of church and state; liberty of individual action unvexed by sumptuary laws; a strict construction of the Constitution; supremacy of civil over military power; equality of all citizens before the law; and opposition to all subsidies. The resolutions assert that a repetition of the fraud by which Hayes was elected will not be tolerated; that "the destruction of the industry of the country and the pauperizing of labor are the inevitable fruits of the vicious laws enacted by the 'Republican party'"; demand the immediate repeal of the Resumption Act; denounce the demonetization of silver, and demand its restoration "to monetary power"; favor "the retention of greenback currency as the best paper money we have ever had, and declare against any further contraction"; favor a tariff for revenue; and "favor the issue by the general Government alone of all circulating medium, whether paper or metallic, to be always of equal tender and interconvertible." The money resolutions, put together, are a burlesque upon financial principles. No contraction; no resumption; greenbacks, gold, and silver to be made equal legal tenders and interconvertible by act of Congress, present a financial policy worthy of bedlam, and far beneath the possible suggestions of "A Japanese Traveller." The labor resolution not only justifies our last week's prophecy, but, remembering that when it was adopted Columbus was virtually in the hands of a mob, converts political cant into inexcusable wickedness.

The Republican convention is assembling at Cleveland as we go to press. There seems to be a good deal of mystification about the intentions of candidates, and ex-Attorney-General Taft, who has withdrawn his name in the most explicit manner, is nevertheless regarded as likely to receive the nomination. His supporters are credited with the puerile desire to honor and reward in this manner his defence to the last of Grant's Southern policy, even after Grant himself had abandoned it as hopeless; in return for it they will allow the convention to pass an equivocal vote of confidence in President Hayes. This child's-play, we need hardly say, has no interest for the country at large, whose chief concern is about the financial soundness of the Administration party in the President's native State. But our readers will know their action at the same time that they receive our present issue.

Another illustration of the failure of the President's "policy" has occurred — this time in Shelby County, Kentucky. Brown, "a graduate of Eminence College, and a member of Christiansburg Baptist Church," mark you, "well beloved and respected in his section," had a quarrel about a burlesque of a boys' fight in a local paper with Graut, a "well-to-do and highly-respected farmer." After some angry words, knowing that Hayes would not interfere, they borrowed pistols and met on a railroad track, and emptied their respective weapons into each other, and then closed and pounded each other with the butt-ends. They were then laid side by side on the station platform with mortal wounds, while waiting for the doctors, and here Graut used his dying breath to swear at Brown, and express a desire to get at him once more. Comment on this is needless. It is true that Kentucky is not one of the reconstructed States, but the ex-rebels have the same spirit in it as elsewhere, "and the policy" will work the same mischief. If there had been even two companies of troops in the State-house, who supposes that a "well-beloved and respected" church-member would engage in a savage duel on a railroad track?

The mills of the gods have ground somewhat slowly in the case of the disreputable brood of politicians who fastened upon South Carolina, and no one will now be discomposed at any likelihood of their grinding "exceeding small." When Mr. Pike wrote his 'Prostrate State,' the case of South Carolina seemed a hopeless one, and and it is with pleasurable feelings that all friends of decent government must now receive the news that ex-Governor Moses has been arrested on the charge of issuing fraudulent pay-certificates when Speaker of the House in 1872; that ex-Treasurer Cardoza has been indicted for making payments out of money not appropriated for the purpose; and that warrants have been issued for the arrest of other members of the same shameless ring. Gov. Nicholls, of Louisiana, it is said, has announced his intention of pardoning the members of the Returning Board, if convicted, on the absurd ground that at the time of the settlement of the Louisiana difficulties it was understood that men were not to be prosecuted for past political differences.

We do not doubt that Moses, Cardoza, and their fellows will also apply for pardon in the interests of "peace and reconciliation," but we sincerely hope Gov. Hampton will not be induced by sentimental motives to take them from behind prison bars if the legislative committee which has been examining their career can only furnish evidence enough to put them there.

Since Gen. Howard's engagement with Joseph on the 11th of July there have been almost no hostilities in Idaho, but the intentions of the Indians are far from being discovered, and the excitement throughout that Territory and Montana still continues. Gen. Howard with a superior force attacked 300 Nez-Percés in a deep cañon between the head of the Cottonwood and the south fork of the Clearwater. He captured the enemy's camp after a severe contest, in which the Indians, as he himself reports, "fought as well as any troops I ever saw." Our losses were at least as large as theirs, and amounted to eleven men killed, and two officers and twenty-four men wounded. On the 13th the pursuit was renewed, and on the 15th Gen. Howard was about crossing the Clearwater 20 miles below Kamiah to cut the Lolo trail, when he was recalled by a messenger from Joseph on the pretence of a desire to surrender. This proved a mere ruse to gain time in the retreat. Since then Gen. Howard has gone to Fort Lapwai, where he is organizing a force of five thousand men for a final blow, while Joseph has pitched his camp on the middle fork of the Clearwater, uncomfortably near Pierce City, but in a good position for retreat by the Bitter Root or a return to the late field of operations about the Cottonwood. To say the least, his movements towards the buffalo country are not precipitate. A small force of regulars from Montana, entrenched in the Bitter-Root valley on the Lolo trail, was unable to hinder Looking-Glass and his band from passing round them on the way to the Big-Hole valley, while a volunteer force hastening to the latter point to intercept them was ordered back by the Governor of Montana as insufficient for the purpose. We may say, therefore, that the non-treaties have thus far inflicted as much damage as they have received, and have at the most been put upon the defensive. We have endeavored elsewhere to fix the responsibility for the sacrifice of so many precious lives and the expenditure of so much money in a bad cause.

The Ridsdale decision in England has been followed by some curious casuistry. It was to be expected, of course, that many of the Ritualist "priests" who were affected by the decision would endeavor in some way to conform to it, and thus to retain their livings, and at the same time to satisfy their consciences. Mr. Ridsdale himself has got out of the scrape in a most ingenious way. He sent a letter to the Archbishop of Canterbury informing him that he could not in conscience obey the decision of the Court. Nevertheless, he added, if the archbishop would grant him a dispensation he would conform to the judgment for the time being, or until it could be overruled by some higher tribunal, an event of which there is no present prospect whatever. What is most strange is that the archbishop actually granted the required dispensation, thus recognizing himself as in some sort the keeper of the consciences of his subordinates. Subsequently, when questioned with regard to his action in the House of Lords, he made an explanation which at best was very lame and did not meet the true point at issue. The precedent thus established, however, will probably be made use of by many Ritualists whose consciences and livings might otherwise have been in serious conflict. The number who will be driven out of the Established Church or "go to Rome" in consequence of the decision will not now, apparently, be very large.

During scarcely any week of the war has it been so difficult to ascertain definitely what operations have been going on in Turkey. The affair at Plevna, on the 19th of July, was a decided check to the Russians, costing them 2,000 in killed and wounded, and Osman Pasha maintained his position till the 30th, when, as he himself reports, he was again attacked by a greater force, which he also succeeded in repulsing. In these engagements the Ninth Russian Army Corps has suffered severely. The Rumanians have crossed over and occupied Nikopolis, not only relieving the Russian garrison there, but advancing with most of their force to assist in the capture of Plevna. On the other side, Mehemet Ali Pasha is said to have left Shumla on the 27th and at the latest advices to have reached Osman-Bazar, with a view to forming a junction with Osman Pasha, and at all events menacing the Russian line north of the Balkans. To meet this danger and at the same time to support the operations against Rustchuk, the Russians appear to have removed their headquarters from Tirnova to Biela. The bombardment of Rustchuk from Giurgevo has recommenced. An important victory of the Czarevitch over Ahmed Eyub Pasha before the city is both alleged and denied. Silistria has been invested by the Second Army Corps. South of the Balkans there is great uncertainty as to the relative positions of the contending armies. General Gurko is still reported at Kasanlik, and the westward movement towards Sofia is not secure beyond Kalofer; the Cossacks are said to have been driven back from Tekke, the southern outlet of the coveted Loftcha Pass. Turkish reports of the defeat of Suleiman Pasha's vanguard at Karabunar, a station on the Yamboli railroad equidistant from Philippopolis and Adrianople, on the 25th or 26th, are discredited by a later report of his junction with Raouf Pasha at Yeni-Sagra on the 31st. Raouf had previously (on the 26th) been having an engagement with the Russians at Eski-Sagra. In Armenia there are signs of an early renewal of the Russian advance, with large reinforcements. The Montenegrins are in a fair way to reduce Nicsics ere many days.

In England the Turcophiles are still using the Russian successes, whether real or reported, to give strength to the demand for a demonstration of some kind in support of Turkey, and the occupation of Gallipoli still finds most favor, but its opponents have had little difficulty in showing its futility from a military point of view, and showing, too, the almost silliness of this uneasiness on the part of Great Britain in a matter in which the interest of Austria is far greater than hers, and on which the influence Austria can exert is tenfold greater than any that Great Britain can exert. The ministers still persist in declaring that they have no intention at present of doing anything more than reinforce the great Mediterranean garrisons, and it is more certain than ever that there is a split between Beaconsfield and Salisbury, in which Salisbury is the friend of neutrality, and which keeps Beaconsfield, in spite of his bad health, from resigning. Two gunboats are said to be going to enter the Danube, by way of asserting a treaty right, and two large iron-clads are going up to see that the gunboats get fair-play; but this sounds like a canard. The revenue receipts are turning out so remarkably and unexpectedly well as to indicate a revival of trade, and strengthen somewhat the hands of the war party.

The Russian operations have at last had the effect of rousing Austria a little, and she is said to have determined on the mobilization, according to one report, of four divisions, and, to another, of three army corps, to be écheloned along the eastern frontier, for observation. In the meantime there is something in the nature of a panic at Constantinople, and talk of a removal of the Sultan to Brusa, with the intention of remaining—a story probably started for effect in London; and reports of atrocities on Mussulmans are coming in steadily, the Russian authorities denying them, and the tender-hearted Sultan has begged Mr. Layard to ask the Queen to write to the Emperor begging of him to prohibit them. This is the boldest stroke on which the Turk has yet ventured. Midhat Pasha seems to be playing the rôle of Thiers in 1871, and is travelling from court to court to see what comfort or aid he can pick up; probably to find out what terms the Powers will suffer Russia to impose on Turkey, for any day may now bring news that the time has come to treat.

THE LATE RIOTS.

IT is impossible to deny that the events of the last fortnight constitute a great national disgrace, and have created a profound sensation throughout the civilized world. They are likely to impress the foreign imagination far more than the outbreak of the Civil War, because the probability that the slavery controversy would end in civil war or the disruption of the Union had been long present to people's minds both at home and abroad. Slavery, too, was well known to be an accident, and by no means a natural product of American institutions, and its horrors and inconsistencies did not really seriously shake the general confidence in the soundness and solidity of American polity, strong and numerous as were the attempts made for that purpose. There has for fifty years been throughout Christendom a growing faith that outside the area of slave-soil the United States had—of course with the help of great natural resources—solved the problem of enabling labor and capital to live together in political harmony, and that this was the one country in which there was no proletariat and no dangerous class, and in which the manners as well as legislation effectually prevented the formation of one. That the occurrences of the last fortnight will do, and have done, much to shake or destroy this faith, and that whatever weakens it weakens also the fondly-cherished hopes of many millions about the future of the race, there is unhappily little question. We have had what appears a widespread rising, not against political oppression or unpopular government, but against society itself. What is most curious about it is that it has probably taken people here nearly as much by surprise as people in Europe. The optimism in which most Americans are carefully trained, and which the experience of life justifies to the industrious, energetic, and provident, combined with the long-settled political habit of considering riotous poor as the products of a monarchy and aristocracy, and impossible in the absence of "down-trodden masses," has concealed from most of the well-to-do and intelligent classes of the population the profound changes which have during the last thirty years been wrought in the composition and character of the population, especially in the great cities. Vast additions have been made to it within that period, to whom American political and social ideals appeal but faintly, if at all, and who carry in their very blood traditions which give universal suffrage an air of menace to many of the things which civilized men hold most dear. So complete has this illusion been that up to the day of the outbreak at Martinsburg thousands, even of the most reflective class, were gradually ridding themselves of the belief that force would be much longer necessary, or, indeed, was now necessary in the work of government. It is not many weeks since we sought in these columns to combat this hallucination, apropos of the woman-suffrage question and the South Carolina imbroglio; but since our article appeared, one of the most thoughtful politicians in the country, Senator Bayard, of Delaware, delivered an address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society at Cambridge, in which, with an eye, however, to the Southern States, rather than to discontented laborers, he preached the possibility of government by moral suasion solely, with great energy and pathos, and he has probably had tens of thousands of readers who rolled the doctrine under their tongues as a sweet morsel.

Another illusion which the riots have dispelled is that the means provided by the several States for the protection of life and property, in the shape of police and militia, are at all adequate. Riots on the scale on which they have taken place during the past fortnight put almost as much strain on the nerves and on the discipline of the force called on to suppress them as the operations of regular warfare. A lawful enemy forms an organization which keeps to itself in a defined position, and its attacks are controlled by rules with which men are more or less familiar, and dictated by motives which can be guessed, and the force of which can be weighed. A mob, on the other hand, is essentially irrational, and its conduct has all the fitfulness and incomprehensibleness of that of a wild beast, and is just as merciless and destructive. It requires, therefore, to be met by a coolness and cohesiveness, and a presence of mind, which are not often called for in actual campaigning. Nothing can supply these things but *the habit* of obedience—not simply intellectual readiness to obey, as part of a contract, but the habitual readiness to obey a particular man, produced by obeying him every day on all sorts of small matters, and the familiarity with his person and character which results from living under his orders. This regular troops have; this even the best militia has not and cannot have. The consequence is that a militia regiment, no matter how well drilled, when it finds itself acting against a mob, and the temper of the men begins to be tried by missiles and insults, loses very rapidly its sense of organization. The company and the regiment and the officers fade from the private's view, and he becomes in his own eyes an individual man, at whom a fellow on the sidewalk is throwing brickbats, so he gratifies his rage and provides for his personal safety by taking a shot at him. The mob, on its side, takes more or less the same view of the force; that is, it believes it has got before it a body very much like itself, although armed and uniformed, and does not believe in its discipline and cohesiveness, and does believe it can dissolve it by vigorous pelting, or a series of single combats, or by appeals to the sympathies of the men. Regulars, on the other hand, it knows to be a machine—the most terrible of all the machines invented by man, by which the wills of a thousand are wielded, even unto death, by the will of one, and which knows nothing of single shots, which feels every blow through its whole mass, and, when it strikes, strikes like the flail of destiny, without remorse, or pity, or misgiving. The consequence is that many of the horrors and aggravations of mob-risings come from the unsteadiness of militia. Killing by militia is apt to rouse a thirst for vengeance, like the killing in a street-fight, while a volley from regulars has the terrors of legal execution. Of course there are militia regiments which are exceptions to this rule, and several during the late troubles have rendered inestimable service; but they are not to be relied on for serious emergencies, such as we trust every sensible man now sees are among the contingencies of American life.

The kindest thing which can be done for the great multitudes of untaught men who have been received on these shores, and are daily arriving, and who are torn perhaps even more here than in Europe by wild desires and wilder dreams, is to show them promptly that society as here organized, on individual freedom of thought and action, is impregnable, and can be no more shaken than the order of nature. The most cruel thing is to let them suppose, even for one week, that if they had only chosen their time better, or had been better led or better armed, they would have succeeded in forcing it to capitulate. In what way better provision, in the shape of public force, should be made for its defence we have no space left to discuss, but that it will not do to be caught again as the rising at Martinsburg caught us; that it would be fatal to private and public credit and security to allow a state of things to subsist in which 8,000 or 9,000 day-laborers of the lowest class can suspend, even for a whole day, the traffic and industry of a great nation, merely as a means of extorting ten or twenty cents a day more wages from their employers, we presume everybody now sees. Means of prompt and effectual prevention—so plainly effectual that it will never need to be resorted to—must be provided, either by an increase of the standing army or some change in the organization of the militia which will improve its discipline and increase its mobility. There are, of course, other means of protection against labor-risings than physical ones, which ought not to be neglected, though we doubt if they can be made to produce much effect on the present generation. The exercise of greater watchfulness over their tongues by philanthropists, in devising schemes of social improvement, and in affecting to treat all things as open to discussion, and every question as having two sides, for purposes of legislation as well as for purposes of speculation, is one of them. Some of the talk about the laborer and his rights that we have listened to on the platform and in literature during the last fifteen years, and of the capacity even of the most grossly ignorant, such as the South Carolina field-hand, to reason upon and even manage the interests of a great community,

has been enough, considering the sort of ears on which it now falls, to reduce our great manufacturing districts to the condition of the Pennsylvania mining regions, and put our very civilization in peril. Persons of humane tendencies ought to remember that we live in a world of stern realities, and that the blessings we enjoy have not been showered upon us like the rain from heaven. Our superiority to the Ashantees or the Kurds is not due to right thinking or right feeling only, but to the determined fight which the more enlightened part of the community has waged from generation to generation against the ignorance and brutality, now of one class and now of another. In trying to carry on the race to better things nobody is wholly right or wise. In all controversies there are wrongs on both sides, but most certainly the presumptions in the labor controversy have always been in favor of the sober, orderly, industrious, and prudent, who work and accumulate and bequeath. It is they who brought mankind out of the woods and caves, and keep them out; and all discussion which places them in a position of either moral or mental inferiority to those who contrive not only to own nothing, but to separate themselves from property-holders in feeling or interest, is mischievous as well as foolish, for it strikes a blow at the features of human character which raise man above the beasts.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE IDAHO WAR.

HOW far the Indian insurrection on the Pacific slope is for the present suppressed is not decided, but it were well, while its lesson is fresh, to realize that the Nez-Percés are not to blame for the expensive and sanguinary campaign, unless being goaded into a brief madness by the direct and endless oppression of our Federal authorities be blameworthy. What is remarkable about their case is that the tribe had been faithful and peaceable since it was met by Lewis and Clark in 1805; that official frauds in its management—so often a just ground for complaint—have not been alleged; but that the neglect and bad faith of the general Government, continued for a quarter of a century, are apparent in the records of Congress. There was swindling, not in petty matters and by individuals, requiring detection and proof, but on a grand scale by the United States itself, and set forth in its own printed publications.

It is too late now to revise the policy of regarding Indians as political communities having a right to the lands within the boundaries of which they were found. The rule has been uniform from the earliest discovery of North America, under the royal Government, the colonies, the States, the confederacy, and the present Union, to make treaties with their several tribes and nations. Our Supreme Court has recognized their title by occupancy, and when by treaty they have yielded to the United States for certain considerations the main body of their lands, there has been a solemn guaranty to them of the residue. In many parts of the country the Indian title has been extinguished before the whites have been legally permitted to settle upon or obtain any rights in the land. This precaution, absolutely necessary to prevent collision, was wholly neglected in reference to the district now partly in Oregon but chiefly in Idaho occupied formerly and still by the Nez-Percés, though there was an express provision in the acts of Congress establishing the Territories of Oregon and Idaho, that the land occupied by Indian tribes should not without their consent be included in the limits or jurisdiction of those Territories, but should be excepted out of their boundaries. Section 1839 of the Revised Statutes recognizes similar rights of person and property in tribes embraced within the limits of a State, as well as a Territory, unless the tribe shall consent to be so embraced.

The first treaty with the Nez-Percés was made June 11, 1855, after a considerable number of whites had settled on the lands acknowledged to be within their bounds. It provided that no white man should be permitted, either before or after its ratification, to reside upon the tract reserved, but in the meantime it should be lawful for the Indians to reside on any lands, either within or outside of that tract, not in the actual claim and occupation of citizens. The whole of the Wallowa Valley, the contest for which was the immediate cause of the present insurrection, was distinctly included in the reservation, and, unless it had been so, the elder chief Joseph and his band, who claimed and occupied it, would never have been induced to agree to the treaty. Even with that stipulation, their signatures were procured with great difficulty and over-persuasion. These facts are not matters of inference, but were formally reported by the Commission which in 1873 investigated all the subjects in controversy. The bands of the tribe owned separate tracts of territory, with the full right of treating severally respecting them, there being no organized nation, and the loose confederacy not recognizing any head chief. An English-speaking chief of a mere band, A-sha-lote, generally called Lawyer, was appointed head chief by the U. S. Commissioners as a convenient part of their programme, but had no original or accepted authority as such.

This treaty was not ratified until April, 1859, without any apparent reason for the delay but the mere neglect of the Senate, and during these four years there had raged throughout the region an extensive Indian war, in which the Nez-Percés had proved the only stay and bulwark of the Government. They escorted the Governor of Oregon through hostile hordes, rescued Col. Steptoe and his whole command after his defeat on May 17, 1858, and in the campaign of that year joined Col. Wright with a mounted company raised by themselves, which rendered invaluable aid, for which and for many horses furnished they were not paid. They resisted all the attempts of the Mormons, who established a station on the Salmon River expressly to alienate them from the Government, and by their fidelity and courage saved the infant settlements. When, after ungrateful delay, the ratification was at last proclaimed, and Congress added to neglect absolute dishonesty, by withholding appropriations to carry out the contract made, the tribe yet remained faithful and patient. Numerous emissaries from the Confederate States in rebellion vainly came to them with arms and money, representing with strong argument that the United States Government was broken up, and urged as proof of the statement the non-payment of the annuities and other sums guaranteed. While they received no help in establishing themselves on the reservation, to which most of them obediently repaired, they continued to assist the Federal authorities in their hour of trial, though the latter markedly, and in every possible mode, violated their agreements. Gold was discovered in 1860, and fifteen thousand white men poured into the very land set apart exclusively for the Indian home, not only committing numberless individual outrages but also violating the treaty with such system that a town of 1,200 white inhabitants was laid out in the centre of the reservation without the consent of the tribe and against the protest of its agent.

In 1862 the proposition was made by Congress to settle these evils by a new treaty, the debates showing it to be fully understood that the Indians had faithfully observed all the obligations on their part, while the Government had wholly disregarded its own. The idea of beginning to fulfil these honorably was not, however, entertained. Accordingly, in June, 1863, Joseph and his band, Eagle-from-the-Light, Big Thunder, and other chiefs who did not recognize the supposititious head-chief Lawyer came, in obedience to summons, to a council, and encamped on the west bank of the Lapwai, while the Lawyer faction remained on the east bank. The main point of the treaty proposed by the Commissioners was to reduce the reservation to about one-tenth of its actual limits, leaving out of the new boundaries the whole of the Wallowa Valley. To this Joseph and his party utterly and expressly refused agreement, denying any authority in any other part of the tribe to dispose of the land not only possessed by him before the treaty of 1855, but also guaranteed by it, and retired from the council. The tribe thus became formally divided about equally into "treaties" and "non-treaties," the latter never recognizing any treaty later than that of 1855, and never accepting any consideration.

About the year 1871 Joseph died, bequeathing his beloved valley to his band and his son, Young Joseph, as his successor in the chieftaincy. The above facts are all admitted by the Commission of 1873. The legal position, then, was that the bands occu-

pying the territory proposed to be ceded in 1863 had a right to consider, and did consider, the old treaty to be inoperative because of the acknowledged failure of the United States to comply with its terms, but whether or not it ceased to be valid they retained the land before owned by them and reserved in it. Also, having a perfect right to refuse agreement to the new treaty, they did so refuse. The title to the Wallowa Valley, therefore, remained vested in Joseph's band.

The Commissioners, however, proceeded to conclude the new treaty with the rump of the council, which, though requiring persuasion to deal at all with the Government that had before shown itself so grossly deceitful, was induced to consent by the simple arrangement of including the existing possessions of its members in the new reservation. The birthplace of Lawyer and the homes of his adherents being preserved to them, they were willing to accept even the doubtful security of the United States for nearly half a million of dollars as a consideration for the sale of a tract of land in which they had little interest and no title. The transaction may be likened to a supposed purchase in our colonial times by the parent government from the Pennsylvanians of the charter and lands of the New York colony, against its earnest protest, with the provision that the latter should migrate from its home on the Hudson for some grudged refuge among treacherous enemies—to be driven by force in case of refusal, and the purchase-money all paid to the undisturbed Quakers. The Lawyer party could afford to be "friendly" on these terms, but in fact made little by their unworthy bargain, for the Government has been consistently perfidious even to them. This new treaty, which, being unjust and incomplete, should never have received the approbation of the Senate, was not ratified for four years more, so that while the annuities and other payments under the old were not paid, those just promised did not begin, and when there was a pretence of fulfilling pledges, it was done with such delay and irregularity as to be nearly useless. The Territory of Idaho having been established, laws were enacted in direct disregard of the Intercourse Act, and approved by the Governor, who was *ex-officio* the local superintendent of Indian affairs, thereby confusing the aboriginal mind and inducing fear that the "great father" had a "forked tongue." The allotments of land, with certificate of title, pledged by the treaty have never yet been given, and cannot be, because the surveys were made, against the protest of the agent, in such a perfunctory style as to leave no inner metes and bounds with monuments and records so as to adjust the lines of farms. Intermixed with the confused and uncertain lines of the tribal fields are the farms and improvements of white settlers. As, notwithstanding the treaty, the Land Office has decided these claims to be legally held by the whites, they naturally refuse to go off until paid for them, and the Commissioner of Indian Affairs thereupon has repeatedly asked Congress in vain for an appropriation to remove this intolerable nuisance. There was small inducement for Joseph to listen to the voice of the charmer and abandon his vested rights for the new reservation.

As if there were not enough misunderstanding already occasioned by treaties and their violation, two contradictory executive orders were issued. The first was dated June 16, 1873, setting aside a tract, including the disputed Wallowa Valley, exclusively for the "roaming" or "non-treaty" Nez-Percés, thereby acknowledging the justice of their claim to it, if not the validity of their title, and they were formally told by the local agent, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, that they should remain undisturbed in possession of this tract, and that the white settlers, then about one hundred men, should be removed. This order and promise were induced by the report of the Commission of the preceding month, which came to the following conclusion: "If any respect is to be paid to the laws and customs of the Indians, then the treaty of 1863 is not binding upon this band. If so, then Wallowa Valley is still a part of the Nez-Percé reservation. If this is the case, the Government is in equity bound to pay white settlers for their improvements and for the trouble, inconvenience, and expense of removing from there." The Secretary of the Interior directed appraisements to be made of these improvements, which amounted to the large sum of $67,860, and probably so frightened Congress that no motion was introduced to make the appropriations. It was not realized that persistent national wrong is a debt at compound interest, and that the payment of this equitable obligation in 1874—though it would never have been incurred if right and reason had earlier prevailed—would have saved a much larger sum, as well as many lives, in 1877. As no provision was made for the settlers, the executive order above mentioned was, perhaps necessarily, revoked by another dated June 10, 1875, which restored the land to public domain for sale, and it has since been surveyed, forming a part of Baker County, Oregon. Perfidy and tergiversation could no further go. Joseph and his band became hopeless of earthly justice and ready victims to the new prophet who preached of divine interposition. The settlers of course remained, and also of course there has been for years a hostility sometimes resulting in collision between them and the Indians (each party regarding the other as trespassers), one of whom was last year murdered, and his brother this summer exploded the mine of insurrection by killing the murderer. This desperate rising of a free, warlike, and uncivilized people against insupportable wrong done by its professed guardian has been the natural and necessary result of Congressional neglect in the ratification of a treaty until circumstances had wholly changed, and in refusing appropriations and legislation necessary to fulfil the solemn obligations of Government. It has been prophesied with reiterated warning in successive printed reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs and his agents, for twenty-two years, which have been vainly urged upon the attention of Congress and its appropriate committees; so that the responsibility is more definitely fixed in this instance than can often be the case in Indian disputes, when the question may be complicated by the errors or misconduct of officers and of the tribes themselves.

Correspondence.

MR. HOWELLS'S "COUNTERFEIT PRESENTMENT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having seen your editorial expression of regret that Mr. W. D. Howells had not prepared his latest story with a view to its dramatic representation, I have the honor to inform you that such is his purpose. A carefully prepared version of the "Counterfeit Presentment" will be acted during the coming season, and I shall have the honor of appearing as the hero—having purchased the drama of Mr. Howells.

Respectfully, Laurence Barrett.

Marie Villa, Cohasset, Mass., July 30, 1877.

SOUTH CAROLINA ANTI-SCHOOL LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While fully believing that the President's course in withdrawing from the Republican party in the South the protection of the U. S. troops was both wise and necessary, I hope that we shall not forget that it is equally wise and necessary that the U. S. Government should extend to the enfranchised blacks some protecting care to enable them so to exercise their newly-acquired rights that their own welfare as well as that of the community may be promoted. While the Republican Legislatures in many of the Southern States did some foolish and wrong things, they did one, at least, that was not only good but essential to the safety and future prosperity of the whole country: they aided or attempted to aid the education of their people. What have their successors done? A friend, long resident in South Carolina, who, though not connected with politics, has had excellent opportunities for observation, writes:

"There has been only one short session of the new Democratic Legislature, but they made haste to work against the schools. They abolished special taxes. That puts the school-tax, which formerly could be used for nothing else, into the general public treasury, to be appropriated as the dominant party pleases. They forbade any local school-tax: the right of each school district to tax itself is now taken away. This was done because the white people would not send their children to the public schools, and will not be taxed for colored schools or general education.

They provided no money for enumerating the school children. This prevents adequate State appropriations, as that is or is supposed to be founded upon the number of children requiring schooling. They called no meeting of the Board of Education. This gives the Democratic School Commissioner opportunity to act as he pleases, unchecked by his Republican associates. They forbade partisan teaching. This is to give legal cause for ejecting Northern teachers. Who will object in South Carolina to Southern politics being taught and Southern views presented? They prohibited any public-school teacher being trustee of schools. As the trustees receive no remuneration whatever, except exemption from the poll-tax, and have to give much time and care, besides being at some pecuniary expense, it is a position by no means sought after, and no teacher would be likely to accept it unless under a sense of duty. They broke up the University, and refused to pay the just claims of the teachers or professors. They broke up, also, the Normal School, and so prevent the education of colored teachers and injure the State by sending out of it the *only* able and competent teachers of Normal Schools, for the Southerners know nothing about modern methods. They cut down the salaries of the County School Commissioners to three hundred dollars a year, which would pay no good business man for the trouble of the place. And, in addition to all these, the movement has begun to repudiate all teachers' claims for past services unpaid. That was active and effective work for one short session, and from these blows South Carolina education cannot recover for years."

Now what is our duty? Clearly we cannot expect that States impoverished, as most of our Southern States are, should hasten to burden themselves with the support of schools to the extent which we at the North have learned to think necessary in order to guard ourselves from the risk of being controlled by a mass of ignorant voters. But, though unwilling or unable to help themselves, they would probably gladly receive aid from outside. Is it not then time for us to make up our minds how this aid may be best extended? I do not know of any better course than that proposed some years ago: that the funds derived from the sale of public lands should be distributed among the several States in the ratio of their illiteracy, for the support of such systems of State education as will come up to a standard to be fixed by the Government. If the sale of public lands should not be sufficient, in what way could the United States Government more wisely expend money than by making all needful appropriations therefor? It would tend more to promote the lasting security and peace of the whole people than for larger amounts appropriated to the Army and Navy. Every dollar wisely spent in schools will save double spent on almshouses and prisons, as well as largely increase the producing capacity of the country.

Will not the *Nation* lend its aid in building up the good as well as in breaking down the wrong? C.

PHILADELPHIA, July 30, 1877.

[The expulsion of Northern teachers from Southern institutions of learning is regrettable on many grounds, but of course carries its own penalty with it. It is a step beyond the folly of proscribing Northern text-books. We hear, without knowing the full particulars, that nearly the whole faculty of the Knoxville (Tenn.) University, including its oldest and most tried servants, has been abruptly dismissed because the obnoxious instructors happened to have been born north of Mason and Dixon's line; and that the board of trustees who are responsible for this action was packed a year ago by the Legislature for this express purpose. It is singular that the South is blind to the connection between such manifestations as these and the immigration which it so much covets.

As regards our correspondent's plan of relief we will only say here that it was good Whig doctrine as long ago as 1844, and good Southern Whig doctrine too. The Hon. T. L. Clingman said in Congress at that date, as he might say to-day, were he there: "The money arising from the sales of the public lands we desire to see distributed among the States, to enable those States that are indebted to pay back to their creditors what they have borrowed, to remove the cloud which rests on the honor of some of them, and place American credit where it used to stand, and to furnish the States not indebted with the means of diffusing the benefits of education among every class of their citizens, so that our voters hereafter may understand their rights as inhabitants of this free Republic, and no longer be the victims of the arts of demagogues." Unhappily, repudiation and illiteracy are no longer invariably found together, as witness Minnesota, or the free-school and financial planks in the Democratic platform at Columbus.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE 'Transactions' of the American Philological Association for 1876 makes, with an abstract of the proceedings, a volume of 224 pages. Five out of the nine papers printed in full have Latin and Greek subjects. Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull's is on the Algonkin verb. Prof. W. D. Whitney exposes forcibly a botanico-philological vagary of Max Müller's. Prof. S. S. Haldemann shows briefly that the *u* of French words like *sauce* (Lat. salsus), *faux* (Lat. falsus), etc., is not, as is commonly supposed, derived from the *l* but from the preceding vowel of the Latin word. One's first impression on seeing the strange forms "independentli," "similarli," and "orthographi" in this paper, is that the proof-reader had nodded; but on reflection it appears that Prof. Haldemann thus utters his protest against the prevailing orthography, and naturally begins with the affixes. ——D. Appleton & Co. will publish in this country Dr. W. B. Carpenter's 'Mesmerism, Spiritualism, etc., Historically and Scientifically Considered.' They are also bringing out a reprint of the Rev. Samuel Peters's notorious 'General History of Connecticut.'——J. R. Osgood & Co. announce 'Asia Minor,' by Sir Randall Roberts; and 'Natural Law,' by Edith Simcox; and will reproduce in book-form Col. Waring's recent contributions to the magazines on 'Village Improvements and Farm Villages.'——Lee & Shepard have in press 'The New England Ministry Sixty Years Ago,' being the life of John Woodbridge, D.D., by the Rev. Sereno D. Clark. ——A 'Life of Benjamin Silliman,' by Prof. Geo. P. Fisher, is announced by Porter & Coates.——Macmillan & Co. have just issued the seventh edition of Dr. James Bryce's 'Holy Roman Empire.' The second edition of this standard work appeared in 1866. The same publishers send us a handsomely printed Classified Catalogue of their Educational Publications. Most of these, we think we are safe in saying, have appeared in the past dozen years, and we frankly admit that they have done much to invalidate the confident dictum (in 1862) of the American editor of Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America': "It is notorious that better school-books, dictionaries, etc., are written in the United States than in England."——An inexpensive History of Turkey, by J. D. O'Connor, has been published by Moses Warren (Chicago). It tells, in the style of a gazetteer, what may be learned from books about Turkey, but without any correction from personal observation of the country or the people. Three very ordinary maps accompany the brochure.——We have before us the circular of the Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station, whose laboratory and office are in the east wing of Sheffield Hall, New Haven. It was established by act of legislature last March "for the purpose of promoting agriculture by scientific investigation and experiments." Fertilizers, seeds, etc., will be analyzed in the public interest without charge to the person submitting them, and at a moderate charge for private interest. The results will be made public. This seems an admirable institution, and if its powers were enlarged to embrace analysis of food and medical compounds, it would be an invaluable adjunct to the State Board of Health.——In a notice last week of the *Nineteenth Century* we called attention to Mr. Brassey's article "Round the World in the *Sunbeam*." We now learn from the *Academy* that Mrs. Brassey also has written an account of the same voyage, to be published next season by Longmans. The book "will be embellished with maps, eight full-page illustrations, and upwards of seventy woodcuts."——Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey, notifies us that the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London has chosen for the subjects of its third yearly issue six views of houses in Cloth Fair, adjacent to St. Bartholomew's the Great, West Smithfield, and of the Church. The prints are permanent, size 10 by 8 inches. The annual subscription of 10 shillings 6 pence secures one set. Nos. 1–12 already issued are still procurable. ——In the competition for early news and gossip the London literary weeklies often give currency to inexcusably false rumors. Such, we are happy to say, was that which we copied from the *Athenæum*, announcing the death of M. Ernest Griset, whose health appears to be perfect.

—*Scribner's* for August is a "midsummer holiday number," the chief attraction of which is the illustrations. The specially illustrated articles are "North American Grouse," "A Railroad in the Clouds"—a description of the road now building over the Andes, in Peru—"Babes in the Wood"—a trip through northern Maine—and "Canadian Sports." Other articles are also illustrated, but less profusely than these. There are also descriptive sketches and stories of more or less merit by E. S. Nadal, Mary E. C. Wyeth, Berthold Auerbach, and Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. The feature of chief excellence, however, is the poetry, which includes "Guests," by Celia Thaxter; a "Madrigal," by Mr. E. C. Sted-

man ; an "Assyrian Night Song," by Mr. Bayard Taylor ; and "Reflections," by the author of "Deirdrè." This last is "inscribed to Oliver Wendell Holmes," but is equally complimentary to Lowell, Longfellow, Bryant, Emerson, and Whittier, whom it eulogizes in the order named, and whom the author contrasts with certain unnamed persons :

> "The Ignes Fatui of our later days,
> Whose lanterns lead me but to vague abysms
> Of proverbs, problems, sound, and syllogisms."

—Notwithstanding the warning of the *Geographical Magazine* (April, 1877) that the Smith Sound route to the Pole has been used up, Capt. H. W. Howgate's expedition sets sail this week from New London for Cumberland Island, the first stopping-place *en route* to Smith Sound. The winter will be spent on this island on account of its coal deposits, and the time will be occupied not only in meteorological and other scientific observations, but in equipping the future colony by engaging some dozen Esquimaux families, with their sledges and a full supply of dogs, together with abundant clothing to be made up by the native women. Next summer the *Florence* will transport the entire company to Disco, where they will be transferred to a ship which is expected in June bringing colonists sent out under Government auspices, with Lady Franklin Bay (the *Discovery's* headquarters) for their final destination. The present outfit is wholly private, except that the Signal Service Bureau has lent some of its instruments, and Commodore Ammen, of the Bureau of Navigation, has provided his combination sledge and safety-raft. Capt. Howgate has Capt. Geo. E. Tyson, of *Polaris* fame, for his sailing-master ; for his naturalist, Mr. Ludwig Kumlein, recommended by Prof. S. F. Baird of the Smithsonian; and for his meteorologist and photographer, Mr. O. T. Sherman of Providence, recommended by Prof. Loomis. The Congressional assent to an appropriation of $100,000 is expected at its next session ; and whatever may be thought of the chances of this expedition's nearer approach to the Pole, even with the aid of its balloon, we can scarcely doubt that the colony plan promises ample returns to science and deserves a fair trial.

—We recur to the eighth report of the Massachusetts State Board of Health for the sake of some important features not referred to in our previous notice ; notably the special reports of the Secretary of the Board (Dr. Charles F. Folsom) concerning the Pollution of Streams, the Disposal of Sewage, and the relation between Drainage and Health. Light is thrown on the question of the purification of polluted water by exposure to the air by the reported analyses of the water of the river Seine in its course through Paris. Pure water holds about 10 per cent. of oxygen in solution. When impure matters are added, this oxygen may all, or nearly all, disappear in the destructive oxidation of the impurity. The oxidation being complete, the absorption of oxygen from the air gradually raises the proportion to the normal standard. It was found that the Seine above Paris contains 9 per cent. of oxygen ; in the upper part of the city 8 per cent.; below the city, but above the outlet of the main sewer, 6 per cent. From this point the proportion falls off rapidly, until below all the sewers the oxygen is reduced to 1 per cent. Thence it increases until seventeen miles below the sewers it is 6 per cent., twenty-seven miles further, 9.5 per cent., and thirty-five miles further, 10.5 per cent. Short accounts are given of various experiments in the disposal of sewage by dry removal, irrigation, etc., including the interesting report of the irrigation work at Gennevilliers, where the surface voluntarily irrigated by the farmers, to whom sewage was delivered free of cost, has increased from 50 acres to 750 acres, the amount used for each acre annually being about 20,000 cubic metres. It is alleged that no unhealthful influences have been caused by the irrigation. Incidentally the valuable effect of oxidation upon the impurities carried into the soil by sewage is referred to as an established fact. For example, "by gradual oxidation this animal contamination has been, so far as analysis can show, converted into inocuous inorganic compounds wherever the water was submitted to investigation." The last section of Dr. Folsom's report cites numerous instances where epidemics of typhoid fever have been clearly traced, in some cases to air poisoned by sewer-gas, and in others to drinking water contaminated by excremental pollution. Following Dr. Folsom's report is a capital paper on sewerage and the principles which should govern local authorities in laying out and executing new works, from the pen of Mr. E. S. Chesbrough, the well-known city engineer of Chicago.

—In the "Winter's Tale," as everybody knows, Shakspere makes Bohemia "a desert country near the sea," and endows it with a coast ; and this geographical inaccuracy, though dramatically of no significance whatever, may in some minds mar the otherwise perfect pleasure which the noble play affords. It is, therefore, a good thing to account for Shakspere's fault in this particular, even if it remains a fault after all. In the last issue of the *Athenæum* (July 14) Mr. R. G. Latham endeavors to do this, and invests the subject with unexpected interest. He first suggests that the Sicilia of the same play, though described as an isle, and undoubtedly identical in Shakspere's mind with Sicily, may not have been that island in the original source of his drama. The old narrative, he thinks, may have related to Szekler-land, in Hungary, a district whose people (the Szeklers) are called in Latin—"and it is in Latin that all the Hungarian prose is written"—Siculi. Now, the neighborhood of Szekler-land to Bohemia gives plausibility to the theory that the original story is to be sought either in Bohemian or Hungarian literature—at least for what concerns the jealousy of Leontes. Mr. Latham next discovers Massinger borrowing from the same quarter in his play of "The Picture" ; the jealousy of Mathias answering well enough in its management to that of Leontes, and the picture by which the former tests his wife's constancy answering hardly well enough (or, as we should say, not at all) to the statue in "A Winter's Tale." However, the name of Mathias enables Mr. Latham to take another step and identify the original of this character with Mathias, King of Hungary, unless somebody prefers the great captain, Huniades. "The queen that tempts him is the wife of the King of Poland, Lithuania, and Hungary, and the King himself is Ladislaus, the actual king of those countries during the great war against the Turks under Amurath II." As there was another Ladislaus who was, or pretended to be, a King of the two Sicilies, Mr. Latham finds here a probable cause of the confusion between the island and Szekler-land. Lastly, we may infer from the speech of Antigonus—"Our ship has touched upon the *deserts of Bohemia*"—that this was a translation of the Latin "Deserta Boiorum," which lands us in Bavaria and in the conclusion that the oldest form of the "fundamental narrative" was in Latin, and that it is worth hunting for. Mr. Latham clinches one other point as follows :

> "But who (it may be asked) ever talked about the Szeklers or Sicilians of Hungary in the time of Shakspere ? Many men ; especially politicians. It was the time of Stephen Bathory in Poland, and of Bethlen Gabor in Transylvania ; and Bethlen Gabor is not only described as the Lord of Szekler-land, but also as 'a noble of the ancient sept or tribe of the Siculi, which bee the eldest inhabitants of Transylvania.' Indeed, the Transylvanians under Bethlen Gabor are generally spoken of as the Saxons and Siculi ; or, sometimes, the 'Saxons, Siculi, and Hungarians' are said to constitute the *three nations*. The time, then, of Bethlen Gabor, which was also the time of James the First and of Shakspere, was that when the name Sicilian was most especially in use."

—In his 'Descent of Man' Mr. Darwin incidentally states that he kept a daily record of the actions of one of his infants, and that the child when about eleven months old, and as yet unable to speak a word, continually surprised him by "the greater quickness with which all sorts of objects and sounds were associated in his mind compared with that of the most intelligent dogs" Mr. Darwin ever knew. This record was utilized in his work on 'Expression in Men and Animals,' with a view to which the observations were chiefly made at the time. Still more lately it has furnished material for an article in *Mind* (reprinted in the *Popular Science Monthly Supplement*, No. 4), called "A Biographical Sketch of an Infant," we presume Mr. Darwin's son George. His recurring to notes made thirty-seven years ago we owe to the appearance in the first number of the *Revue Philosophique* of M. Taine's diary of his little daughter's progress in the art of talking (see *Nation*, vol. xxii., p. 147). The French child invented the word *ham*, as a call for food, at fourteen months : the "natural vocal gesture of a person catching something in his mouth." Mr. Darwin's boy "Doddy," on the other hand, when just a year old, invented the corresponding word *mum*—used "in a demonstrative manner as a verb, implying 'Give me food,'" and also "as a substantive of wide signification"—*e.g.*, *shu-mum*, sugar ; *black-shu-mum*, black-sugar-food, liquorice. What further did not escape his father's attention was his pronouncing this word with "a most strongly-marked interrogatory sound at the end," with the effect of raising considerably the musical pitch of his voice. "I did not then see," says Mr. Darwin, "that this fact bears on the view which I have elsewhere maintained, that before man used articulate language he uttered notes in a true musical scale, as does the anthropoid ape Hylobates." The infant Darwin fixed his eyes on a candle as early as the ninth day, but he could not when seven and a half months old well follow with his eyes an object that was swinging at all rapidly. He grasped his sucking-bottle with his right hand when seventy-seven days old, and it was a week later before he would consent to use his left hand for the same purpose; yet he afterwards proved to be left-handed, like several of his ancestors. About this time he vainly endeavored to suck his father's finger, his own fist being in the way ; but on

the 114th day he slipped his hand down so that a clear end of the finger was presented. This early use of his hands did not make him specially apt with them afterwards; and his sister at fourteen months could hold pencils, etc., far more neatly and efficiently than he at the same time, though two years and four months old. He had, however, for a month been distinguishing himself in a rôle in which neither she nor her sisters could ever shine—"he became a great adept at throwing books, or sticks, etc." ; and his father concludes that "a tendency to throw objects is inherited by boys." At fifteen and a half months "Doddy" showed jealousy of his new-born sister, who was being weighed. At seven months he associated his nurse with her name; at a little past nine months "he learned spontaneously that a hand or other object causing a shadow to fall on the wall in front of him was to be looked for from behind." His moral sense was first noticed at the age of nearly thirteen months, on his being called naughty; his plundering the sugar-bowl against the rules, at two years seven and a half months, was betrayed by an "odd manner," due supposably to "pleasurable excitement struggling with conscience"; and a fortnight later, having been at the pickle-jar, he rolled up his pinafore to hide the stains of the juice, said there was nothing in the roll, and told his too inquisitive parent to "go away"—"so that here was carefully-planned deceit." But happily, "as this child was educated solely by working on his good feelings, he soon became as truthful, open, and tender as any one could desire."

—Turgeneff's 'Nov,' which began to be published serially in Russian on the first of January, was immediately, as our readers are aware, honored with a French version ('Terres Vierges') and with no less than four German ('Neuland,' 'Die neue Generation'). Mr. Perry's English version, 'Virgin Soil,' which has been brought out by Henry Holt & Co., makes a rather serious omission in not retaining the motto which Turgeneff (more parsimonious, happily, in such matters than George Eliot) places on his title-page as the key-note and moral—once for all—of his story. "Wild land," says this extract from the papers of an agriculturist, "must not be worked with a plough that glides lightly over the surface, but with one that turns up the soil from its depths." How well the novelist has succeeded in depicting the younger generation at its useless task of grubbing and scratching in shallow furrows, only those conversant with Russia—in fact, we suppose, only the Russians themselves—can tell. In Nos. 23 and 24 of the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes* 'Nov' is critically reviewed by one of the author's countrymen, who, not more in sympathy, perhaps, than Turgeneff with the respectable adherents of that "cause" whose real nature is so dimly suggested in the story, nevertheless feels that he knows them better and can be more just to them. He complains that all the agitators who are brought upon the scene (Ostrodumoff, Mashurina, Markeloff, etc.) are stupid and blind fanatics, the merest tools of their mysterious chief, while there is no representative of the class of revolutionary-socialists who have become such by conviction, and not from misery or a false or unsatisfactory position in society—who, indeed, have voluntarily forfeited high positions in society and divided their possessions with the peasants, and have joined the secret societies almost penniless. These are the superficial cultivators who ought to have been contrasted with the Solomins. As for Neshdanoff, the actual hero, he is a real type, admirably portrayed, but he belongs to the class of "superfluous men" whose number, says the reviewer, was considerable about 1860, but who are now growing scarcer. He is therefore not properly one of the present generation, but a Hamlet of the recent past. Marianne is a character not, like Neshdanoff, thoroughly known to Turgeneff but only through hearsay, and is both "mistakenly conceived and mistakenly developed." The aristocratic types, on the other hand, the "liberal" Sipiagins and the brutal Kallomeitseff, are perfectly caught. Solomin, who drives the share deep, is the great disappointment of the story, and is pronounced inconsistent—a psychological impossibility (*Unding*)—an egoist and a hypocrite. He, too, is an actual type, but he has been badly handled, both realistically and artistically. This harsh criticism must accord, we think, with the feelings of many readers, interesting as Solomin is. We cannot give the reviewer's reasons for it, but they are strong ones. On the whole he thinks that 'Nov' shows no falling off in the author's powers—only the effect of his fourteen years' absence from his native land. It is *epochemachende* from the fact that it treats of the ill-advised social movement more boldly, "objectively" (that is, impartially), and directly than has ever been done by any other novelist. It has profoundly stirred the "younger generation" and the friends of the "cause," who cannot take the exposure kindly; but it has made most furious the reactionists and the pseudo-liberals—the Kallomeitseffs and the Sipiagins. Since his 'Fathers and Sons' in 1863 nothing that Turgeneff has written has excited such intense interest as 'Virgin Soil.' Its masterly qualities, especially, as usual, in its delicious portraiture of the female character, are undeniable and unapproachable.

—Attention has been called to the discontinuance of the old *Jahrbuch für romanische und englische Literatur*, and in No. 625 we gave a brief résumé of the contents of one of its offshoots, the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*. There are two other periodicals, intended to continue more especially the English side of the *Jahrbuch*—viz., the *Anglia*, edited by Wülcker, and the *Englische Studien*, by Kölbing. The *Anglia*, although Part First was announced for April, has not yet reached us, but we hope to be able to speak of it in the course of a few weeks. The first two parts of Kölbing's *Englische Studien*, however, are before us, and call for a careful consideration of their contents. Part First, as stated in the prospectus, consists almost exclusively of articles by Kölbing himself. There are fifteen pages of text-criticism of the 'Ormulum,' based on a collation of the MS. with White's edition; forty pages upon the later English version of the 'Theophilus-saga'; nearly seventy pages upon two Middle-English versions of 'St. Patrick's Purgatory,' containing a reprint of the now very rare Owain Miles version (collated with the Auchinlech MS.) and a hitherto inedited version found in a Cottonian paper MS. of the XVth century. Also fifty pages of discussion of the Arthurian romance entitled 'Li beaus disconus.' Felix Liebrecht makes some short but interesting contributions to folk-lore, and A. Buff treats, in questionable English, of two passages in Ben Jonson's 'Every Man in his Humor.' Part Second is more varied and more interesting. Kölbing and J. Koch have very valuable articles on Chaucer's "Lyfe of Seynt Cecile" and the relations of his "Knightes Tale," "Assembly of Foules," and "Troilus and Crysede" to one another and to Boccaccio. The results arrived at are in many respects novel, and differ from the views of Ten Brink and other eminent Chaucer scholars. C. Horstmann contributes the "Vision of St. Paul" (from Vernon MS. 229) and the "Euphrosyne Legend" (Vern. 103). F. Bobertag has an elaborate essay upon Fielding, and A. Stimming reviews at length Wissmann's work on the poem of "King Horn." A. Buff again figures in the (leading) article of nearly forty pages, an effort to show that the tract, "Some Observations touching Trade and Commerce with the Hollander," etc., usually attributed to Raleigh, must be assigned to John Keymour. We pass over minor contributions from Stratmann, E. M. Thompson, and March (the last is a mere reprint from the Transactions of the American Philological Association, 1871). So far as a rapid preliminary examination of the *Englische Studien* may warrant us in expressing an opinion, we do not hesitate to welcome the new journal most heartily. Both paper and press-work are of the best quality, and the general appearance of the page is refreshing to the eye. In this respect it unquestionably leads its elder compeers. The articles betoken sound scholarship and an earnest disposition to bring all the resources of philology and literary criticism to bear upon the sadly-neglected field of early English. Only, as lovers of good style, we must protest against the continuance of such articles as those by A. Buff in English. The writer, although evidently well trained in the use of our language, is not a master of its most delicate shades of expression. On almost every page we encounter one or more sentences that are correct in grammar but are not English. Besides, what is the need of a contributor's deserting his mother-tongue? Surely every reader of the *Studien* will have a sufficient knowledge of German, and the pages of a scientific journal are no place for practice in composition. In this respect Bobertag's essay on Fielding contrasts most favorably, precisely because of its true German ring.

—The foundation of popular libraries has gone on with rapid strides in France during the last ten years. Germany has been slower, for there is no Société Franklin; but private effort has not been altogether idle. Among others, C. G. A. Freude, a landed proprietor in Saxony, gave 200 thalers to the little town of Ebersbach to found a popular library; and after 1851 he permitted his townsmen to make free use of his own large collection of books, although he did not give that outright, and the town has not been able to buy it since his death. However, he printed at his own expense two catalogues with supplements, and a sort of "best reading" in five volumes, with rather more than 2,800 pages! Our American manuals bear no comparison with this. But Freude attempted more than they do. "An experience of ten years has taught me," he says, "that for readers unacquainted with literature, as the peasants all are, mere catalogues are of very little use, and that they must be informed of the contents and character of the books in a library by short notices or extracts," which is precisely what we have found out here with regard to the juvenile, and the Irish, and the rural population. We have tried to satisfy the need by our Quincy Catalogue and the like. Freude's extracts

appear to have run more into morals and "eine Fülle schöner Gedanken" than our annotated catalogues have yet done, which accounts for the greater length of his. Indeed, Freude did not confine himself even to making extracts, but wrote an independent moral work, 'The Way to a Happy Married and Family Life'—"a book of the true stamp, German to the core, *schlecht und recht und gut und wahr*," exclaims the enthusiastic *Silesian Times*. Freude's idea of giving extracts opens a fine field for the zealous librarian, and, if carried out with energy, might in time justify Professor Hagen's fear that the catalogue would compel the library to encamp outside of the building, and the vision of that other prophet who foresaw the whole population of eastern Massachusetts engaged in collating and cataloguing books for a library stretching from Mount Auburn to Dorchester Heights. On the other hand, if the extracts were well made, we might throw away the books themselves and read only the catalogue, as was done, perhaps, after Photius had composed his 'Bibliotheca,' and in the case of a certain great Chinese encyclopædia, composed by the orders of an emperor with an unrememberable name.

—In speaking the other day of the policy of letting British interests hinge upon the occupation of Constantinople alone, we drew attention to the fact that possession of Saloniki would still make Russia a Mediterranean naval power, with an open port, and leave her as formidable a rival of Great Britain as if she were mistress of the Golden Horn. A Greek journal, the *Neologos*, published at Constantinople, in a recent article which we find in the correspondence of the Paris *Temps*, confirms what we said. It holds that the passage of the Danube was such a menace of the Turkish capital as, if England was intent on saving it, should already have led to interference. But, on the other hand, it doubts if Russia means to go to the extremity of a final conquest of the city. "Taught by her Crimean experience, she will not thus imperil results attainable without danger, and equivalent in fact to the possession of Constantinople."

"If this view be correct," continues the *Neologos*, "Constantinople is not threatened. But there is still a very menacing danger for the peoples of the East and of Europe, viz., that of a way opened for Russia towards Constantinople. This danger is palpable. Russia, triumphantly crossing the line of the Balkans, may well, with or without the consent of Europe (which would be powerless in the premises), impose such conditions as would deliver into the hands of the Slavic element the peninsula of the Balkans *as far as Saloniki*, by creating a Bulgarian autonomy—a design foreshadowed by the Russian journals. Thus the barriers of the Danube and the Balkans would no longer exist for Russia, . . . being in the control of an independent Bulgaria, incomparably more docile than Rumania, which, nevertheless, as everybody knows, permitted the passage of the Pruth. . . . In other words, victorious Russia will ask Europe to ratify its demands . . . by sanctioning the Slavic invasion, which, combined with the free passage of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, would render Russia, even without the possession of Constantinople, mistress of the eastern Mediterranean."

This article was written before Gen. Gurko had descended into the valley of the Tundja, and while it was still timely to say: "If England thinks that the moment for speaking and acting energetically will come only when the Russians have crossed the Balkans, the peoples of the East, on the contrary, believe that it will then be too late."

CONWAY'S 'IDOLS AND IDEALS.'*

MR. CONWAY is not unknown to American readers. For many years he has been acknowledged to be one of the most brilliant speakers and writers of our most radical religious party, the extreme left wing of the Unitarians. A Virginian by birth, he was conspicuous among the Abolitionists for his eloquent pamphlets against slavery, and still more so a little later, when war had begun, for his offer to transfer the political influence of the Abolition party to the South if Davis would abolish slavery. His career in the pulpits of Washington and Cincinnati was remarkable alike in its successes and its failures, being more marked for its impulsive warmheartedness and irregular brilliancy than by prudence or moderation. The atmosphere of London, where he has now been for some years, seems to have had a quieting effect upon him, and during this period his speeches and newspaper correspondence have been the main things to attract the attention of the public to him.

There is much of his characteristic quality about these essays, and they are very pleasantly written; but they are of the sermon class, and represent the views of an extreme party upon topics most of which are matters of sentiment rather than of reason, of faith rather than philosophy. Their reception will accordingly depend more upon the religious opinions of the reader than upon any canons of criticism. Mr. Conway is a wide reader, and, prejudices aside, has an interesting way of giving us his gathered knowledge; but he is not a very close thinker, or very critical as to his facts. The stream of his thought is far from being as deep as it is broad, which makes him perhaps all the easier to read, but also the easier to criticise. And one or two points are sufficiently important to deserve attention, because they represent a widespread confusion and misconception of what is now the borderland of metaphysics and science.

Throughout his essay on the "Pre-Darwinite and Post-Darwinite World" he confounds the theory of progressive evolution, with which Mr. Spencer is especially identified, with Mr. Darwin's theory of the modification of species by the struggle for life—two very different theories, both in character and consequences. The first is a speculation of very early origin, and is metaphysical rather than scientific in its character. It is so far independent of the theory of Darwin that it has been and still is held by thinkers of eminence who do not accept Darwinism, though that theory has proved to be such a valuable adjunct to it that it is almost always now united with it, and the evolution hypothesis has thus obtained a much firmer position than it ever held before. The idea that all life is developed under a law of regular progress, culminating in man, is a flattering and encouraging one. It strengthens the argument of design by adding immensely to the instances of complicated adjustment upon which that argument is founded; and although not entirely identical with the Mosaic account of creation, it resembles it so closely that it is easy to accommodate it to the most orthodox doctrine. Accordingly, it is in this direction that "popular" writers on science and theology generally direct their efforts at reconciliation, and with signal success. It is capable of a highly metaphysical interpretation, as in the hands of Agassiz, who held the succession of species to be a progressive sequence of types in the mind of the Creator. But in whatever form it is held, it is in its essential character a philosophical speculation, and not a scientific hypothesis.

Mr. Darwin's theory, on the other hand, was of quite a different character. It offered no grand law of cosmic movement, claimed no knowledge of ideas in the Divine mind. It simply showed how, under known laws of the struggle for life, from the mass of slight variations having no common tendency of good or ill the beneficial ones would oftenest be transmitted, and must frequently accumulate in lines of useful modification; and thus in the course of successive generations new species must arise. The new species would be better fitted to its surroundings, but would be in no way likely *à priori* to be higher in the scale of being. And although when the earth became so full of animal life that there was only room above, and, the opportunities for physical excellence being filled, the mental struggle began, the same law would at length select intellectual fitnesses; yet this is only an occasional operation of a law which under different circumstances would have debased instead of elevating the descendants of the parent ape. If we look at its positive instead of its negative side, we see that by known physical causes Darwin accounted for facts which are otherwise unexplained; and he showed that these causes *must* produce these effects unless some supernatural law of type-reversion intervenes. That is, he showed that if animals tend to resemble their parents and remoter ancestors, with slight accidental variations indifferently for good or ill, different specific forms *must* arise in the struggle of generations unless there is a governing tendency to resemble, not the parents, but some specific type having no material existence and not otherwise known or knowable; an hypothesis not, of course, of a strictly scientific character, and, indeed, scarcely within the province of natural science at all. His own theory, however, is strictly scientific in its character, and it is so sharply outlined and so narrow in its scope that it cannot fairly be confused with any metaphysical or supernatural speculation.

Singularly enough, however, this narrow theory of specific variation has much greater influence on both theology and ethics than the sweeping law of progressive evolution with which Mr. Conway confounds it. It extends the domain of physical law over the greater part of the ground not previously covered, and by doing away with special creations does away with the proof of God's power to those shortsighted thinkers who only recognize the Divine power in creative interferences, only see the Lord in the whirlwind and the earthquake. It destroys the force of the design-argument by showing that the complex adaptation from which we inferred a designer must arise any way from the simple nature of the elements, whether designed or no. It profoundly touches the question of the nature of evil by showing that strife and death are the conditions of growth, and that men cannot grow better

* 'Idols and Ideals; with an Essay on Christianity. By Moncure Daniel Conway, M.A., author of 'The Sacred Anthology,' etc.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 137.

except by remorselessly weeding out the weaker in the stern struggle for life. "In the black ink of sin were written the laws of morality and civilization," says our author; but he does not half realize what he says. Mr. Darwin's theory is as much at war here with the current sentimentalism and communistic aspiration which sway such men as Mr. Conway as with the strictest old theology. We do not believe that Mr. Conway is at all prepared to accept the changes which this new view of the laws of growth would work in practical ethics—in our treatment of paupers and criminals, for example, and our views of marriage and culture. We doubt whether he is ready to say that it is vastly more important to prevent a criminal from leaving descendants than to reform him. And we are confident that he does not regard it as being as much the duty of healthy men to marry young as to acquire culture or do great deeds—more wrong to marry a sickly person for love than a strong one for money; and these new ethics will find little to support them, either in the ascetic self-subjection of the older time or the sentimental fear of taking life of the new. The discord between our religious beliefs and our practical morality, which is so dwelt upon by men like Mr. Conway, the new science is little likely to harmonize.

In his essay on anthropomorphism Mr. Conway adopts Arnold's view of the nature of Deity (which we so lately examined) and shapes it more distinctly than Arnold has done. The puzzling question of what this divine power is that is neither person nor essence, what there can be left, after the two great historic conceptions of divine substance and divine personality have been abandoned, is answered at last, and we find an old friend where we least expected it: the Platonic Idea. The necessary laws of definition and number, of logic and conscience, which we instinctively think of as existing independent of us who think them, are clothed once more with being, after Plato's fashion: only where the old idealist gave each idea an independent existence, the modern radical unites them all in one great power. He combines "twice two make four" and "thou shalt not kill" in one religious *tour de force*, and explains that this synthesis of abstractions is the Power that makes for Righteousness; erecting in his shrine a statue as curiously compounded of ivory and brass as any that Plato could have found in Grecian temple. Perhaps, after all, Arnold's reticent indefiniteness was the wiser plan.

The last half of the volume is occupied by a long essay on Christianity—a long attack upon it, rather—sparing not even the Unitarian, whose belief he regards as the faint afterglow of an expiring faith. We do not propose to comment upon it, but we must express our dissent from the concluding idea, that the religious-minded man of the future will make up his faith from a comparative study of the creeds of the past. There is nothing of good in Buddhism or Zoroastrianism that has not long ago crystallized around Christianity; and even if there were, faiths are not selected and put on like ready-made clothing, made up from the diversities of a round of theological supply-shops.

GRIMM'S LAW.*

FOR no small time past there has been a pretty regular yearly average of explanations, or attempts at explanation, of Grimm's Law—that is to say, of the law by which Sanskrit *tad* is represented by English *that* and German *das*, with all the other facts that are akin to this. If Mr. Douse has devised the true explanation, and if other people can be made to see it, the average, it may be hoped, will dwindle henceforth. But we are by no means sanguine as to the prospect of such a result.

A marked peculiarity of Mr. Douse's book is its predilection for mathematical symbols and formulas. Thus, the surd mutes (*t*, etc.) to him are **H**; the sonant (*d*, etc.) are **S**; the aspirate (*th*, etc.) are **A**. Then the classical or *tad*-system is Σ_x; the Low-German or *that*-system is Σ_y; and the High-German or *das*-system is Σ_z; and so on. The innovation will hardly be welcomed by the students of language; their education and habits of mind are such that they cannot avoid losing both time and patience in the necessary translation in every case of the symbol used into what it stands for. Probably they would submit to the inconvenience if anything were really gained by the new method, in point either of fundamental clearness or of accurate reasoning; but that this is the case may be confidently denied. Historical conditions and relations are not to be dealt with like mathematical quantities. If, for example, Mr. Douse had not accustomed himself to contemplating his three systems in the shape of the signs reported above, signs obviously bare of all chronological character, it is hardly to be credited that he would, as he does, deny that any one of the three is older or more original than the others. "It is manifest," he says (p. 6), "that no reason can be urged for or against the priority of one system which may not be urged with exactly equal force for or against the priority of each of the others." Their relationship, in fact, we are taught to regard as simply "cyclo-functional" (p. 7).

No one of the three systems, to be sure, is strictly primeval. To the first period belongs only the surd mute (*t*, etc.) The grand original is *tat;* and the others are discordant variations of this, wrought by the "Principle of Least Effort," or the tendency to make pronunciation easier. The phonological basis of Mr. Douse's theories, determining the mode of working of this principle, is established by him with the greatest ease in the course of two sentences. Thus:

"The difference between the Hard and Soft mutes (Tenues and Mediæ) resolves itself *roughly* into the greater or less energy or muscular tension with which they are produced, so that their relative strength is *well enough* indicated by their names. The Aspirates *seem* to have differed originally from the Pure (*i.e.*, unaspirated) mutes by giving way very slightly—and, except to a fine ear, *perhaps* imperceptibly—to the *vis a tergo* supplied by the puff of breath which, in the utterance of the Pure mutes, was completely arrested" (p. 10; the italics, except Latin, are ours).

This is the whole story; and the passage is enough by itself to define the character and determine the reception of the work. On such subjects one must have distinct views, and defensible ones, and not merely dim erroneous impressions, if he is to contribute anything of value to the history of sounds.

In order to obtain a principle which shall account for the peculiar correlation of the mutes involved in Grimm's Law—all the *t*'s of the first system being *th*'s in the second, and *d*'s in the third, and so on—Mr. Douse has recourse to a number of facts in modern English phonetic history; the principal ones being the well-known "cockney" interchange of *v* and *w*, and of initial *h* and non-*h*. This is, of course, a good and acceptable method, provided the facts are carefully studied and correctly traced to their causes, and provided their analogies are soundly applied. But Mr. Douse's mode of procedure seems to be open to serious objections. In the first place, he does not appear to have made any independent study of these peculiar usages at all; for aught that we can see, his knowledge of them is derived from such authentic sources as the conversations of Mr. Sam Weller; or, let us say, from the caricaturing stories and newspapers. Then his explanation and application is, as nearly as we can epitomize it, as follows:

There is among a certain grade of English speakers—namely, the lower grade, of uneducated or spontaneous speakers—a tendency to pronounce (taking one of the two cases referred to above) the *v*-sound as a *w*. Being, however, all the time in the presence and under the influence of another part of the community which utters the *v* properly, and being uneasily conscious that they are not doing the thing as it ought to be done, they have awakened within them a "Dissimilating Sentiment," which results in a process of "Cross Compensation." That is to say, they know they are wrong in giving *v* as *w*, and they try to do otherwise; but they do not succeed in restoring the *v*-sound; their attempt somehow expends itself entirely on the original and proper *w*'s, which are changed into *v*'s; and thus the two sounds are made to exchange places everywhere. Now, then, let the two sections of the community part company and settle in different localities, and we shall find in the world two related dialects, each saying *v* where the other says *w*, and *w* where the other says *v*. Generalize this, and make it involve a triple instead of a double dissimilation, and the phenomena of Grimm's Law are accounted for. The original community once said unanimously *tat;* then a certain part of it (afterward known as Low-Germans) began in certain words to ease a *t* down to *th*, saying, for example, *that;* and another part (High-Germans), about the same time, softened a *t* to *d*, and, queerly enough, in precisely the same set of words—putting, for example, *dat* over against *that*. Then awoke, as between these two sections, the Dissimilating Sentiment; differing in these altered sounds, they could not be satisfied without differing also in the rest, and so the proleptic High-Germans began to say *das*. Then the infection spread to those who had thus far adhered to the original *tat;* they were not so deficient in Sentiment that they should not Dissimilate likewise; and they turned *tat* into *tad*. Now, it will readily be seen the three sections of dissimilators have only to sort themselves carefully out, and go and settle down together far apart one from the other, and Grimm's Law is established.

If the theory, as thus compendiously stated, has an almost amusingly unlikely aspect, the fault, we believe, is its own; certainly, we have done our best not to distort it in the process of reduction. It is often the case

* 'Grimm's Law: a Study; or, Hints toward an Explanation of the so-called Lautverschiebung; to which are added some remarks on the primitive Indo-European *A*, and several appendices. By T. Le Marchant Douse.' London: Trübner & Co. 1876. 8vo, pp. xvi, 213.

that a hypothesis which makes a fair show when spread in a diluted form over a hundred pages, appears repellent when concentrated within the limits of a paragraph or two. Our objections to some of the leading points in it may be here more fully and formally presented. In the first place, we have no faith in the accuracy of Mr. Douse's account of the cockney so-called interchanges. It is a great pity that he or some other Londoner does not take them up for a really penetrating scientific investigation, and let us see just what they are, and what kind of phonetic corruption they illustrate. That there is a downright interchange at all, a Cross Compensation, as he calls it, we see as yet no good reason for believing. He himself drops at one point (p. 47) a remark which lights up the subject not a little, in a way wholly unfavorable to his views. "With respect to the *h*," he says, "I have frequently observed a fact of some interest, viz., that when a group of deaspirators are talking together, an *h* is rarely heard at all; but when any of them begin to talk with people of superior education, they also begin to adorn their conversation with a frantic sprinkling of *h*'s in the wrong places, in order (as they suppose) to adapt their language to their listeners." There does not appear to be, in fact, either in Mr. Douse's account, or in that of any one else, anything which necessitates another explanation than the following: Those who drop the *h*, or turn *v* into *w*, know that they are the uncultivated and incorrect speakers, and that in these particulars they are incurring the condemnation of a class to whom they look up with reverence as their superiors. For this reason they strive, sporadically, to follow the better way; but, not knowing what it is, they are as often wrong as right, both by omission and by commission; in restoring their *h*'s, for example, they half the time put them on where they do not belong, while still dropping a corresponding proportion of those that ought to be heard. We, of course, who know what is right and what is wrong, are particularly struck by the cases of error in either respect; and so it comes to seem to us that there is an interchange when there is really only a confusion. If this is not a true statement of the case, let Mr. Douse or some one else demonstrate its error. At present advices, we fail to discover anything in the least satisfactory in his two determining principles, or to see how an exchange of two related sounds, through the whole range of their occurrence, could possibly be brought about in such a way.

But, even allowing its possibility in the circumstances of London life, we cannot see how the conditions of Indo-European unity should have been such as to produce it. Civilization and instruction make a confessedly superior class, whose restraining and directing influence is felt by the inferior classes; but to assume that anything like this should have been the case in a primitive community is little short of absurd. What in all the world should have broken up the Indo-Europeans into their three divisions, and at the same time have held them together, to act and react upon one another? Mr. Douse's belief in this direction is illimitable; to him (p. 70) "not only the wider Classical and High-German dialects, but their component subdialects," are entities existing as such in the Indo-European community; and the successful attainment of the surd-aspirate in Greek he regards as "no more than might be expected from the fine ear which distinguished the later Greeks, and which was, no doubt, a characteristic of their earlier progenitors." We confess ourselves absolutely unable to conceive of a community having a constitution in the remotest degree resembling this.

Then, as a thing of course, Mr. Douse sees no difficulty in the fact that these dialectic sections and subsections, since they existed already as independent unities in the Indo-European entirety, are found later, each by itself, in geographical locations a few hundred or a few thousand miles apart. To support his views here, he quotes with approval from a highly respectable German authority (p. 78, note) what appears to us one of the most preposterous suggestions ever thrown out, even in the realm of linguistics—namely, that the differences among the Indo-European languages have not arisen as a consequence of the separation of the races who speak them, "but that these communities became estranged from one another by the formation of dialects, and only in consequence of this estrangement entered upon their more distant migrations"! That is to say (for there is nothing like a concrete example to illustrate the value of such a dogma), the differences of speech which now distinguish the English from their Low-German brethren were developed in the earliest centuries of our era; and Hengist and Horsa set out for Britain under the impulse of an estranged feeling which could not be satisfied short of the putting of a minor ocean between them and the perverse people who refused to talk as they did. It seems odd, we may add, that our Americanisms—which, heinous though they be in the eyes of our British cousins, are yet of much less bulk and importance than the peculiarities of Frisian and Dutch—should have forced our ancestors across an ocean so much broader. Seriously, we may defy Mr. Douse to point out a more extreme example of that well-known philosophy which sees a special Providence in the fact that the great rivers have been made to run past the great cities.

But we are spending more time upon Mr. Douse's theories than their importance deserves. The most valuable part of his volume is that in which he refutes the claims of the explanations which have preceded his own. Their demolition, to be sure, was no difficult task, but he has successfully contributed his share toward accomplishing it. It is, however, clear enough that he has put nothing in their place which can stand.

A Critical History of the Late American War. By A. Mahan. With an Introductory Letter by Lieut.-General M. W. Smith. (New York, Chicago, and New Orleans: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1877.)—A man of much leisure and of much fondness for the discussion of military matters may well take this book in hand. The general reader will probably let it alone. A book of some five hundred pages of military criticism is a solemn thing, and this book, though not so absolutely colorless as Jomini's works, is far from being entertaining, as a rule. There is, however, an attractive mystery about the volume. Who is Dr. Mahan? We do not know, and he does not tell us; and yet he tells us that he had the ear of the President, Secretary Chase, Messrs. Sumner, Chandler, the historian Bancroft, and General McDowell while our war was going on, and was constantly giving them advice about the conduct of it which was not only sage but was recognized by them as such, and not only accepted with judicial calm but hailed with rapturous enthusiasm. And who is Lieutenant-General Smith, who from the seclusion of the United Service Club, Pall Mall, gives the book mild commendation and intimates that he doesn't know much about the matter himself, but imagines that the perusal of the book may lead people to think about its subject, and that if they do think about it this may prove (in these critical and uncertain times, he cautiously adds) a beneficial exercise of the intellect? Who is General Smith, whose hand thus wields the pen in the impenetrable recesses of the United Service Club? What marches, sieges, battles has he known that his well-earned rest, three thousand miles away, is disturbed in order to tell us Americans what we are to think of what one of ourselves, "not a military man," has written about our generals and our war? And is it quite proper to criticise the work of a man who sets out by stating that in the preparation of the book before us it has been his fixed aim "to exemplify the ideal represented by the words *impartial historic criticism*"? Is he, after all, an American, and does he speak and write English as his vernacular? If so, why does he say "national reprobacy" and "extactic effect," and what does he mean by these strange phrases? And why is he so bumptious? Why does he think that he is able, at this time of day, to add to the knowledge of this nation as to how our war should have been conducted? Did he (and why did he) "often remark" to Mr. Lincoln, "My life upon the issue if Richmond shall not be in our hands, and the army of General Lee captured or utterly dispersed within three months from the present time, provided you will order the combinations proposed to be made"? Is it true that in his opinions "such men as General McDowell, the corps commanders of the Army of the Potomac, and leading thinkers in Washington, perfectly agreed"? What is 'Victor's History of the Rebellion;' which is referred to as a conclusive authority? Some of us have been collecting books about the war ever since they began to be published, and yet have never so much as heard of this work of weight. Is it worth while to pay much attention to the utterances of a writer who calls the Federal levies in Missouri (of all places) in June, 1861, "perfectly disciplined troops," and who says that in the summer of the same year, "in Missouri, in the Peninsula, before Washington, in Northern and Western Virginia, our newly-disciplined troops evinced all the courage, steadiness, and energy of disciplined veterans"? What more delicious than such fatuous sentences as the following: "We have suggested but one plan for the disposition and movement of our forces for the suppression of the Rebellion in Virginia. Other dispositions and movements equally felicitous will readily suggest themselves to every reflecting mind"? "Equally felicitous" is good; but it is all good.

Such questions and many others present themselves to the wondering reader, and make his head feel like a distracted globe indeed. Has the author or has the reviewer eaten of the insane root? And the perplexity is increased by the occasional appearance, in the midst of truisms, ab-

surdities, errors, nonsense, exaggerations, and a reckless confidence for which any name short of "cheek" seems feeble, of gleams of sense. It may be that the book has real merit. It seems to improve as it goes on; but the season is against it, and we have read only about a quarter of it, and must leave unanswered the many questions we have proposed. A man is not to be dismissed with utter inattention who has written so good a sentence as this about McClellan: "With him, it was far more safe to fight the whole of Lee's army with the whole of his own than to fight less than one-half of that army with two-thirds of his own." But can we expect impartial criticism from one who lavishly praises Pleasanton and Hooker, and, above all, Fremont? Can we expect instruction from a writer who says that every plan he criticises is the worst one conceivable, and says this of one plan three times in three pages, and is apt to declare that this or that thing is without a parallel in history?

The Washington-Crawford Letters, from 1767 to 1781, concerning Western lands. By C. W. Butterfield. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1877.)—Washington was entitled, as an officer in the French (or Seven Years') war, to his share of two hundred thousand acres of land on the Ohio which Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, in order to stimulate enlistments, had granted in 1754, with the subsequent approval of the king. In his military career and as a surveyor Washington had acquired a correct notion of the value of the river bottoms from Fort Pitt to the mouth of the Great Kanawha, and thought them a safe investment for his capital. For the private pre-empting of his French-war claim as well as the selection of lands for speculation proper, he relied upon the skill and discretion of his friend, William Crawford, whom he admitted to a share in the profits of the venture. Crawford was a Virginian who had learnt surveying of Washington, and practised that and agriculture and the art of war as occasion determined. He was, at the opening of this correspondence, September 21, 1767, living near the Youghiogheny River in what is now Fayette County, Pennsylvania, though at that time Virginia laid claim to the region. The result of the arrangement was that Crawford "took up" for his patron in Fayette County the Great Meadows on the National Road (Braddock's) near the present Pennsylvania line, in all 234 acres; a tract adjacent to his own near the Youghiogheny (1,644 acres, with a mill-seat), afterwards known as Washington's Bottom; 3,000 acres in Washington County, south of Pittsburgh; 1,000 acres, at Round Bottom, fifteen miles below Wheeling; and 32,373 acres on the Ohio and Great Kanawha—"the cream of the country in which they are," to use Washington's words in 1794, at which date he was in possession of the whole, but was desirous to sell out, "the experience of many years" having taught him that distant property in land was "more pregnant of perplexities than profit." Indian forays were among these perplexities, which are graphically described in the letters of Crawford's brother Valentine, who looked after Washington's interests when the lands had been once acquired. These letters are contained in the Appendix, and are more readable than the main correspondence, which was cut short by the death of William Crawford. As colonel he had in 1782 undertaken a campaign against the Wyandot Indians of the Sandusky, and suffered for the sins of other enemies of the red man by being tortured to death in the most shocking manner.

One finds in these letters many incidental glimpses of the manners of the time—the border lawlessness, the squatter troubles, the steady wave of westward-pushing emigrants, interrupted and sent surging back in panic by the dreaded inroads of the savages. "I intend public housekeeping," writes Wm. Crawford in January, 1774, "and I am prepared for it now; as I can live no longer without that or ruining myself—such numbers constantly travel the [National] road, and nobody keeping anything for horses but myself. Some days, now, if I had rum, I could make three pounds." In November of the same year he writes Washington: "One favor I would ask of you, if it suits. When those negroes of Mercer's are sold (and they are to be sold on a credit of twelve months), I would be glad to purchase a boy and girl about fourteen or fifteen years old each, or older, if such are sold; though I would not have you put yourself to any trouble more for me than suits you." Another species of servitude will surprise most readers as having lasted so long in this country. Here is Valentine Crawford's advertisement (July 25, 1774) of a fugitive for whose capture he offers five pounds reward:

"Run away from the subscriber, living on Jacob's Creek, near Stewart's Crossing, in Westmoreland County, Pennsylvania, on Sunday night, the 24th instant, a convict servant-man, named William Orr, the property of Col. George Washington. He is a well-made man, about five feet ten inches high, and about twenty-four years of age. He was born in Scotland, and speaks that dialect pretty much. He is of a red complexion, and very full-faced, with short, sandy-colored hair, and very remarkable thumbs, they being both crooked. He had on . . . one pair of trowsers, made in sailor's fashion—and they are made of sail duck, and have not been washed," etc., etc.

Mr. Butterfield, from his full knowledge of Ohio Valley history, has annotated these letters to the great advantage of the reader, and has pointed out their value as supplying some missing links in that history. We may add that the Washington-Crawford correspondence will be made much clearer if read in connection with the Historical Map of Pennsylvania published two years ago by the Pennsylvania Historical Society; and that the map in its turn can be made still more minute in its next edition with the help of Mr. Butterfield's volume.

The Childhood of the English Nation; or, the Beginnings of English History. By Ella S. Armitage. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877. 12mo, pp. 247.)—This is an admirable little book, containing in a compendious and attractive form the results of recent scholarship, chiefly based upon Stubbs and Freeman, while far from being a mere compilation. The author's range of study is wide, and she possesses the power of skilfully combining her varied materials; but, more than this, she reasons for herself upon the forces of society and the movement in civilization, and her remarks upon points of this kind are always suggestive and valuable. Her authorities, as contained in a list at the end of the volume, are chiefly English; with the most recent German scholarship she appears acquainted only through the medium of English writers, which is certainly for the most part enough for her purpose, as their views have been well digested by Prof. Stubbs. We note that Gneist's 'Das Self-Government in England' is cited as 'Geschichte der Self-Government.'

These writers have been studied carefully and thoroughly, as is manifest upon every page; nevertheless, on some points the author has failed to comprehend their views fully. For instance, the primitive organization of Teutonic society is constantly described as of the type of the *clan*—evidently from a want of clearly appreciating that clanhood is but one of the phases into which the primitive family institutions passed. It was a Celtic institution (and here, as in so many other things, the Celts have a strong resemblance to the early Romans), but there is no evidence or likelihood that the Germanic races passed through this stage as here defined (p. 3): "The members of the clan were bound together by blood-relationship, and the chief of the clan succeeded to more or less of the patriarchal authority held by the father in his family." She adds: "Among some nations the authority of the chief was greatly limited by the self-governing power which the clan itself had developed." But in that case—peculiarly in the Teutonic race—it was no *clan*, in the true sense of the word, but a *nation*. This is not a mere question of words; it is the most significant fact in the political career of the two races that the Celts passed into stages of the clan and stopped there, while the Teutons early cut loose from the family principle of organization, and developed the village and the nation.

Again, the author has misconceived Sir Henry Maine's theory of the origin of feudalism, which is not, as here represented (p. 39), that the feudal relation had primarily a *personal* origin growing out of clanhood; that "the lord and his followers were another imitation of the family." On the contrary, Sir Henry Maine says in the most positive terms ('Early History of Institutions,' p. 86): "The link between lord and vassal produced by commendation is of quite a different kind from that produced by consanguinity. When the relation which it created had lasted some time there would have been no deadlier insult to the lord than to attribute to him a common origin with the great bulk of his tenants." He has not attempted to controvert the accepted view that the most essential feature of feudalism was the tenure of land; "that the land is the foundation of the feudal system," he says, "has, of course, been long and fully recognized" (*ib.* p. 85). His great merit upon this head is that he has seen more clearly than any other writer with whom we are acquainted that feudalism—strictly as a system of land tenure—had a social as well as a political (or, as he calls it, *official*) origin ('Village Communities,' p. 132). The transformation of the allodial mark into the feudal manor or *Frohnhof* is a side of the subject which is not touched by such writers as Guizot and Roth, and which Sir Henry Maine, though not its discoverer, has been principally instrumental in placing in its true light. It was a transformation not of a group of persons, but of a piece of land occupied by a group of persons.

We find the statement on p. 79 that "in Gaul, too, the Franks at first had their popular assemblies, the meetings of the county and of the hundred"; it is fully established, especially by Sohm's researches, that the Frank county (Gau) had no assemblies. On the next page it is stated, as if it were an innovation, that "since the time of Athelstan it had been made law that every man should be in pledge; that is, that he should find some one to answer for him in case he were accused of any crime." But this principle of collective responsibility is much older than Athelstan, who simply put on record a usage of immemorial antiquity. It is said on page 118 that "every five hides must send a fully-armed man for forty days' service." This is confusing the agricultural and feudal unit of land. The hide was a *quantity* of land, the full share of a "markman"; the "knight's fee," which owed forty days' military service, was a *value* of land; that is, twenty pounds a year—*averaging*, no doubt, about five hides.

We have no fault to find with the space given to ecclesiastical affairs, for which the author makes a half apology. Neither do we object to her estimate of the greatness of the service performed by the Church during this period. Only there was another side which, for the early period, she overlooks. Gregory VII. was a great man and a great reformer; but he was also a great politician, and he loved power. Laymen, too, had their share in advancing civilization, and Alfred and Henry II. could as little be spared as the Gregorys and Bernards.

Mrs. Armitage follows Mr. Freeman in saying "Old-English" for "Anglo-Saxon," but she refuses to say *Aelfred* or *Eadwine*, on the reasonable ground that this "is to put him further off from us than if we called him Edwin or Alfred." For the great battle, too, she uses the familiar name Hastings, not Senlac.

A Domestic Cyclopædia of Practical Information. Edited by Todd S. Goodholme. Illustrated. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. 652.)—The main objects of this compilation would be fairly comprehended under the heads of medicine and cooking; but, in fact, nothing that pertains to the home, whether directly or indirectly, is foreign to its purpose. We ought to qualify this statement by adding that no place is given to abstractions like Cheerfulness, Discipline (though Corporal Punishment might well have been treated from the physiological point of view, at least, under the head of Children), Manners, Method, Music (we only find Pianoforte—care of), or the like. Of course there are plenty of general topics, such as Clothing, Drainage, Floriculture, Heating, Ventilation, etc., but the writers go straight to the mark, which is the "practical information" promised in the title of the work. The nearest approach to a disquisition is Mr. Geo. Fletcher Babb's admirable article on Decoration as applied to walls, floors, and furniture; but anybody who masters its condensed, unpretentious exposition of principles will find it one of the most practical of all this cyclopædia's guides to right living. Mr. Babb is one of half a dozen experts whose names are published in connection with the editor's, and are a guaranty of the soundness of their doctrine. In the medical department, for example, we have Drs. Austin Flint, jr., Jacobi, and Lusk; for the culinary department Mrs. E. S. Miller and Giuseppe Rudmani are responsible; Col. Geo. E. Waring, jr., deals with drainage, the garden, the dairy, etc., etc. Many single articles produced under these auspices are worth the price of the work, and there are very few households in which the compilation as a whole would not have a daily usefulness. Its range, in addition to what we have already said, will be indicated by the following enumeration of typical articles: Argand lamp; Drowned—to restore the apparently; Fuchsias; Furnishing—of a house, with price-lists; Gamboge (for its medicinal property); House-building; Law—deeds, interest, wills, etc.; Parrots; Rheumatism; Scrapple; Seasickness; Servants; "Shammy" (see Chamois-skin); Shirts; Spectacles; Turkish bath; Watch—care of; Weights and measures, including metric, etc. etc.

Essays in Literary Criticism. By Richard Holt Hutton. (Philadelphia: Jos. H. Coates & Co.)—Mr. Hutton is perhaps better known for his admirable papers on theology than for any literary work. In his impersonal character, as editor of the London *Spectator*, he is of influence on the world of literature, the world of English politics, and the world of religious enquiry; but of the three, perhaps his most remarkable achievement is in finding something fresh and of living interest to say about religious belief, and the absence of religious belief, in his own time and his own sphere. Perhaps the only thoughts on these subjects that the great body of thinking men care to examine are the thoughts of believing laymen; for such is the extraordinary position in which belief and doubt find themselves, that men are asking that their old beliefs may now, once more, be proved to be credible. And these thoughts of a layman of large cultivation, of liberality, of sympathy with many forms of doubt, and, finally, of assured belief, are to be found in the *Spectator*, and, more concentrated and more carefully developed, in Mr. Hutton's essays. He published two volumes a few years ago, under the title 'Essays, Theological and Literary,' of which the second volume alone contained literary essays; and it is this volume which has been in part republished, with one additional essay, by Messrs. Coates & Co. It is to be hoped that the remainder of the literary essays, and more that might be collected, will be republished in America. Of the theological papers we have already expressed our estimation.

If it is possible to give to one who has read nothing of a great author any idea of that author's works, of what they contain, of wherein they are distinguished from others, of what the reader may find in them at first and after study—it is well to have it given in an accessible shape; there are so many people who have a little time, but not much, for study, and who know not whither to turn. It is a fact that many persons of active pursuits, but inclined to study, are kept from it, insensibly, by the absence in their experience of a strong invitation to any one subject or any one author, together with the omnipresence of temptations to trifling amusements. Many persons would no doubt follow a lead strongly marked out for them. More than that, it is known that they do so, especially in youth, and that the example of some admired professor or lecturer in college, or a writer of fascinating style, counts for much in the determination of the pursuits of a life-time. From this point of view we are inclined to judge Mr. Hutton's book very favorably. It contains a long and really admirable essay on Goethe and his influence, one nearly as long on George Eliot's writings, and four more on Nathaniel Hawthorne, the poetry of Matthew Arnold, Wordsworth, and Arthur Hugh Clough. Of all these we think the first the best—still from the point of view we have taken in this present writing. To know something about Goethe, his greatness and his smallness, what his works contain of each, what they contain of information, of inspiration, of philosophical thought, of poetical glory, what "high and enduring pleasure" they are capable of affording the reader—to know all this, we think Hutton's essay the thing to read. It will send the reader direct to Lewes and to Arnold, and to some attempt to struggle with the author himself; but it will in itself do much to tell him whether, after all, it is Goethe that his spirit needs the most. Perhaps he will find within the same covers that which will rather guide him to the feet of Wordsworth. Perhaps, as has happened to persons to whom the German language is a crutch and not a limb, he has tried 'Wilhelm Meister' in the original, and with Carlyle's translation to help, and has suffered disappointment and felt self-distrust at finding so famous a book so dull and so sublimely inhuman. If so, Mr. Hutton will tell him what relation 'Wilhelm Meister' bears to the other works of the author, and what there is to look for outside of that single work. The critical examination of the relative standing of the different works of Goethe seems to us to be very well done.

The essay on Wordsworth is full of instruction. Wordsworth's divine genius is hidden from too many English readers by masses of commonplace, almost as Goethe's by a foreign tongue. The paper before us is really a capital guide to the maze. If one knows by heart all the poems by Wordsworth to be found in the 'Golden Treasury,' and desires to step further forward into the sea of the six volumes, let him read and perpend what Mr. Hutton has to say.

The other four papers deal with authors either living or lately dead, and whose fame has not yet become established. We must take these essays more for suggestion and ask of them less final and assured judgment. They seem, moreover, to be of unequal value. The close familiarity with his author which, in his preface, Mr. Hutton seems to make the standard for his work is less marked in some of these—as, for instance, in the essay on Clough—than in the papers we have been discussing. It is not merely that, on page 157, the poem beginning "Come back again, my olden heart," is taken to mean what it surely does not mean, and four lines of it quoted to prove that which was a fact, no doubt, in Clough's life, but which these lines hardly bear upon; there is in the whole essay something wanting to the full expression of Clough's poetical genius and of its relation to modern thought.

The Life and Industrial Labors of William Wheelwright in South America. By J. B. Albérdi (late Minister of the Argentine Republic to France and England). Translated from the Spanish with

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additional Memoranda. With an Introduction by the Hon. Caleb Cushing, United States Minister to Spain. (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) —This biography is, for the most part, Mr. Cushing informs us in his introduction, a translation by one of Mr. Wheelwright's relatives of Mr. Albérdi's book. Mr. Wheelwright, though a native of the United States, passed the better part of his life in South America, where he was the pioneer in most of the great works of internal improvement which have done so much of recent years for the progress of that continent. He was born in Newburyport, Massachusetts, in the year 1798, and was educated at Andover. From the date of his birth to the time when he reached the age of twenty-five years little seems to be known about him, or at any rate little is told by Señor Albérdi. From an appendix, supplied we presume by his relative, it appears that he was as a mere boy fond of adventure, and went to sea very early in one of his father's vessels. In 1823, when twenty-five years of age, and when he had already made many voyages, he took command of the ship *Rising Empire*, bound for the La Plata. The ship went ashore near the mouth of the river, became a total wreck, and Mr. Wheelwright found himself at Buenos Ayres in a destitute condition. From that time to the date of his death, fifty years later, his life is part, and a great part, of the history of the material development of South America. Railways, steamship lines, harbor improvements, mines, owe their existence to him, and it may be imagined that Señor Albérdi's book is written in a tone of grateful admiration. Mr. Wheelwright belongs to a class of men of whom England and this country have in this century produced many—who to the old love of adventure which animated the discoverers of three centuries ago, unite the philanthropic and benevolent spirit peculiar to our day, and combine with the courage of a soldier a desire to benefit others, and to leave the world better for their having been part of it. Of an honorable place in the ranks of these industrial benefactors of the world Mr. Wheelwright is already assured.

The Two Americas: An Account of Sport and Travel. With notes on men and manners in North and South America. By Major Sir Rose Lambert Price, Bart., F.R.G.S. (late R.M.L.I.); with Illustrations. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.)—Sir Rose Price, who has travelled rapidly through much of North and South America, has produced a book which is very like the talk of a sensible man of good education who has seen enough of the world to know that all countries have their vices and their virtues, and is not Bohemian or cynic or fool enough to have reached the conclusion that virtue and vice are convertible terms. His style is the conversational English of the present time, which a little less slang would make good, and a little more detestably vulgar, English. Major Price is free from prejudices; likes America; considers the California drivers "the finest 'whips' in creation"; dislikes universal suffrage, and the habit of expectoration; speaks warmly of the kindness and civility he met with; declares that there is not a "commonly decent glass of wine" to be had in California; is enthusiastic over the salmon and trout-fishing on the Sacramento; thinks the trowel-bayonet ought to be introduced into the English army, and that our management of the Indian problem is not much to our credit. In most of his opinions the educated American will find little to quarrel with, while for people fond of shooting and fishing or travelling the book contains many useful hints and suggestions.

The Prince of Wales in India; or, From Pall Mall to the Punjaub. By J. Drew Gay, special correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph*. (New York: R. Worthington.)—There is something almost melancholy now in Mr. Gay's account of the Prince's trip, fresh as it was a few months ago. The vivid descriptions and picturesque incidents which then delighted the readers of the *Telegraph* have now a stale and flat flavor, such as might be found in some ten-year old account of a turn-out of the Order of the Masons. This effect is partly caused, no doubt, by the character of the source from which the narrative originally comes. Letters to the *Telegraph* are apt, as time goes on, to seem stale in proportion to their original liveliness. Mr. Gay, however, appears to be accurate, and his story is perhaps as good a description of the Prince's progress as any accessible.

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Habberton (J.), Other People's Children	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
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Continued from page iv.

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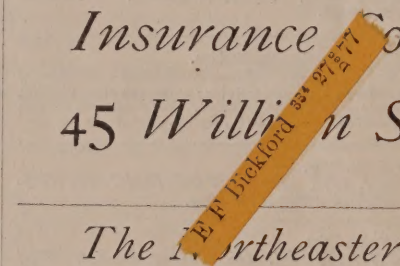

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 9, 1877.

The Week.

THE platform of the Ohio Republicans begins by "reaffirming" the national platform of 1876; then goes on to "reaffirm" the "unfaltering confidence" of the party in Ohio in Mr. Hayes, and to "approve and support his efforts for the pacification of the country and the establishment of its civil service upon a basis of purity and efficiency." It "reaffirms" also the "unalterable purpose" of the party to maintain and enforce the Constitutional amendments, guaranteeing equal rights, irrespective of race or color, and to insist on the "full and effectual performance by the Federal Government, in the execution of all its powers, of its Constitutional obligations in that behalf." The fourth plank disposes of the currency question in language which we shall not attempt to paraphrase. It is as follows:

"*Resolved*, That we are in favor of both silver and gold as money; that both shall be a legal tender for the payment of all debts, except where otherwise specially provided by law, with coining and valuation so regulated that our people shall not be placed at a disadvantage in our trade with foreign nations, and that both metals shall be kept in circulation as the money of the nation, as contemplated by the Constitution; and we therefore demand the remonetization of silver."

The fifth plank opposes all Government railroad subsidies; the sixth opposes the renewal of patents which are "burdensome and oppressive to the masses of the people"; the seventh "views with alarm" the present "disturbed condition of the country," and proposes as a remedy for the labor troubles: 1st, a National Bureau of Industry; 2d, the assumption by Congress of a general supervisory authority over the railroads; 3d, provisions for "statutory arbitration" between employers and employed. We have elsewhere characterized the labor-plank, for which Mr. Stanley Matthews was responsible. The meaning of the currency-plank, or rather the probable result of an attempt on the part of Congress to give effect to it, has been the subject of much irreverent discussion. The failure to allude to resumption is another indication of the division which reigned in the Convention. On the whole, we have seldom seen a more deplorable lack of political courage and consistency than was shown by the makers of this platform. The Convention nominated for governor Judge W. H. West.

Mr. Stanley Matthews and Judge West appeared at a ratification meeting immediately after the adoption of the platform, and made speeches which are far from being to their credit. Judge West's address will bear a very minute examination without revealing anything in the way of a political programme. He apparently has no idea on any subject which he is capable of expressing in words, and appears to think that his strongest claim to public support is the fact that he owns no railroad bonds or stock and no bank stock, but is the son of an "humble mechanic," and received his early education "at the forge, blowing the bellows and wielding the sledge." He made one suggestion which, coming from a Western politician whose words may be presumed to have been affected by the Granger agitation, has a curious sound. He says that the railroads ought to be prohibited "from so reducing their rates by ruinous competition as to disable themselves from paying a just compensation to their operators." Mr. Stanley Matthews's speech was even worse than this, being a piece of unalloyed demagogism. He held up a silver dollar to the crowd, and declared that he was in favor of coining as many of them as might be necessary; that he was also in favor of "gold and silver and greenbacks, and as many as are necessary to oil the machinery which shall keep the great business of the world in free and harmonious action, so that every man shall be busy in keeping up with the wheels of industry." As an illustration of the character of his speech, we may mention that he had the face to cite as precedents for the interference of Congress with the industry of the country the Bureau of Agriculture, which has been the laughing-stock of the newspapers for years, and the Steamboat Inspection Law, which we venture to say no one would dare to use in private conversation, except as a proof of the dangers of Government interference. His speech was, on the whole, little more than an elaboration of the platform. It appears to have received a good deal of searching criticism at the hands of the crowd which listened to it, many pertinent questions and suggestions being volunteered by members of the audience. One citizen suggested that the fundamental difficulty with the plan of statutory arbitration was that "Tom Scott can buy them off again"; while another citizen, on being informed that the American people are "high, lofty, noble, generous, just," and "cannot be purchased," requested to be informed whether "Jim Fisk didn't buy them." This made the orator indignant, and he told the crowd that they "should not judge others by themselves," which, however effective as a repartee, is defective as a political maxim, since almost every advance made in the political art has been made in the same way that this simple-minded Ohio voter prosecutes his political studies—by asking what, under a given state of circumstances, we should ourselves do. Mr. Matthews had almost nothing to say about civil-service reform, of which he had the reputation of being one of the foremost apostles, and confined himself throughout to the lowest appeals to popular prejudice and passion. The prostitution of abilities as unusual as his to such work is a painful spectacle.

The Georgia Convention has met, and is at work remodelling the constitution of the State; few articles have as yet passed, and it is not to be expected that the deliberations of the Convention will do much more than make the government more Democratic than it has been, and introduce some of the usual restrictions on the loan of the State's credit. It is already settled that duelling is to be prohibited, that free schools are to be sustained, that there shall be a tax-paying qualification for suffrage, and that "lobbying" is to be made a crime. The crudeness of the proposals for a remedy of this evil is always curious; for they proceed on the supposition that "lobbying"—or, in other words, the advocacy for hire of particular measures of legislation in which heavy private interests are involved—is a criminal occupation, which can be stopped if the police are efficient, and the penalty is sufficiently serious. Lobbying, however, is in all free countries or states in which the legislatures assume as great powers as ours do a necessary branch of business, and people who have interests to protect can no more help lobbying than they can get along without legal advice. The true way to remove the evils which have grown up with lobbying is to elevate the character of the legislator, put all possible restrictions upon special legislation, and at the same time to make lobbying a recognized calling, by allowing none but reputable men, having a certain standing, to appear before Congressional and legislative committees, and argue their clients' causes without shame and without reproach. The Georgia bondholders' claims have apparently been disposed of out of hand, the committee refusing to grant them a hearing. The chief ground of complaint of the bondholders has always been that they could not get a hearing, so that this way of getting rid of them finally must strike the honest Georgian as a huge practical joke. The creditor is troublesome everywhere, but they know how to deal with him in the South.

The Mississippi Democratic Convention met on Wednesday of last week, and was characterized by size (about 1,100 delegates were present) and enthusiasm. The platform adopted favored "fidelity to

the Constitution of the United States"; home rule; no interference by the military power with the freedom of elections; the protection of equal rights to all classes; no distinction on account of race, etc., and no special legislation; "Jeffersonian" civil-service reform; retrenchment in public expenditures; reduction in the burdens of taxation to the lowest point compatible with an efficient execution of the laws; and a supervision by State authority of corporations of every description, and a subordination of them to State legislation in the interest of and for the protection of the people. The Convention also adopted a resolution pledging the party to the maintenance of the State system of free schools; and, as was expected, a subsidy resolution in favor of the Texas & Pacific Railroad and the Mississippi River levees. Mr. Lamar, in an address to the members of the Convention, assured them that an end had come for the present to the discussion of political questions involving Constitutional law, and the relations of the State to the Federal Government, and of the people to their State governments, which are to be replaced by questions of tariff, trade, commerce, currency, and transportation; and to these he strongly urged Southern statesmen to turn their attention. No better advice could be given.

The manifestations of the strike still continuing when we went to press last week were principally on the Central New Jersey road, the Lake Shore at Cleveland, and the Pittsburgh & Fort Wayne, at the latter city; but on the last two roads work was quietly resumed by Friday morning, and on the first-named by Monday. Among the Pennsylvania miners, however, the strike, instead of abating, increased, until by Friday morning it had spread through the Wyoming, Schuylkill, Shamokin, Lehigh, and Shenandoah districts, and numbered probably from thirty to forty thousand men. At Scranton, on Thursday, the mayor was assaulted and severely injured by rioters, and, as he was defended by volunteer soldiers, who fired upon the mob, several lives were lost. Several thousand soldiers under the immediate command of Governor Hartranft were, however, despatched at once to Scranton, Wilkesbarre, Plymouth, and other points at which violence was apprehended, and no further rioting has taken place. The Lehigh Valley road has discharged all strikers, and work has since been resumed on the road and in the mines connected with it. At present writing, soldiers are still maintaining order in the Pennsylvania coal regions, and the miners are gradually resuming work, although in the Scranton district they are holding out with great stubbornness. With this exception, however, the strike appears to be at last at an end.

Judge Dillon, of the United States Court of Iowa, has written a long letter to Mr. Reynolds, of the Missouri Bar, in reply to the charges made against him by some of the bondholders of the Iowa Central Railroad, in connection with the foreclosure proceedings, and of which we gave a summary in our issue of July 12. He denies or explains them seriatim, and in a manner which, to a layman, certainly seems entirely satisfactory, though of course only a competent tribunal could dispose of them finally. He says the Supreme Court sanctioned his course in granting an appeal on the demand of some of the bondholders, and that he did not, "having first refused it," grant it, as has been alleged, "without any change of circumstances," and gives facts from the record in proof of this. He denies also "having decided first that it was impossible to have the decree corrected or a new decree entered, and decided subsequently exactly the opposite," and shows from the report of his judgment that what he did was to point out to the dissatisfied bondholders the proper course for them to pursue in order to have the decree corrected or a new decree made. He further says that the stay of proceedings which he is accused of having improperly granted was really granted by Judge Miller of the Supreme Court, and that he never granted any stay whatever. As to the delay in the sale, he says the matter has, ever since Judge Miller's order granting a stay was vacated in 1876, lain in the absolute discretion of the trustee, on whom the Court has imposed no restriction whatever. The bondholders who desired a sale pending the appeal, applied for a mandatory order to the trustee to sell, which the trustee opposed, and which Judge Dillon refused to grant, Judge Love, his associate, concurring with him without consultation, the ground of the refusal being unwillingness to interfere with the discretion of the trustee. The road was sold last month.

As to the removal of the competent receiver and the substitution of Mr. J. B. Grinnell, Judge Dillon says that the first receiver was the superintendent of the road, appointed on the request of one of the "warring factions" among the bondholders, that charges against his administration were constantly made supported by affidavits, and that it was evident there would be no peace until he was removed; that Mr. Grinnell was put in his place, and that his character was very high, and that instead of "plundering the road" he hindered others from doing so, and that no charges against him, *supported by affidavits*, were ever made, and the court considered that it would be unjust to a man of his standing to examine charges not so supported. As regards the appointment of Mr. Price, his father-in-law, a commissioner to examine and report on the road, the judge alleges that he was so appointed at the request of all parties among the bondholders, and made a good report and only got $300 for it. As regards Mr. Price's offer to buy the road at 33 cents on the dollar of the mortgages, Judge Dillon very properly remarks that inasmuch as the decree of the court directs the trustee to bid in the road at the sale for the amount of the mortgage debt, Mr. Price's offer to buy it for less was of no sort of consequence, as it could not be accepted, and whether he ever made it or not Judge Dillon does not know. He concludes by calling attention to the fact that none of the counsel in the case have instigated or sanctioned the attacks on him.

The New York banks now hold $54,200,000 legal-tender notes, against $60,300,000 last year and $73,600,000 in 1875. Their reserve now exceeds the amount required by law by only $13,600,000, whereas a year ago the excess was $23,800,000, in 1875 $27,100,000, and in 1874 $30,400,000. Considering that the crops in all sections are large, and that soon the New York banks will be applied to by their Southern and Western correspondents for aid in getting them to market; further, that the Treasury is properly pursuing a contraction policy, and that the mercantile demand for money independently of what will be required directly for the crops will probably be larger than usual, it is not strange that bankers look for much higher rates for money, and would not be surprised at even a stringent market before the middle of November.

The British Parliament has been the scene of some extraordinary proceedings during the past week, owing to the determined efforts of seven Irish members to prevent the passage of a bill providing for the creation of a "South African Confederation" annexing the Dutch Republic of Transvaal to the Cape Colonies. As the bulk of the small body of Boers who compose the Transvaal Republic were opposed to the annexation, the Home-Rulers found in their case a certain analogy to that of Ireland, and determined to defeat the measure, not by argument or eloquence, but by a trial of physical strength, in the form called here "filibustering," and therefore on the evening of Tuesday week, at six o'clock, the bill being in Committee of the Whole, began making motions to "report progress," and calling for divisions. The Government having been prepared for this by previous tactics of the same sort, arrangements were made as the evening passed to wear the Irishmen out by dividing the rest of the House into squads to relieve each other; and so the moving and dividing went on until noon on Wednesday, when the obstructionists gave way. The bill was finally passed at two o'clock, and the House adjourned at six, after a continuous session of twenty-six hours. There were twenty-two divisions in the same number of hours, and the chairman was four times relieved. The final surrender appears to have been the result of a threat of the Chancellor of the Exchequer that when the Marquis of Harting-

ton, the leader of the Opposition, came into the House to second the motion he would move the suspension of the recalcitrants.

As to the merits of the matter, it is to be said, first, that the Boers, who are a small body of whites barbarized by long and remote residence in the heart of Africa, and are guilty of savage treatment of the Caffres by whom they are surrounded, had let their political organization go to pieces, could raise no taxes and had no army, and had been worsted in some small conflicts with the natives, and were threatened with a general rising of the most warlike Caffre tribes, who would probably have overpowered them and have carried fire and sword along the whole frontier. British assistance thus became necessary, but protection without responsibility was refused, and the column which entered the Republic to keep order took possession of the government. It is therefore hard to see what there is in the case to excite the sympathy of Irishmen, and harder still to see the propriety of showing sympathy by filibustering. A member is sent to Parliament to speak and vote, and not to engage in walking matches or matches of wakefulness. But, besides this and behind it, the Home-Rulers desire to furnish their constituents with proof of their hostility to Englishmen, and probably by perpetual irritation to create a disposition among Englishmen to get rid of them. Mr. Parnell, one of the obstructionists, further alleges that they have the lofty purpose of putting a stop to the transaction of business after midnight, considering it as injurious to the health of members, and as leading to hasty and careless legislation. Probably a stronger motive than all is the desire to annoy the English side of the House for its indifference in Irish questions to Irish opinion, a long-standing grievance, which, however, has much excuse, both in the hopeless division of Irish opinion and in the extent to which it is shaped by foreign and anti-constitutional influences.

On Tuesday, July 31, the right wing of the Russian army in Bulgaria suffered a severe defeat at Plevna, about twenty miles S.S.W. of Nicopolis. Some twelve days before, General Krüdener, commanding the Ninth corps, had been repulsed there with heavy loss by Osman Pasha. The position of the latter seriously threatened the right flank of the Russians, while Mehemet Ali's forces were slowly feeling their way to assail the left. If the Russian operations were to be continued on both sides of the Balkans, one of these enemies had to be forced far back or crippled. It was evidently easier to put Osman out of the way, whose base, Widdin, was both remote and isolated. But the attack was made with insufficient forces, and those including mainly the Ninth corps, which was to a degree demoralized by its former defeat. According to the correspondent of the London *Daily News*, a very competent eye-witness, whose telegraphic report has been transmitted across the ocean, the attacking army consisted of 32,000 infantry and three brigades of cavalry, with 160 guns, a rather disproportionately large amount of artillery. The Turkish position, in a kind of horse-shoe form around Plevna, with both flanks resting on the river Vid, west of the town, was a naturally very strong one, and it was held by a force estimated superior to the Russian in numbers, and, as the fighting has shown, not inferior in obstinate valor. The attack was begun about 9.30 A.M. of the 31st—for there was no fighting on the 30th, all reports to the contrary notwithstanding—by Baron Krüdener, commanding the right, whose task it was to force the Turkish centre at Grivitza, east of Plevna, and the adjoining north flank, while Prince Shakhovski was to take Radishevo, south-east of Plevna, and two minor detachments were to shield the Russian flanks from counter assaults.

We have a spirited and probably trustworthy account of the action under the lead of Shakhovski, who was accompanied by the correspondent of the *News*, while of Krüdener we are only briefly told that he silenced the Turkish cannon at Grivitza, but spent the whole afternoon in unavailing endeavors to force the Turks from their earthworks, desisting after dark, after having suffered considerable loss. Krüdener was, perhaps, slow; "Shakhovski was rash." He easily carried Radishevo, and with an apparently total disregard of the operations on his right, as well as of the cost in blood, stormed two successive positions before him, but was unable to hold the second, and finally his troops fell back, shattered and decimated, before the advancing Turks, and late in the evening the retreat became a flight in the wildest confusion, the general himself and his staff losing their way, and many of the fugitives running as far as Sistova. Both wings next day fell back upon or even behind the Osma River, but, according to the latest reports, they have since reoccupied the positions held before the battle, Krüdener being at Turkish-Trstenik and Shakhovski at Poradim. Their losses are officially admitted at St. Petersburg to have exceeded 5,000, a figure which may be considerably below the mark. Something like a panic prevailed at Sistova and Simnitza after the battle, and wild apprehensions were given vent to by the correspondents at the Russian headquarters generally. To say the least, the defeat was a disaster which deranged all the sanguine speculations indulged in before. Some sudden outbursts of fear also divulged the fact that the Russian forces at Tirnova, at Gabrova, the north entrance to the Shipka pass, and elsewhere were far from being as strong as was formerly supposed at a distance. The safety of the troops south of the Balkans seemed to be gravely compromised.

The Emperor Alexander, not satisfied with hurrying on to the line of the Osma scattered detachments from Rumania and reinforcements from less exposed positions in Bulgaria, immediately after the battle ordered by ukase the mobilization of the entire imperial guard and several other divisions, and the march of the bulk of them, without delay, from the interior of Russia to the Danube. Another ukase, dated Biela, July 22 (probably O. S.), decreed a levy of 188,000 of the landwehr. It is also reported that General Zimmermann's army was recalled from the Dobrudja, where its movements had become feebly tentative; that the active co-operation of the entire Rumanian army was asked for; and that General Gourko was directed to retire from beyond the Balkans, guarding only the Shipka pass. Whether so directed or not, Gourko has been compelled by the advance of Suleiman Pasha, and a number of unsuccessful engagements in the valley of the Tunja, to fall back on Shipka, Suleiman occupying Yeni Saghra, Eski Saghra, and, finally, Kazanlik, less than ten miles from the pass. If Gourko is to hold the latter securely, the Turks must be dislodged from Selvi, which they occupied a few days ago, and which is somewhat nearer Gabrova than is Tirnova. A few days may show whether it is the intention of the Russians to resume the offensive, here or at Plevna, against the forces directed by Osman Pasha. The operations under the Russian Crown-Prince against Rustchuk seem to be suspended, either in consequence of a drain on his troops for the sake of reinforcing Krüdener and Shakhovski, or of the movements of Mehemet Ali in the valley of the Lom, where the Russians are now also said to be concentrating in great force. A speedy collision here would not be surprising, though if Mehemet Ali is strong enough to act at option, a bold move against Tirnova, in conjunction with Osman Pasha, would seem to promise him important results.

The news from the Asiatic theatre of war is meagre, as it has been for weeks; but a great deal of speculation is afloat concerning the future movements of the Russians, who are said to have been strongly reinforced and to be ready for a new advance. The Turks claim an advantage in a fight near Ardahan, but they have evacuated their position near Ilori, on the Caucasian coast, south-east of Sukhum Kaleh, which had become untenable. This probably ends their aggressive operations in that quarter. The troops withdrawn may be sent with others, to be embarked at Batum—as is reported—either to Varna, as a reinforcement for Mehemet Ali, or to a new reserve camp near Constantinople, the creation of which is announced. The insurrectionary movement in Bosnia has collapsed with the defeat, on August 4, of Despotovitch, who has sought refuge on Austrian territory.

THE OHIO DEMAGOGY.

THE platform of the Ohio Republicans has a "labor plank," dictated by the strikes, which some of the papers are disposed to think at least harmless, but which we cannot help considering as one of the most dangerous and alarming results of the late troubles. It is a species of mischief, too, which one naturally expected to find in an aggravated form in the resolutions of the Democratic convention; but the Republicans have far surpassed them in it. The trouble from which the industry and credit of the country have just received such a tremendous shock originated, as everybody knows, in great confusion of mind among a large body of ignorant and unreflecting men regarding their relations both to their employers and to the community at large. They apparently did not see that their right to withdraw from work was no stronger than the right of the employers to give work to whom they pleased, and no stronger than the right of other men to take their vacant places, and no stronger than the right of the community to open highways and peaceful travel, no matter how dissatisfied brakemen and firemen might be with their wages. Any one in a conspicuous position who says anything at this crisis to deepen this confusion—nay more, any one who, having the power, by clear and candid speech, to dissipate it, refrains from speaking at a crisis like this—incurs a weighty responsibility. We must not forget, in estimating the guilt of the rioters, that they are but acting out theories suggested or propounded by more knowing men than themselves, and, indeed, following the example of people more knowing than themselves. Three things have, during the past fifteen years, powerfully contributed to the demoralization of the working classes—(1) the absurd power attributed by inflationist demagogues to money manufactured by the Government, and the abuse heaped on capitalists for advocating a return to honest currency; (2) the attack of the Grangers on the railroads, in order to compel them to carry goods at prices fixed, not by the cost of transportation but by the necessities of people living along the line—an attack in no way more respectable or defensible than that of the strikers on railroad property, but less shocking because made with legislative majorities instead of clubs and pistols; and (3) the constant preaching by philanthropists of the "rights of labor," and the rarity of any mention of its duties, thus placing the manual laborer in the position of a child who was entitled to everything he could get and owed nobody anything—and, in fact, placing him apart from everybody whose labor was not manual. Of course, it is impossible to say with certainty which of these agencies has been most influential in bringing about the present crisis, but we think most probably the Granger movement, because in it property in railroads was singled out for special criticism, as in some manner distinguishable from other property, so as to make attacks on it more excusable, the only real distinction being that it was property necessarily committed to trustees, and, owing to defects in the law, shamefully mismanaged.

The reason why the "labor agitation," as it is called, has not attracted more attention, and met with more condemnation hitherto, has been that people supposed that, like much of the other wild talk of the day, it would be lost in air, and serve the useful purpose of a vent for vague discontent. Now that it has ended in violence, and promises to produce more; now that it is plain that a portion of the laboring class has been converted into a powder magazine, and that it is the highways of the country, on which its whole system of credit and industry rests, that are threatened by the explosion, it is surely the duty both of parties and individuals to refrain from exciting hopes that cannot possibly be realized, and suggesting plans which cannot possibly be carried out. Is there not, when the country is absolutely staggering under the blows of mad and lawless labor-rioters, who seek to rule or ruin, something almost criminal in a "plank" of this kind?

"*Resolved*, That we view with alarm the present disturbed condition of the country, as evinced by the extensive strikes of workingmen, and followed by the destruction of life and property in different parts of the country; and while we deprecate each and every resort to violence or disorder, and cordially approve the action of our national and State authorities in their efforts to enforce the supremacy of the law, yet we do most heartily sympathize with the condition of the honest and industrious laborers who are willing to work, but remain unemployed, or are employed at wages inadequate to comfort and independence; and, as an earnest of our desire to find a remedy for their condition, we recommend, first, that Congress establish a National Bureau of Industry; second, that Congress exert its authority over all national highways of trade by prescribing and enforcing such reasonable regulations as will tend to promote safety of travel, secure fair returns for capital invested and fair wages to employees, preventing mismanagement, improper discriminations, and the aggrandizement of officials at the expense of stockholders and shippers and employees; third, that provision be made for statutory arbitrations between employers and employees to adjust controversies, reconcile interests, and establish justice and equity between them."

In this there is a distinct acknowledgment that a man who is willing to work at wages adequate to what he considers "comfort and independence," whatever that may mean, and cannot find it, has some claim on the Government for a direct "remedy." The Convention, therefore, recommends as such "remedy" the "establishment of a National Bureau of Industry," but refrains from saying what the nature and functions of this body will be; and doubtless thousands of workingmen will take it to mean some kind of intelligence office, where the Government will provide them with employment at wages "adequate to comfort and independence." If it does not mean this, it would be absolutely useless as a "remedy" for enforced idleness. It next proposes—and this is the most reprehensible part of the resolution—that Congress should single out railroad property for such "reasonable regulation" as would not only promote safety of travel, "prevent mismanagement, improper discriminations, and the aggrandizement of officials at the expense of stockholders and shippers," but "secure fair returns to the capital invested, and fair wages to employees." "Fair returns to capital invested" can only come from plenty of business—which is just what roads now lack—and it is little short of wicked to pretend that Congress can ever supply it, and can enable railroad companies, in default of it, to pay "fair wages," which we suppose means "wages adequate to comfort and independence," to employees. The remaining recommendation, for "statutory arbitration" between employers and employees, would be sensible, probably, if it were a little more definite, as arbitration means the decision of such things as disputants choose to submit. But consider for one moment the nature of the burden which these recommendations, if carried out, would impose on the Government; consider the effect on every species of industry, and on credit and capital, of having the adequacy of wages, and the efficiency of the Government regulations in keeping wages up to the proper point, made an issue in every election, and the one subject of every party platform. It is not rash to predict that if such topics get a foothold in party politics through organized party conventions, every other will speedily disappear, and the spirit of rationality which is now the salt of American institutions will disappear with it. Our politics, in short, would be rapidly assimilated to those of France, in which there is only one question, viz., how best to save property from spoliation by the poor, and how to prevent the conversion of the whole state into a paupers' workshop. The French have provided a temporary solution of the problem by keeping a large standing army constantly in readiness to kill malcontents on as large a scale as may be necessary. We should come to that ourselves, if it should ever be necessary in order to provide security; but we could not come to it without the sacrifice of nearly everything that now constitutes our boast and glory. It is well to warn party orators and wire-pullers, therefore, while it is yet time, that no free government in the world can stand the strain which would be imposed by taking charge of the laborers of the country as wards, and either providing them or pretending to provide them with "adequate wages," or in any way interfering between employers and workmen to regulate the division of profits. Any such attempts open a straight and easy way to destruction. There is probably no government less fitted for such a rôle than ours, for neither our manners nor the condition of our administrative machinery is adapted to it. Our whole system is based on the

theory that every American citizen is a fully-equipped man, standing squarely on his own feet, and abundantly competent to make his own bargains. We have no political provision for voters who need paternal care. Consequently, Americans who got into the position of wards would probably be a more helpless and irrational body than even France has produced; we should have to recast our institutions from top to bottom for their accommodation, and the conversion of the States into huge almshouses would be very rapid. Before that consummation was reached, of course our credit and industry would suffer terribly; they *will* suffer terribly if any attempts are made to reach it; and business men, and all men who live by honest industry and expect to save for their old age, cannot too severely frown on disgraceful demagogy like this of the Ohio Convention.

THE RIOTERS AND THE REGULAR ARMY.

THE recent railway riots have produced a serious conviction among law-abiding citizens that the country possesses no force adequate to the protection of life and property against a certain class of disorders which are liable to break out at any time. Before the Rebellion commenced we had been lulled into a false security by our geographical distance from the other great powers of the globe, and we allowed our army to dwindle to insignificant proportions. With the costly awkwardness which attends all efforts to meet a great emergency without previous training, we took up the art of war, and made it our principal business for some years, and when the immediate end was accomplished, we concluded that there could be no other great revolt against law and order upon our soil for a generation or perhaps a century to come. So we hastened to strip our military and naval establishments down to the merest shreds. A few years have passed away, and we find ourselves confronted by a spirit of rapine capable of burning and plundering cities, confiscating property by wholesale, and throttling the entire commerce of the country. There is a frantic call for troops from twenty different quarters at once; but there are no troops on the seaboard, or so few that the authorities at Washington are in doubt whether they can be spared from the more important task of guarding the national treasury from pillage. Chief Joseph with his handful of red men is making such stubborn resistance on the confines of Oregon that soldiers have been hurried all the way from Georgia to suppress him. The only forces available for the preservation of Baltimore, Pittsburgh, and a dozen other cities that have been clutched by mobs, are a few companies and fractions of companies performing garrison duty in the forts, and such militia as can be gathered up from the heterogeneous systems of the several States, supposing that they have any militia at all.

The militia at best are a clumsy substitute either for a military or a police establishment. The militiaman to be good for anything must be a business man, a skilled artisan, a property-holder, somebody having a stake in the country and performing useful service in his station, else he is as likely to fraternize with a mob as to fire at it. When his services are wanted he must drop his employment, however important to his family and to society, and go hundreds of miles perhaps, most commonly without rations or camp equipage, to be billeted on the inhabitants of some distant town, to whom he is necessarily a nuisance, to perform duties with which he is unfamiliar and which are distasteful to him. This is the militiaman in his best estate. His worst was exhibited in West Virginia, where he turned his back upon the mob or mingled with it on terms of amity. In Indiana no militia was discovered at all, so that the rioters had everything their own way, and took charge of railroads, appointed officers, ran trains, collected fares, and even established guards to protect such property as they had no use for. That the militia of New York and Philadelphia did the best they could, or that any militia could, and that the presence of a large body in this city probably prevented any outbreak here, it would be ungenerous to deny. The fact remains that society is substantially unprotected in this country, however prompt and efficient the militia may be at a few localities. In most of the cities where forces were ultimately collected to overpower the rioters they consisted of citizens hastily sworn in as special police, and having no superiority over the mob except in their average intelligence and the lawfulness of their enlistment.

Such a condition of things is intolerable, and can be amended only by an increase of the military establishment of the nation. The elements of the recent outbreak are still in a state of effervescence, and may develop into new riots and further destruction of life and property at any time, unless confronted by trained bodies of men in sufficient numbers to overawe or to crush them at the first onset. If there had been a regular army reserve of twenty-five thousand men over and above the number needed for the Indian and border service, judiciously distributed, there would have been no riots and no stoppage of trains, or, at most, only a trivial interruption of business, to be settled by arbitration between strikers and employers. With such a reserve force, the city of Pittsburgh, with its arsenal and Government foundry, would have been the natural station for five or six hundred well-officered and disciplined soldiers, in whose presence no formidable mob could have been collected. The five millions or more of property wantonly sacrificed there would have been saved and the bloodshed averted. Even with the small force of regulars that the Government was able to muster, it was proved that the rioters had more respect for one Federal bayonet than for a whole company of militia. The objection of expense in maintaining an increased military establishment is fully answered by the fact that the regular army is able to *prevent* such disturbances, while the militia, at best, serve only to suppress them after they have run a more or less destructive course. The losses incurred at Pittsburgh, Baltimore, San Francisco, and elsewhere, by burning and sacking, feebly represent the real loss sustained by the country through the interruption of its daily traffic. The convulsion propagated itself through all the avenues of trade and industry, producing its worst results among the classes who depend upon their wages for their bread. The price of provisions rose immediately in all the cities, and the day-laborer and washerwoman thus paid more than their share, under any equitable system of taxation, to suppress the revolt of the fireman, trackman, and tramp.

It is worse than useless to dignify these transactions by calling them disputes between labor and capital. The right to strike is conceded by everybody. The right to seize other people's property and to prevent other men from selling their labor on terms satisfactory to themselves is denied by the law of every civilized country. Common sense does not allow any parleying over that fallacy, but insists that it be refuted with gunpowder and ball whenever it takes the shape of combined robbery and public tumult. Society does not owe any particular rate of wages to anybody. It owes protection of life and property and personal rights to all its members, and nothing more. Hospitals, almshouses, and asylums for the poor and infirm are among the marks and evidences of a superior civilization, but it cannot be said that society owes even these to its weaker members. They are charitable establishments, to be promoted and perfected by both legislation and private enterprise as tending not merely to relieve human suffering, but to bless the giver equally with the receiver. Yet it is a complete misconception to say that society owes these things to its pauper classes, for if it owes them they have the right to judge of the measure of the debt and to vote the money out of the public treasury to discharge it. Still less does society owe a dollar a day to a man who can earn only seventy-five cents. Hence all arguments grounded upon the alleged right of strikers to higher wages than the open market affords should be cast out of the reckoning, so far as society is concerned, and turned over to volunteer courts of arbitration, where alone there are any data for weighing them. What society needs is adequate force to curb their premature expression in the form of arson and general pillage.

The British Islands, protected like ourselves by sea from the danger of foreign invasion, maintain a force of not less than 40,000 regular troops as an auxiliary police for home duty. Their territory is small and their population compact, while ours are widely extended

and loosely joined together. The need of a standing army in the sense of continental Europe does not exist in either country, but the need of an efficient auxiliary to the police system is far greater here than in England, for the twofold reason that the ground to be policed is here much vaster, and, if the truth must be confessed, we have more of the spirit of communism and turbulence to deal with than the mother country. Twenty-five thousand trained soldiers, in addition to our present force, under the immediate orders of the President, when lawfully called upon by any State, are few enough for the existing needs of the country. No Democrat, however zealous for State rights, can pretend that such a force would be dangerous in the hands of an Administration which has remitted Packard and Chamberlain to their own resources, and withdrawn all its troops from the South. No champion of public liberty can pretend that the country is in any danger from the misuse of twenty-five regiments whose pay and rations depend upon the votes of Congress from year to year. And it will be wise for politicians to remember when this subject comes forward that the public has been profoundly stirred by the events of the past three weeks, and that the alarm which exists is not likely to be soon forgotten. The doings of the Electoral Commission will exert a faint influence upon the future course of politics, as compared with the doings of a possible Commune holding the commerce of the country by the throat and sitting in judgment over the rights of property.

THE PARTIES IN THE FRENCH CANVASS.

STRASSBURG, July 11, 1877.

THERE are problems in politics which it is somewhat difficult to solve. I have just crossed the eastern part of France between Paris and Alsace, and I find myself now in the midst of the Vosges Mountains. The newspaper which is before me is the Strassburg official paper, and I find articles in it which seem written by the same men who write the provincial newspapers of Nancy, of Toul, of Lunéville, of Lorraine and Burgundy. Now, I know, as everybody knows here, that the inspiration of the Strassburg newspapers is in Berlin. How is it that on both sides of the Vosges I find the same attacks against Marshal MacMahon, against the prefects of M. de Fourtou, against the régime of "moral order," against the Duc de Broglie, against Clericalism and Ultramontanism? If there is a ruling passion in Lorraine, Burgundy, and Champaign, it is the fear of the enemy who has so long occupied those rich provinces, and who is now the master of Alsace; how can fear produce the same effects as the insolence of victory? The German newspapers have a *mot d'ordre:* they describe MacMahon as the conscious or unconscious tool of the Vatican; his triumph in the general elections would be the signal for a war of Ultramontanism against Germany. This *mot d'ordre* has an echo in all the Republican papers of France. The Republicans seem to take it for granted that if MacMahon wins the great battle of the elections, he will have his hands free for a campaign against Italy and against Germany—the arch enemy of the Vatican. Gambetta said so in the great speech he made before the Chamber was dissolved; and when the ministers denied any warlike intentions, he reminded France that the Emperor Napoleon III. had also denied such intentions just before the last plébiscite of 1870; the peasants had been told that if they voted *yes* on that famous occasion, *yes* would mean peace; and only a few months afterwards Napoleon III. entered upon his fatal war against Germany. This same accusation is brought every day against the Marshal and his government. Some of the accusers may be sincere, many of them must be insincere; but sincerity seems to be looked upon as a mere weakness in politics. "All is fair in love or war" is the motto of our politicians.

Whatever may be the feelings or sentiments of the political leaders who represent the Marshal as bent on war, there is no doubt that their representations have much effect on the popular mind. I could not help seeing a trace of it in the language of the press in the eastern part of France, so much exposed to an invasion. Just look at a map of France, and you will see that there is nothing which can prevent German armies, collected at Metz and behind the screen of the Vosges Mountains, from rolling in a few days like a gigantic tide over the whole east of France. Two forts have been erected on the hills of Toul, which now command the Eastern Railroad, but Nancy is not even defended, and would be at the mercy of the enemy. It is not to be wondered at if these eastern populations have a very nervous feeling about Germany. They know that the *Pickelhaube* is not far off, and they hate men who are represented to them as the agents of a warlike policy. Not that these populations are effeminate or even timid; but they know that even a successful war would be to them at first a terrible calamity, and they know that France is not ready for an offensive war. Gambetta struck, therefore, the vibrating chords of our population when he said to the Government of the 16th of May: You are preparing war, and you are preparing it because you are "le gouvernement des curés"—the government of the priesthood and of the Vatican. The general elections will show how far these accusations have been echoed in the country; in the east of France Gambetta has produced the desired effect, and the provinces which are exposed to the first blows will certainly vote against MacMahon. They will do so for two reasons: the first I have just explained; the second is the want of prestige of MacMahon in the east of France, and the great prestige which still attaches there to the person of M. Thiers. Thiers is an idol in the departments which have been occupied by the Germans; he is still called the liberator of the territory; he made peace, he paid the ransom of France, he is the man who travelled all over Europe looking for allies for his country. His name is honored in all the courts; he is the only Frenchman whom Prince Bismarck thought a diplomatic adversary worthy of himself. These are the things you hear every day and in everybody's mouth at Nancy and all over Lorraine and Burgundy. And what do the Lorrainers say of MacMahon? They will tell you that on the day of Reichshofen MacMahon ought not to have fought so long against overwhelming forces; that when he found that the corps of General de Failly did not join him, he ought to have left his positions and retreated in good order through the Vosges; that he could have done so even at two o'clock, and that he sacrificed his corps after that hour. They saw the scattered and miserable remnants of his army go through their towns and villages; they saw the Marshal himself arrive at Nancy, with his staff; they saw him depart for Châlons. He is not in their eyes the hero of the Malakoff and of Magenta. They cannot forget those terrible days after Woerth, and the unopposed arrival of the Germans; they are not of the Celtic race any more than the Burgundians; they do not love and admire an unsuccessful hero.

Though it is almost impossible to say how the deep currents of universal suffrage are running, I think it may be safely asserted that in all the eastern part of France, in Lorraine, in Burgundy, and also, I believe, in the valley of the Rhone, the Government will be defeated in the general elections. On the other side, it is probable that the Government will find some support in the north of France, in Normandy, in Brittany, in the central part of France, and in Guienne. Politically speaking, the country is almost divided into two parts by a line running north and south and passing through Paris. Much depends in this terrible issue on the manner in which the question is presented to the popular sphinx. If you could bid the sphinx, as Napoleon used to do, "Choose between me and nothing," the sphinx would have to vote for the Government. The endeavor has been made in the present case to put the question in this shape: "Choose between MacMahon and Gambetta, between a Conservative Republic and the Commune"; but the country does not seem to be willing to see the horns of this dilemma; MacMahon does not necessarily mean a Conservative Republic, and the triumph of the Opposition does not necessarily imply Gambetta and the Commune. If MacMahon was a young man, determined to establish a Conservative Republic—a republic which would appear as "the best of monarchies"—the country would perhaps side with him, notwithstanding all the efforts of the Left; but MacMahon is old, he is very near the end of his official term, and nobody knows if he is very anxious to remain in office after 1880. If he is not, if his Conservative Republic is only an interregnum of two or three years, the country may be pardoned for looking to the future and for enquiring, What is to come after 1880? "Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof"; still, we cannot help hearing the Imperialists say, "After 1880, we mean to re-establish the Empire; we shall help MacMahon in his crusade against the men of the 4th of September, we will sweep with him the Republican stables, and when all is ready, and when the country is accustomed to look upon all Republicans as outcasts, we will call for Napoleon IV.; and the army, if it is necessary, will help us to replace him on the throne. But the army will perhaps not even be asked to act; we can do everything legally, make a revision, turn the republic into an empire as quietly as we make a law on a trifling matter of administration."

The Monarchists, incensed by this audacious language, have come forward, and in their turn have said: "If you go to the polls with the cry of 'Vive l'Empereur!' we can go to the polls with the cry of 'Vive le Roi!' If you offer to a fatigued country the monarchy which fell twice—at Wa-

terloo and at Sedan—we can offer it a respectable monarchy, the monarchy which added Alsace and Lorraine to the national territory. If you break the Conservative truce, we can break it also. And in reality the truce is broken ; the so-called Conservative union could only remain a union if its leaders kept within the limits of the Republican constitution. As soon as the constitution is put in question, as soon as the word of revision is pronounced, the union becomes an empty phrase."

The Republicans in this new contest have, therefore, the advantage of a very simple and tangible policy ; they have no other watchword but the Republic and the Constitution. Their adversaries, on the other hand, though they have apparently but one object, the maintenance of the Government of MacMahon till 1880, are profoundly divided on every other point. They are not only divided with regard to the succession of Marshal MacMahon in 1880 (some speak of re-electing MacMahon till the Comte de Chambord dies, some of placing Napoleon IV. on the throne, some of trying to obtain some concessions from the Comte de Chambord and placing him on the throne) ; the MacMahonists, the Imperialists, and the Monarchists are also divided in their political tendencies. While the Imperialists talk of nothing but repression and state of siege, and believe that the only way to govern France is the method employed after the 2d of December, the Legitimists and Orleanists, who can work in common since the visit of the Comte de Paris to Frohsdorf, are somewhat ashamed of these illiberal doctrines. They believe in a liberal monarchy, and would, in the last analysis, prefer a republic, with all its dangers, to the "quiet" of an empire. The so-called "order" of absolute monarchy is very pleasant for foreigners who live in the Champs Elysées, and who are invited to the court balls. It seems less pleasant to those who lost their sons at Sedan, or to those who were born in Alsace.

It is very extraordinary that some years after 1870 the fate of France seems now as uncertain as it was then. During the war Prince Bismarck was anxiously looking for somebody with whom he could treat ; he wanted the signature of France, and who could give it then ? It is probable that Bismarck can wait now more quietly ; he does not want the signature of France now to any treaty ; our political divisions and agitations have become a guarantee for Germany. I read every day long eulogies in German of the sensible Gambetta ; the "Reptilien" praise the wisdom and the moderation of the man whom M. Thiers once called the "fou furieux." All's well that ends well ; and we must look with a philosophical eye on events which are controlled by a power superior to the power of man.

A GERMAN EULOGIST OF GAMBETTA.

I.

FREIBURG, July 18.

M. DE SAINT VALLIER, after the war of 1870–71 agent of the French Government in Nancy, recently said at a banquet in that city : "I must add that the man with whom I had to deal always tried, as far as he could, as far as his military duties and his severe instructions would allow, to mitigate the hard régime of foreign occupation ; he did not conceal the great esteem in which he held the qualities of our nation." For this simple acknowledgment that General Manteuffel had proved himself to be a gentleman, the patriotism of M. de Saint Vallier is called in question by the "conservative" press of France. The *Pays* writes : "Among all *honnêtes* people in Nancy and its environs this shameless language has called forth a deep and just indignation." If, in the course of time, this unhealthy state of the public mind in France can be overcome by anything except *revanche*, it certainly can be done only by the constant accumulation of proofs that the victors really *do* appreciate the great qualities of the French nation, and that they deem themselves none too good to learn from the vanquished. If this be so, Herr von der Goltz has rendered a great service as well to France as to Germany by his book on 'Léon Gambetta and his Armies.'* This book might almost be said to have created a sensation, and, as a well-known general assured me the other day, even in high military circles it is read and discussed with the greatest interest. Herr von der Goltz is a captain (*Hauptmann*) in the Prussian general staff, and during the war was attached to the staff of the army of Prince Friedrich Karl. So he has had the best opportunities possible for valuable personal observations, and his qualifications as a military critic he has already proved by a detailed account of Friedrich Karl's campaign, based upon the official journal of the Prince's headquarters—a work very highly commended by the military authorities for its clearness, moderation, good sense, and impartiality.

If any exception is to be taken to the author's general judgment, it is certainly not because he undervalues the talents and the merits of the dictator. According to him, Gambetta's stature rises more than a head above the rest of his countrymen, and but one inch is lacking to make him a great man in the fullest sense of the word. History "from a more distant standpoint will see him more isolated in the midst of his people and his time, and this will make his greatness shine forth more clearly, while the shadows and spots on the figure will disappear" (p. 231). His character is called "grand in many respects, almost of the dimensions of antiquity" (*beinahe nach antikem Masze angelegt*), p. 58. At first sight every German will be tempted to smile at such opinions as the ridiculous exaggerations of a young enthusiast, who had better keep to drilling his soldiers, or, at best, try the creative powers of his vigorous imagination in novel-writing. We have—to our great astonishment and rather unwillingly—in the last two or three years come to the conviction that Gambetta is able to learn something, and that, after all, serious men may be forced to speak of him in a serious way ; but there was no doubt whatever that, as to his dictatorship, M. Thiers had hit the mark when he called him *un fou enragé*. Yet Herr von der Goltz evidently is not a man whose judgment can be passed over with a sneer, though his book might have been still better and more valuable if his pulse went at the rate of eighty instead of ninety in a minute.

In Europe, a protracted war has become an utter impossibility ; and, Paris is France—these two assertions, as the author states, had assumed the character of axiomatic truths. Gambetta proved that, though not wholly unfounded, both of them are far from being literally true. On the 6th of September, 1870, the *Journal Officiel* wrote : "Everybody understands that where the fight is going on there also the power must be. The army of invasion marches on Paris. In Paris all the hopes of the country are concentrated." So, indeed, everybody thought in France. As a matter of course, Paris alone had to furnish all the members of the revolutionary government, and, as a matter of course, the revolutionary government allowed itself to be shut up in a besieged capital, for if there was yet any possibility of saving France it could, of course, only be done by Paris. Gambetta, as we shall afterwards see, shared this general sentiment to a great and even fatal extent, but, at the same time, he, and he alone, qualified the sentence in a most essential manner. He understood that as long as Paris could communicate with France only by means of balloons and pigeons, Paris could not give her the necessary impulse, and he resolved that his own brains and his own heart should be the centre from which this impulse was to come. He understood that Paris was in danger of being strangled, and that therefore Paris could not save France, but had to be saved by France. He understood that if success was at all possible all France had to come to the rescue, and he undertook to lash the whole nation, so to say, in twenty-four hours into the irrevocable resolution from that moment to know but one aim for all its energies—the liberation of the national soil. The author calls attention to the fact that one of the severest trials even a victorious army can be subjected to is to see the end of one war unexpectedly turned into the beginning of a new one. This is illustrated by the lingering and comparatively resultless campaign into which even Napoleon I. was forced by only 80,000 badly-armed and in no respect very efficient Russian soldiers, though the conquest of almost the whole Prussian monarchy had cost him but the one day of Jena and Auerstaedt. And if even to a victorious army it is a hard test to be called upon to break more laurel branches for a new wreath, when it was just going to rejoice over the secure possession of the first one, then certainly it is no small thing to turn a whole nation at a moment's notice into one huge military camp, after it has just been hurled from the very pinnacle of self-glorification into a fathomless sea of disasters. It is this which Herr von der Goltz has brought to our consciousness in a way and to a degree in which it has never been done before. It may be that Gambetta was not a madman—and in this I disagree with the author : I think history will, under certain qualifications, accept the *fou enragé* of M. Thiers—but hardly anybody who has read this book will henceforth deny that there was not only method but also an awful moral grandeur in his madness. We Germans glory in our national uprising of 1813, and well may we do so. And yet, was it equal to that which Gambetta caused France to make in 1870 ? In many respects—and among them the most important ones—it certainly was, and even more than that ; but in others it as undoubtedly cannot stand the comparison. France never could have done what she has done if she had been, like us, a people who were a nation only by their lan-

*'Léon Gambetta und seine Armeen. Von Colmar Freiherrn von der Goltz.' Mit einer Karte. Berlin. 1877.

guage, some dim historical recollections, and the dreams of some of their poets. But, on the other hand, with us the national resurrection had been preparing for four and even six years, and we rose after the elements had struck a tremendous blow at the great conqueror. In France the army and the whole nation had expected a military promenade to Berlin, and now, after a few weeks, the armies were either shattered to pieces or captured, the legitimate government had vanished, the capital, which for centuries had done most of the thinking, resolving, and even feeling for the whole country, was writhing in the iron coils of the victorious army. And the man who thought himself able to bid the nation rise at once after this unparalleled physical and moral collapse to a greater and more protracted war, was a lawyer, a man known only as a parliamentary opposition speaker, a man who, though young, had talked a good deal, but never before tried his strength in acting. Has there ever existed a German who under similar circumstances would have dared so much as to think of attempting anything like this? Never! Herr von der Goltz is right in saying that Germany never could have a Gambetta. True enough, the result of all the exertions of Gambetta was that France had to submit to much harder conditions than those she would have received after Sedan. But this does not change the fact that the Germans had to grapple four months with the improvised armies of the Republic, while it had taken them less than seven weeks to overthrow the Empire.

Herr von der Goltz does not overlook the important physical and moral elements which Gambetta found ready to his hands, and without which the *fou enragé* would have remained the *fou ridicule*, which the Germans at first thought him to be. He counts them up as follows: The character of the French, which values the military glory of the nation above any other thing; the ease with which in France the masses can be aroused to great political demonstrations; the great number of small *rentiers* who principally live on "coffee, absinthe, and newspapers"; the "administrative machinery," inherited from the Empire, which, under the direction of new headmen, continued to "work admirably"; the superiority of France on the sea. "It is a mistake that the French fleet played no part in the last war. If Germany had been able to blockade the French coasts and hermetically shut up the harbors, this second epoch of the war would have been an impossibility." The author is of opinion that France received more than half of all her war material from foreign countries; her own manufactories could, at first, not furnish more than 20,000 chassepots a month. Moreover, the connection between the different parts of the country was partly kept up by sea; concentrations of troops could be made at points where they would have been impossible if the French had not had this highway all to themselves; and, finally, there was "the comparatively great undisturbedness and security" with which France could prepare herself for the new war in consequence of the main body of the German army being fastened to Metz and Paris. If Bazaine had not stayed with his whole army in Metz, the whole army of Prince Friedrich Karl would not have remained there either. The author, therefore, concludes: "Perhaps the dictator owes nobody so much as the man whom he has persecuted and vilified so much." The general result to which he is brought by his reasoning on these points is: "So the new Carnot was favored by many circumstances"; but "even with such instruments in his hands, only a mind, a will, such as flowers but once in historical epochs, could accomplish so much."

And much indeed it was that he accomplished. When Gambetta arrived in Tours on October 9 things looked pretty much like a chaos. "There were recruits enough in the depots, but almost throughout there was as yet no organization of regiments and battalions. Artillery and pioneers did not exist at all. Everywhere arms were wanting." There was neither a minister of war nor a single good map in Tours. Gambetta's friend, the civil engineer (!) Freycinet, was entrusted with the department of war after it had been declined by Admiral Fourichon; and after the happy discovery that the widow of some higher officer was in possession of a map, 15,000 photographic copies were distributed in the army. Up to that time even the commander of a division had to get along with the *Uebersichtsblaetter* of Joanne's geographical hand-book. A flood of most incisive laws was poured over France. From the 13th of October to the 11th of November talent and success were made the only rules for advancement; the auxiliary army (comprehending all the new formations) was created; the local defense of the departments organized; the removal of stores and the destruction of the means of communication reduced to a system; all men between 21 and 40 years capable of bearing arms called into service; the departments charged with furnishing a complete battery for every 100,000 inhabitants; the prefects rendered personally responsible for the execution of all these decrees; the battalions of workingmen organized; all civil engineers, street-wards, architects, railroad companies, etc., placed at the disposal of the minister of war. And these decrees did not remain idle words. France knows how to respect and how to obey an iron will. "Frenchmen, the first of all is, that you do not allow yourselves to be preoccupied by anything except the war—war to the knife." With patriotism and the revolutionary tradition of the invincibility of republican armies as levers, the reckless determination of the dictator, which did not brook the slightest opposition, lifted France out of her party feuds and her despondency; the behest was obeyed almost to the letter. Gambetta "stamped out of the ground" half a million of soldiers with 1,400 guns. During his dictatorship France furnished on the average every day 5,000 soldiers and—under Colonel Thoumas—two batteries with all the material. The 15th corps had been badly beaten before Orleans on the 10th and 11th of October; three weeks later it mustered 60,000 men with 128 guns. Chanzy had suffered a series of checks from the 6th to the 12th of January; on the 19th, he was completely defeated in the decisive battle at St. Quentin, and on the 27th his army counted again 156,000 men with 54 batteries. In the opinion of Herr von der Goltz, Gambetta proved himself to be not only an efficient organizer, but a real genius in this respect; he asserts that no minister of war, either in France or in any other country, has ever done anything comparable.

Correspondence.

THE GRANGERS AND THE STRIKERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is as amusing as anything can be in these desperate times to observe the course respecting the strikers' movement which is taken by some of the late Granger papers. But a short time ago these papers assailed the railroads for their excessively high rates, which deprived the farmer of living profits. Now they are assailing the roads for their excessively low rates, which deprive their employees of living wages. With the Grangers on the one side and the strikers on the other, the railroads are between "the de'il and the deep sea." For a long while to come they will be shunned by capital as a means of investment; but this fact, so often deplored, is really the only hopeful outcome of the present troubles. What with construction frauds, competing lines, and lines through the wilderness, the capital invested in railroads has proved exceptionally unproductive, and the sharp arrest of further investment in this direction will save the further sinking of capital, and give the roads a chance to live themselves while they let the farmers and their own employees live.

Sue Harry Clagett.

Keokuk, Iowa.

THE STRIKE IN KANSAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of 26th July you name the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad as one of the roads which acceded to the demands of the strikers. I am not aware from what source you received this information, as it is entirely at variance with the fact. The strike existed on this road in a very mild form, and lasted less than twenty-four hours; it embraced less than 10 per cent. of the train employees and no others, and freight-trains were only interrupted on *one* division of the road for about twenty-four hours.

A committee of train-men had an interview with the superintendent and other officers, and was informed that no increase of pay or concessions in other form would be considered, and in the event of a general strike the road would be shut up and not opened again until men could be employed at rates fixed by the company. The members of the committee expressed themselves unanimously opposed to a strike, and agreed to exert themselves to prevent one. They undoubtedly did this, as there was no further trouble. At one division point, where the men stopped work, they were given until 12 o'clock the next day to return to duty, and, with the exception of two men, all did this before the time specified. As a rule there seemed to be no desire or intention of striking, and your statement does injustice to the employees as well as to the officers of the company.

Will you please set this matter right? and oblige,

C. F. Morse, Genl. Supt. A., T. & S. F. R.R.

Atchison, Aug. ?, 1877.

GOVERNMENT OBLIGATION TO REDEEM GREENBACKS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I fail to see how you can correctly describe greenbacks as "overdue paper." They are simply a promise of the United States to pay a dollar or more to bearer at an indefinite time—not *on demand;* indeed, as other notes had been previously issued payable *on demand*, that not being expressed on these is as good as an exclusion of the idea that such was intended, on a familiar principle of law. If, then, the paper is "overdue," I ask when did it become so ? Those who assert that it is so now ought to be able to fix the time when payment should have been made.

I admit that there was a general implied understanding that payment would be made whenever, in the usual course of business by the ordinary laws of trade, the Government should be placed in such circumstances as would enable it to make it ; and it was the faith that sooner or later this would come about that gave the greenbacks their value. That value has from time to time increased or diminished as the confidence of the public in the *ability* of the Government ultimately to pay has varied. There was no pledge, either express or implied, when the notes were originally issued that the Government would redeem them on January 1, 1879, or at any other time. Had there been, they would all along have had a greater value than they did have. When, therefore, the Resumption Act of 1875 was passed, its effect was to make that definite which before was indefinite, and to that extent to increase the value of the notes in question. It is not material to enquire precisely what the increment in value was ; but whatever it was, it was a mere gratuity, for which Government received no consideration, and which constitutes no obligation upon it either in reason or morals.

It seems to me, then, that the Government cannot be called on or expected to do now any more than to fulfil its original, implied obligation, viz., to redeem its notes whenever it finds itself able to do so ; and that it has to-day a perfect right to take away that which it gave two years ago without consideration, viz., the value of the greenbacks which was then added to them by the passage of the Resumption Act ; and whether this is effected by repealing the law or disregarding it seems to me a matter of indifference.—Yours, S. R. H.

Newport, R. I., July 29, 1877.

[They are not overdue legally, because they cannot be made the basis of any legal claim; but they are overdue morally, because it was understood when they were issued that they would be taken up as soon as the Government could do so without too severely taxing the resources of the country. A simple promise to pay cannot, under any system of ethics, be construed as a promise to pay whenever the promisor pleases, because this would be no promise at all, any more than the remark, " Some day or other I shall, if I choose, give you a dollar." A real promise must contain an obligation which is to become binding at a certain date, or on the occurrence of some possible contingency, and this contingency is, in the case of the greenbacks, the acquisition of ability on the part of the Government to pay. That this contingency had occurred was formally acknowledged by the promisor when the purchase of bonds not yet due began. The money expended in this way was morally due to such holders of greenbacks as desired gold for them; and its application to the satisfaction of unmatured debts was *pro tanto* an act of repudiation, whatever its financial merits may have been. It was an acknowledgment in substance that we could pay, but would not. —Ed. Nation.]

THE LOST ARMS OF THE VENUS OF MELOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I perceive in a note in the *Nation* of June 7 an allusion to the tradition I picked up at Melos concerning the so-called Venus found there. I cannot be expected to presume to recall the terms of my statement, and a file of the *Nation* does not exist in Montenegro; but, as nearly as, after years of interval, I can recall what the consul, whose father and predecessor found the statue, said to me, it was that the arms were found with the body; but that, when the statue had been recovered by the French frigate from its Ottoman captor, it was found that the arms had disappeared, and that they were *supposed* either to have rested in the hold of the Turkish ship, or to have been thrown overboard for some reason or other. If the present report is true, it would appear that the Turks, in their usual estimate of "antika," didn't care for the small pieces and left them where they were found, and where, in some way, they were again covered, accidentally or intentionally.

The carefully, and evidently *expressly*, constructed niche in which the statue was walled up was shown me, and I was assured that the arms were found beside it. All beyond that was a conjecture, so far as the final fate of the arms was concerned. The shield was an essential part of my theory, as involving the writing of a name or names on it, guerdon of victory, and I have never an instant doubted, from the pose of the statue, that it was the "motive" of it that it should hold a shield or mirror—the former if it were a Victory, the latter if it were a Venus ; the latter supposition never having found a moment's credence in my mind from the time I saw the frieze of Athene-nike on the Acropolis. Those who have my book on the Acropolis may compare the Victory given from that frieze, and see that the types of the figures are the same, that of the frieze being somewhat inferior in the technique, as if done by a clever pupil working in emulation of his master, and both differ radically in type from any known Venus. Some day I hope to be able to return to the subject and produce a convincing monograph on it, with photographs.

Yours, etc., W. J. Stillman.

Rieka, Montenegro, July 8.

[Later reports concerning the recovered arms make it very doubtful whether they have anything to do with the statue to which they have been ascribed; and this quite independently of the fact that the disk held by one of them is pronounced a mirror.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in press 'Nurse and Patient, and Camp-Cure,' two essays by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, and, by the same author, 'Fat and Blood, and How to Make Them'; also a revised edition of Smith's 'Elements of the Laws'; 'The Rhine from its Source to the Sea,' from the German, superbly illustrated ; 'Highways and Byways of American Travel,' by Edward Strahan, Sidney Lanier, E. A. Pollard, and others ; and 'Dante,' by Mrs. Oliphant, being the first volume of a series of Foreign Classics for English Readers.——Bulletin No. 42 of the Boston Public Library carries its Checklist for American Local History as far as Hampstead, and contains bibliographical articles of great value on Early English Explorations in America, the History of Mental Philosophy (Part IV.), and Russia, Turkey, and the Eastern Question.——The centennial of the battle of Bennington and of the birth of Vermont as a State will be celebrated next week (Aug. 15, 16) on the battle-ground with great éclat, the President being present. The monument hereafter to be erected by the joint contributions of Vermont, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts—perhaps, also, with some aid from Congress—has yet to be assigned to the artist. ——A high honor has just been paid to an American engineer, Mr. George E. Waring, jr. He has been made an honorary member of the Koninklijk Institut van Ingenieurs of the Netherlands, on the ground of his services, as a judge at the Centennial, in behalf of the Netherlands exhibition, and of the further interest shown by him in that country in his work entitled 'A Farmer's Vacation.' Col. Waring is, we believe, aside from the Royal Princes and the highest Dutch officials, the sixth person (now living) on whom honorary membership has been bestowed—Fowler, the inventor of the steam-plough, and De Lesseps being of this number, but no other American.

—The second number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* has, like the first, a substantial and attractive appearance, betokening an assured prosperity. As we expected, the Whalley pedigree has not been allowed to pass unchallenged. In the Notes and Queries of the present issue Mr. W. H. Whitmore points out some of its weak points, and suggests that there may have been an Edward Whalley, jr., whose will Mr. Robins has presented as that of the (centenarian) regicide. This suggestion is immediately confirmed, so far as relates to the existence of such a person, by an extract from the 'Visitation of Nottinghamshire,' forwarded by the Rev. E. D. Neill, which shows that Major-General Edward Whalley had four children by his first wife (Frances being the wife of Colonel Goffe), and two by Mary Middleton, his second wife—Henry and *Edward*. As she died about 1662, Edward, jr., would have been at least fifty-six years of age in 1718, the date of the "Wale" will,

and therefore might very well have been "sick and weak in body" at the time of drawing it.

—A correspondent writing from Wilmington, N. C., remarks: "A 'bold littérateur' indeed, as the *Nation* (No. 630) well says, is the writer of the article on the White Mountains in *Harper's* for August—bold even to recklessness in his statement that those mountains 'are the highest elevations of land east of the Mississippi, next in altitude to the Rockies themselves.'" He then proceeds to give the altitudes of several mountains in North Carolina and Tennessee which are considerably higher than Mt. Washington. We do not copy them here, because they do not quite agree with the latest authorities, but any one who will turn to Mr. Henry Gannett's 'Lists of Elevations' may learn that there are, chiefly among the Black and Great Balsam ranges of North Carolina, and among the Great Smoky of Tennessee, no less than twenty-four peaks which are higher than Mt. Washington (Clingman's Mountain in the Black range being the highest, 6,707 feet), and that there are seventeen others surpassing 6,000 feet in height, some of which fall but a few feet short of Mt. Washington's altitude. We did not overlook the error in *Harper's*, but we thought the general fact to the contrary sufficiently notorious.

—The tenth annual report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology is a full document of 167 pages. The report proper is brief. We learn from it that the Peabody fund has by judicious investment been increased by more than one-third, and that a fire-proof building will probably be secured without impairing the fund specially devoted to that purpose. From eight to ten thousand specimens have been added to the Museum during the past year. They include fourteen crania, whose measurements are very carefully given by the assistant curator; a large collection of shell-heap stone implements liberally made over to the Museum by the Peabody Academy of Science; Peruvian pottery from Mr. Alexander Agassiz, etc., etc. "It is worthy of note," says the curator, "when taken in connection with the discoveries of Schliemann at Hissarlik, that the collection of jars from Peru contains several with the representation of the owl's face, which is also represented on specimens of Missouri pottery." Special researches for the Museum have been conducted among mounds in Southern Utah and in Ohio and Virginia, and among the gravel-beds of the Delaware at Trenton. What gives a permanent value to this volume is the papers which follow the report. The first (which is shockingly printed, by the way) is Dr. C. C. Abbott's report on the discovery of supposed palæolithic implements from the glacial drift near Trenton. The discussion is a very candid one, and tends strongly to the conclusion that the implements in question "were fashioned by man during the glacial period, and were deposited with the associated gravels as we now find them." Professor E. B. Andrews's report on his examination of Ohio mounds abounds in interesting details as to their construction and uses and contents. They were mostly burial mounds, raised by heaped basketsful of dirt, and showing the practice of cremation (not always *in situ*) among the builders. The copper implements and ornaments found were of a rather striking character. Mr. Lucien Carr's report of the exploration of a Lee County (Va.) mound—the same which by caving unhappily caused the death of Professor Lucius H. Cheney—is a model of its kind. The mound is shown by its contents, in comparison with the narratives of early travellers, to have been used for residence through a long series of years, and at the last, or more than a century ago, to have been surmounted by a council-house—a wooden rotunda. "In this particular instance, it is not necessary to look beyond the historic epoch, or the Cherokee Indians, in order to find a mound-builder." Mr. Adolph F. Bandelier's "Art of War and Mode of Warfare of the Ancient Mexicans" is a lucid and entertaining dissertation, based on an extraordinary knowledge of the Spanish and other authorities, but absolutely free from the illusions which their terminology has imposed upon posterity as well as upon their contemporaries.

—More information in regard to Western mounds may be found in Vol. II., Part I. of the Proceedings of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences. Indeed, if the genuineness of the find which the Academy now prizes above all its relics of prehistoric man in America be conceded (and there seems no reason for doubting it), some questions are settled and others of equal importance raised by it in regard to the aborigines vaguely classed as mound-builders. A member of the Academy, Rev. J. Gass, returning to a mound on Cook's farm, near Davenport, which he had partly explored three years before, began excavations on January 10 of the present year, with the assistance of several persons, and discovered in a grave along with human bones and copper implements two tablets of bituminous shale, one inscribed on one side only, the other on both. The three faces, heliotyped, accompany a description of them. The so-called calendar-stone is marked with four concentric circles about a central indentation; the outer band is regularly divided by hieroglyphics into twelve spaces, the inner band into four, the middle band being uninscribed. Holes are pierced in the corners as if for suspension. The other piece of shale has somewhat the appearance of having been once as large again. One side of it depicts clearly enough a sacrifice, or more probably a cremation: a fire giving off rings of smoke is surrounded by a circle of men clasping hands, while within are seeming corpses on the ground. Overhead on the right is what we should call the sun; on the left what might be the full moon; between, a number of dots which suggest stars, though an attempt is made in the 'Proceedings' to connect them with the Maya notation. Over all, arches a triple or even quadruple row of hieroglyphics, the two lowest between lines describing about a third of a circle. The reverse of the stone gives us a prehistoric hunting scene, on which deer, bison, and other animals besides man are more or less clearly depicted, with a willow-like tree. In addition to those named in the 'Proceedings' we think we discern a beaver. The figure of chief interest, however, which occurs twice, is elephantine, and, if the stone be aboriginal, would decide the question whether man and the mastodon were contemporaneous on this continent; which, for the rest, is altogether probable. Whether the hieroglyphics are writing, and what they mean, our archæologists may in due time discuss.

—Recent proceedings at the East Tennessee University, briefly referred to by us last week, have been fully described by a correspondent of the Springfield *Republican*, from whose account we condense the following: The president of the university, the Rev. Dr. Humes, a Southern man, was a stout Unionist during the war, and his principles were shared by other members of the faculty, some of whom, moreover, were of Northern birth. Although at least one-half the instructors were of Southern birth and leanings, this was not enough to content some members of the Board of Trustees and other Knoxville "patriots." Two years ago a motion was made before the board that the faculty and teachers of the university should be appointed in future from that part of the country whence it derived its students. A very large majority of the trustees were Confederates; but more concerned about the success of the university than the political inclinations or birthplaces of its teachers, and appreciating the faithfulness of the faculty, some of whom have been connected with the university for many years, they had the good sense to vote against the motion. As the board is a close corporation, the members choosing their own successors, this disposition of the motion seemed final. At the last session of the Legislature, however, a bill was passed appointing twelve additional trustees, all from Knox County, and able therefore to attend the meeting of the board, and all pronounced "Southern" men. The purpose of the bill—to effect a change in the government of the university—was distinctly avowed at the time. At the first annual meeting of the new and "packed" board, last month, all the offices, from that of president to the lowest tutor, were declared vacant and a new election ordered. It had been hoped that General J. E. Johnston would accept the presidency, but, as he declined, Dr. Humes was re-elected by a majority of one vote. The intensity of the opposition to him is illustrated by the fact that he was afterwards subjected to the insults of a *charivari* party. All Northern-born professors or instructors of Union sentiments, although charged with no incapacity or unfaithfulness, failed of re-election, although in one case, that of the professor of ancient languages, a modification was made, a young tutor being chosen to the chair and the former professor retained as his assistant. Under the last faculty the institution is said to have been steadily advancing toward the position of a real college—something better than a high school. The new Board of Trustees, however, dissatisfied with the slowness of its advance, have converted it at once into a full-blown university, by organizing, on paper, three or four distinct colleges, "to afford opportunity for teaching what is known and for investigating the unknown in every branch of human knowledge"—this being, according to their declaration, the purpose of a true university. With only six professors and eighty college students (omitting preparatory scholars) it will be necessary to divide up pretty well in order to carry out this pretentious scheme. The university, without a doubt, has been seriously crippled by these unwise and outrageous proceedings, the disgrace of which is not lessened by the facts that the funds and endowments of the university were wholly derived from the United States Government, and that some of the discharged professors were away upon their vacation, having been assured that they would be

retained. The University of South Carolina has been reconstructed (or "regenerated," as the Charleston *News and Courier* would have it) in a similar manner. All the professors were informed "that the chairs were vacant and the college exercises indefinitely suspended." The expectation is to reopen in January or in October following, and to satisfy the colored people for their exclusion by giving them "an institution of high grade."

—A delightful antiquarian controversy, the parties to which, instead of authors or journalists, are solemn councils and burgomasters of Low Country towns, is now raging over the question of the birthplace of Rubens. Visitors to Cologne who, putting faith in a mural tablet, have recorded their emotions on viewing the house in which Marie de Medicis died and Peter Paul Rubens was born, may scratch that passage out of their journals. The enquiries of many scholars, beginning with Groen van Prinsterer, have settled that the birthplace of the great artist was Siegen, in Westphalia. Naturally, little Siegen desires to celebrate the 300th anniversary of the birth of her most illustrious son, and sends an invitation to the Council of Antwerp, city of his ancestry and his principal residence. But the great men of Antwerp take the invitation in evil part, and send back to Siegen a stiff and scornful refusal, scouting the claims of any town but Antwerp itself to have brought forth Rubens, appealing to their own local archæologist, Van Nol, who keeps a book-shop and has written a pamphlet to vindicate his country's rights. And they proudly announce that when they give *their* Rubens festival, in August, the world shall know whether they are right or not. But for all that there is not the ghost of a reasonable doubt that Rubens was born at Siegen.

—Two facts of importance to those interested in advanced education for women are reported from abroad. The University of St. Andrews will henceforth confer the degree of L.A. (Literate in Arts) on any woman passing the prescribed examinations. The degree is intended to be exactly equivalent, for women, to the degree of M.A. for men. The standard of attainment required will be the same for both degrees, the examinations the same, both in substance and in method, and conducted by the same professors and examiners. In the more important matter, however, of preparation for examinations it is, of course, impossible to admit women to the advantages of the common life of the colleges of which the university is made up. The improvements proposed at Geneva are of a more practical sort. The *École secondaire et supérieure des filles* of that "ville pédantesque" (as Voltaire delighted to call it) is already by many degrees superior to any like institution in French-speaking Europe. And there is neither legal nor social hindrance to a lady's profiting by all the lectures and other advantages of the university. It is now proposed, and the proposal will doubtless be carried into execution, to expand the course of instruction in the *École supérieure* by adding three or four years to the curriculum, in such a way as to lighten the labors of the earlier years, and to carry forward the pupil to a point relatively as far advanced as that at which the male students of the gymnasium graduate into the university. Among the studies to be thus added to the programme are Civil and Commercial Law, Psychology, Logic, History of Philosophy, History of Religion, of Art, of the French Language, German Literature (studied in the German language), Foreign Literatures, History of Politics and Civilization. Moreover, the bill now before the cantonal legislature provides that the graduates of this school entering into the service of the "department of public instruction" shall receive increased pay in consideration of more advanced studies. All these improvements, it is to be hoped, will not modify that practical character of the Geneva Girls' School which is its best distinction among such institutions. On the present programme the study of housekeeping and the household arts, so far as these can be taught in a school, is laid out as regularly as the study of grammar and mathematics. The course in needlework, for instance, begins with "plain sewing" in the freshman class, and is carried on year by year through successive stages until it culminates in "cutting and making a shirt." On the introduction of the bill a legislator of advanced views advocated the adoption of it on the ground that "in the struggle now agitating Europe between the principle of authority and the principle of free thought, the victory would belong to that party which should enlist the women under its banner; that it was the duty of women to live the same life and share the same aspirations with their husbands." But its popular support will probably be grounded on the simpler consideration that the people like a good school for their girls.

—Among the customs of Italy there is one that might, it seems to us, be transplanted to this country with success. We allude to making wedding-presents consisting of some rare or inedited literary work, printed in a dainty manner, in a small number of copies. The subject of the works generally has reference to the profession or taste of the parties, and in this way many valuable contributions to literature are made every year in Italy, which, unfortunately, not being for sale, are not accessible to the general public. We are indebted to Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè, the eminent Sicilian scholar, for a number of such valuable works printed in honor of his marriage to Signora Francesca Paola Vitrano, which took place at Palermo the 14th of last April. The size of the works is large 8vo, and some are printed on heavy drawing-paper. On the covers are the words: 'Per le Nozze Pitrè-Vitrano, xiv. Aprile, MDCCCLXXVII.' There is sometimes a statement on the reverse of the title-page of the number printed; in one case 200 copies "fuori di commercio"; in another, 150; in another, only 25. There is, of course, a dedication to the happy couple, containing the editor's good wishes and a reference to the subject of the work, with bibliographical details, although these last are sometimes in a separate preface. The extent of the works varies from five to twenty-nine pages, and their subjects are all, with one exception, in the line of Dr. Pitrè's studies. He has, as our readers know, devoted himself to the collection of Sicilian popular poetry, tales, and traditions of all kinds. Among the presents which represent the first class are: 'Dirae o Li Parti di la Corda. Canto di Erice,' edited by Prof. U. A. Amico and Luigi Pedone Lauriel (Pitrè's generous and enterprising publisher), and 'Venti Canti popolari Siciliani,' presented by Prof. A. D'Ancona. Francesco Zambrini, the head of the Royal Commission for the Publication of Early Italian Literature, contributed an interesting 'Canto storico popolare in ottava rima d'Anonimo Fiorentino del secolo xiv.,' containing an account of the war of the Eight Saints (the revolt of Florence against the Pope in 1376). Vincenzo di Giovanni, well known for his work on Old-Sicilian, presented a 'Treatise on the Four Cardinal Virtues,' from a MS. of the XIVth century. In the department of folk-lore there were: 'Novelline popolari Livornesi raccolte e annotate da Giovanni Papanti,' containing five stories with copious notes, and ''E Sette Mane-Mozze, in dialetto di Avellino (Principato Ulteriore),' by Vittorio Imbriani. In the department of traditions, customs, and proverbs were works by Signora Coronedi-Berti (author of an admirable dictionary of the Bolognese dialect recently published, and of a collection of popular tales in the same dialect), explaining a popular saying of Bologna, and an essay by Maspons y Labros on some popular marriage customs among the Catalans. These are not all, but will give the reader some idea of the extent and value of these contributions in an individual case. It seems to us, as we have said, that the custom might be introduced here. The early history of our country would furnish ample materials in the way of reprints of rare tracts or inedited letters, etc., while such special subjects as the late civil war, the anti-slavery struggle, etc., would afford an endless field for illustration.

—Japan seems, of all known countries, perhaps the most remarkable for the development of novel phases of astuteness, the Government furnishing the latest and most brilliant example. The hereditary pensions of the nobles having been capitalized and the terms of payment fixed, the question arose, How should the nobles best employ the large sums of which, from time to time, they should become possessed? Among other schemes, the formation of a Nobles' Bank was the one which found most favor; and a Nobles' Bank was founded accordingly, with directors, managers, secretaries, and officials, all appointed brand-new, and the whole under Government patronage. The little matter of capital remained to be adjusted; but the Government would provide that too. Did they not owe at the end of last year to the *Kuwazoku* (nobles) between seventeen and eighteen millions of dollars? There was a handsome capital to start a bank with—a capital, in the words of the bank's prospectus, "more than five million dollars in excess of that possessed by any other bank in the East." (The capital of the Oriental Bank Corporation is only about $12,000,000.) But when it was proposed, or before—which does not much matter—to transfer the seventeen odd millions to the new bank's coffers, the Government said: "Of the entire amount we have present and pressing need for fifteen million dollars. In fact, we have already spent it in our little war against the insurrectionary Saigo and his friends in the south; so we will borrow that sum from you at five per cent. interest, *without security*. The two to three millions remaining, or what part of it we have not laid out in public works, you are welcome to. Take it and start your bank in peace." This is an absolute fact and no fancy sketch. Indeed, fancy would probably never imagine any scheme half so sublime, killing, as this does, two big birds with one stone—founding a national

bank with a large capital which has been already expended, and relieving the Government of a great strain. It is needless to enquire what the nobles think of the arrangement. We can only recommend them to have faith in their bank.

MORGAN'S "ANCIENT SOCIETY."*

I.

THE author of 'Systems of Consanguinity and Affinity of the Human Family' has continued the researches which gave rise to that work, and now appears before the public with a new book, entitled "Ancient Society; or, Researches in the Lines of Human Progress from Savagery through Barbarism into Civilization." The contents fully bear out this title, and, while it is next to impossible to review adequately a production of this kind and of such scientific importance, a simple analysis will, we trust, amply show the more than ordinary merits of this "labor of love" of our most distinguished ethnologist. Before, however, we attempt this, we must call the reader's attention to the first paragraph of the first chapter of the first part, which is as follows:

"The latest investigations respecting the early condition of the human race are tending to the conclusion that mankind commenced their career at the bottom of the scale, and worked their way up from savagery to civilization through the slow accumulation of experimental knowledge."

In accordance with this view of evolution, Mr. Morgan has very logically treated the history of mankind as a "growth," and his book is divided into four parts, headed respectively: I. Growth of Intelligence through Inventions and Discoveries. II. Growth of the Idea of Government. III. Growth of the Idea of Family. IV. Growth of the Idea of Property.

The first part is devoted mainly to the establishment of what Mr. Morgan calls "ethnical periods," of which he recognizes three: savagery, barbarism, and civilization. The first two of these are again subdivided into three sub-periods each—a lower, a middle, and an upper status. Although this division is in itself a great improvement upon Herder's "ages of mankind," as well as upon the ages of stone, bronze, and iron of recent archæology, Mr. Morgan is far from putting it forth as absolute. "It is difficult," says he (p. 9), "if not impossible, to find such tests of progress to mark the commencement of these several periods as will be found absolute in their application and without exceptions upon all the continents. Neither is it necessary, for the purpose in hand, that exceptions should not exist." This modest reserve on his part precludes us from taking any exception to the statement immediately preceding the one just quoted: "It is probable that the successive arts of subsistence which arose at long intervals will ultimately, from the great influence they must have exercised upon the condition of mankind, afford the most satisfactory basis for these divisions." We cordially endorse his further remark: "Even though accepted as provisional, these periods will be found convenient and useful." Not as established facts, but as incitements to future research, Mr. Morgan's "ethnical periods" are of lasting scientific value. Neither shall we dwell too strongly on the assertion made at the outset of the second chapter ("Arts of Subsistence"): "Upon their skill in this direction the whole question of human supremacy on the earth depended." It is in perfect harmony with the author's views, and the correctness of them is not a fit subject for discussion here.

The second part, "Growth of the Idea of Government," however, deserves full attention. But here we must confess that Mr. Morgan furnishes us with a division entirely different, independent of all progress in the arts of subsistence, and which appears to us more satisfactory than the one just alluded to. It is the condition of human society. He acknowledges three classes succeeding each other, viz., society based upon difference of sex; society based upon kin; political society, based upon territory and property. These distinctions are not altogether parallel with the three ethnical periods. Still, we would suggest that they are of a higher order, and, therefore, better adapted to a classification of the "ratio of human progress." For while the rulership of the earth, as pictured in the development of the arts of subsistence, is without doubt the main exterior basis, man's control of himself is certainly the higher and nobler feature. And what else is the "growth of the idea of government" than the struggle of mankind towards that self-control which, for the individual as well as for the whole race, alone insures full and happy exercise of all faculties? It has, indeed, been a "labor of love" on the part of Mr. Morgan to gather the numberless data requisite for the results embodied in this second part of his book alone. We are justified in stating that they include a period of time of nearly twenty-five years. By scanning the earth's surface, even to the remotest isles, our author has succeeded in preserving for us the most important features of life among races that are fast vanishing. These features he has judiciously connected with the oldest records—mythical, traditional, and historical—of humanity, and thus spun a thread which, at a given point, is sure to pass through any branch or tribe. It is not so much an historical as an ethnological guide, which no one can neglect who intends to devote some attention to human antiquity, as well as to the study of such living peoples as are yet without the pale of modern civilization.

Of a state of society based upon the differences of sex we cannot form an adequate conception, so far as the archaic form is concerned, since nowhere upon earth is this peculiar form any longer to be found. But a mixture composed of two divisions, one based upon sex (dying out), and the other based upon kin (in process of development), prevails among many of the remnants of Australia's aborigines, who physically are perhaps at the bottom of the scale of human development. This at least appears certain, that such a condition was devoid of any organization. Individualism prevailed exclusively. Organization only made its appearance when mankind, rising above mere sexual divergences, began to group itself by kin. For these groups, distinguished sometimes under the names of clan, lineage, sept, etc., etc.—even tribe—Mr. Morgan has adopted the Latin name of "gens," and society based upon kin (as we have termed it before) is called by him "gentile society." (Both terms will be exclusively used by us hereafter.) Under it "the government dealt with persons through their relations to a gens or tribe." The gens "is a body of consanguinei descended from the same common ancestor, distinguished by a gentile name, and bound together by affinities of blood. It includes a moiety only of such descendants." In the earliest times this ancestor was supposed to be a female, therefore descent was in the female line; towards the later periods descent changed to the male line, as it now remains, since the present form of society, founded upon territory and property, and termed by Mr. Morgan "political society," has taken the place of gentilism. The last trace of the latter is found remaining in the family name. Ancient society, therefore, as far as we can trace it, has the unit of organization in the gens.

How the change occurred, from the disorganized state in which mankind knew only sexual difference, to gentile organization, Mr. Morgan attempts to explain in the third part of his book. In whatever manner the gens may have sprung up, its first apparition was an all-important fact, since its primitive form already contained the elements of government. To illustrate the gens in all its forms and transitions, as it appeared among as many branches of mankind as could be studied, to develop the various phases of society which it called forth, the organizations into which it disaggregated and to which it aggregated, until its ultimate downfall, as no longer corresponding to the wants of a stronger, richer, and more numerous community—this is Mr. Morgan's particular aim. Very naturally, he begins with the aborigines of this continent, who, according to him, have nowhere reached beyond the circle of gentile institutions. The Iroquois, whom nobody ever knew so well or studied so closely as Mr. Morgan, furnish him with the type of Indian institutions. Some tribes progressed beyond them, while others lagged behind, but all over the country, north and south, he establishes the same principles of society for the study of which the Six Nations furnished him with such ample and trustworthy materials.

The gens being the original unit, its functions and attributes should first be considered. Of these the Iroquois gentiles (thirty-eight in number) recognize ten, as follows: 1. The right of electing its sachem and chiefs. 2. The right of deposing its sachem and chiefs. 3. The obligation not to marry in the gens. 4. Mutual rights of inheritance to the property of deceased members. 5. Reciprocal obligations of help, defense, and redress of injuries. 6. The right of bestowing names upon its members. 7. The right of adopting strangers into the gens. 8. Common religious rites. 9. A common burial-place. 10. A council of the gens. These attributes fully characterize the nature of the gens. It is a democratic institution—the earliest attempt not only at government in general, but more especially at self-government proper. From this Mr. Morgan concludes that gentile society was essentially democratic, monarchy and despotism being products of a much later period. "As the unit, so the compound."

It results from the original or archaic form of the gens that at its inception at least two gentes must have been formed. This plurality either created a duality and hostility, or, rather, produced the first compound of

* 'Ancient Society; or, Researches in the Lines of Human Progress from Savagery through Barbarism into Civilization. By Lewis H. Morgan.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877.

the gens, namely: the tribe. Here again our author draws largely upon his favorite source, the Iroquois, and says: "It remains to present the functions and attributes of an Indian tribe, which may be discussed under the following propositions": 1. The possession of a territory and a name. 2. The exclusive possession of a dialect. 3. The right to invest sachems and chiefs elected by the gentes. 4. The right to depose these sachems and chiefs. 5. The possession of a religious faith and worship. 6. A supreme government consisting of a council of chiefs. 7. A head-chief of the tribe in some instances. The parallelism between the functions of the tribe and those of the gentes of which it is composed appears striking; while, on the other hand, the fact of a tribe holding (however transiently) possession of a territory, already places in the gentes the first indication of a future state and nation.

Within the tribe itself another subdivision sometimes appears—namely, that of a brotherhood of gentes, uniting together for certain purposes of religious worship and of a more social nature. Such a brotherhood, which sometimes divides a tribe into more than two sections (in the case of the Mohegans into three), Mr. Morgan designates by its Greek term, a phratry. He shows conclusively that it is not the product of a spontaneous union of the gentes, but rather the remainder of segmentation taking place in an original gens; the phratry being the only vestige left of its former existence. It does not belong to the organic series proper of gentile society, but the study of its formation as presented in this work is of the highest value for the understanding of the diffusion of mankind over the American continent and of the formation of the numerous aboriginal languages. We earnestly commend to the student's careful attention Mr. Morgan's beautiful exposé of the manner in which, from a given centre of subsistence (the valley of the Columbia, for instance), the entire continent might have become peopled in course of time: "When increased numbers pressed upon the means of subsistence, the surplus removed to a new seat, where they established themselves with facility, because the government was perfect in every gens, and in any number of gentes united in a band. . . . Dialectical variation finally would spring up, and thus complete their growth into tribes."

Ocean to Ocean. By Rev. Geo. M. Grant. (New York: R. Worthington. 1877.)—The indignant scorn with which Canadians commonly repel the insinuation that the fate of British America is "to fall like a ripe pear into the lap of the Republic" is well known; and this idea, as well as "the magnificent dreams of a future when this Colony shall be the Greater Britain," has inspired the book before us, which describes, in the form of a diary, a journey from Halifax to Victoria "wholly through British possessions," made in 1872 by the writer as Secretary to Mr. Sandford Fleming, Chief Engineer of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The route—across Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to the St. Lawrence, thence through the great lakes to Fort William, over the rivers, portages, lakes, and swamps to Fort Garry, up the Assiniboine and Saskatchewan rivers to the Rocky Mountains, and down Fraser's River to the Pacific—presents as many varieties of scenery, of semi-savage races and strange modes of locomotion, as can well be compressed into a three months' journey of nearly five thousand miles. Mr. Grant describes the ordinary incidents of the daily life of such travel with unusual fidelity, which is not at all marred by the occasional bursts of enthusiasm at some particularly impressive mass of mountain scenery, and artistic descriptions of a fine sunset or of a train of Red River carts and shaggy ponies overtaken by a prairie hail-storm. His ideas about Indians (in Canada) are excellent, and he pleads for simple justice for them without sentimental philanthropy, and gives a succinct and clear account of the rule of the Hudson's Bay Company, "the last of the great English monopolies." His diary, filled with these matters, is supplemented with many reflections upon the future of the Dominion, and many a slur upon its "wealthy neighbor," of which he has an ill-concealed envy and jealousy that crops out in every chapter and often in most comical shape. He looks at the United States, and asks how it has come about that they have grown from a few Atlantic provinces to "a mighty nation stretching its arms across a continent?" And he answers his question by referring to the enterprise (often unscrupulous, in his opinion) which has drawn millions of emigrants from every part of the world, built railroads in advance of settlement, and provided a system of transportation which takes charge of the emigrant at Castle Garden and lands him in a fertile prairie where there is "perhaps a comfortable log shanty ready for him." Following out his idea, he contends that the United States have now exhausted all their valuable land, but that "there's millions of it" in Manitoba and the Saskatchewan valley, to which he wants emigration directed; and in addition:

"Let there be a line of communication from the Pacific to the St. Lawrence through a succession of loyal provinces bound up with the empire by ever-multiplying and tightening links, and the future of the fatherland and of the great empire of which she will then be only the chief part is secured."

We venture to suggest some difficulties in the way of settlement besides those of summer frosts and lack of wood and fresh water, which our author endeavors laboriously to explain away: we refer to the climate, which, although not as severe as imagined, is still sufficiently arctic to limit emigration to the Northern Scots, Scandinavians, or Russians, and the capacities of its soil, fertile as it unquestionably is, to a few cereals and the more hardy vegetables; and these, with limited stock-raising and an abundance of tertiary coal near the mountains, comprise the resources of the "boundless northwest" of Canada. Mr. Grant should study more carefully the relations of Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, and Nebraska to great manufacturing centres, mineral districts, and southern products, before he enlarges too much on the air-castles of his future empire. However, if this book does not justify the warning (here quoted) of Mr. Seward, "that vigorous, perennial, ever-growing Canada would be a Russia behind the United States," it at least gives much trustworthy information about a comparatively unknown region. We can easily afford to forgive the numerous flings at "the neighboring Republic," and, with the aid of a map (which should be a *sine qua non* in such a book), can heartily enjoy the freedom and exhilaration of its journeys through the "great lone land."

Chambers's Cyclopædia of English Literature. Third edition. Revised by Robert Carruthers, LL.D. In two volumes. (New York: R. Worthington; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—The most striking difference between the present and the earlier editions of this well-known work is in the accession of scientific writers. Not only is their number significant, but they gain admission to the ranks of literary men with their colors flying, and in virtue of what they have written about science pure and simple. The fact is that since 1844, the date of the first appearance of the Cyclopædia, the term "literature" has been stretched perforce until it embraces what would then have been regarded as almost wholly unliterary. If we turn in the first volume to the article on Bacon, we find quoted a number of passages relating to Friendship, Studies, Discourse, Beauty, Prosperity and Adversity, Government, Libraries, and the like; if we turn to Newton, we are treated to his views on the Prophetic Language and a statement of his religious belief. Their scientific greatness is entirely unrecognized in these extracts. On the other hand, in the newer portion, Darwin, Huxley, and Tyndall are illustrated by what we may call "natural selection"—that is, by characteristic specimens of their scientific thought and doctrine. This difference between 1844 and 1876 is symptomatic of a great revolution in the popular reading, which is only fully appreciated when we compare the relative proportion of scientific say to theological publications at the two epochs. Nor ought it to be overlooked that it is the encroachments of science upon the ground of theology which have done most to give popularity to the newest branch of literature, and to make the 'Descent of Man' (even in the editorial mind beyond the Tweed) as good a title to a place in the Cyclopædia as Paley's 'Evidences' or Butler's 'Analogy.'

Another thing which strikes an American who scans these volumes curiously to see how his countrymen fare, is the scanty literary growth of the last twenty years. Yet the publishers expressly say in their preface that "one distinguishing feature of this period [since 1858, the date of the second edition] has been the advance in American literature. The New World has nobly vindicated its claim to be associated with the Old in the arts which dignify and adorn social life." If, however, we go over in our minds the list of writers whom Americans delight to honor as their countrymen, and single out those who have emerged and made a reputation since 1858, shall we find many or any who can compare with the lights of the previous period—but for whose continued burning, as we may say, the period just closed would almost have been in outer darkness? Bryant, Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Lowell, Story, Motley were all famous before 1858, and some of them had reached the climax of productivity. The same is true of Bayard Taylor; and neither Prof. W. D. Whitney nor J. W. Draper can, relatively to the date in question, be called a *novus homo*. But if these names be excluded, the wonderful "advance in American literature" predicated by the publishers resolves itself, on the editorial showing, into—Bret Harte and Mark Twain!

Absolutely, these two writers constitute in the eyes of Dr. Carruthers the intellectual glory of the past twenty years. This is certainly a great injustice to Artemus Ward, who has been as much pirated in England as either of his successors. A humorist who outranks them all in any scale in which a horse-laugh would be out of place, Mr. Howells, is not to be found in the Cyclopædia; a novelist like Mr. Henry James, jr., is equally undiscoverable; a poet like Mr. Aldrich has failed to attract the editor's attention. So popular a writer as Miss Alcott, whose works sell by the thousand in England, derives no advantage from this transatlantic approval.

So much for the new school. Among the older there are some serious omissions. We look in vain for Charles Sprague, for Richard H. Dana, jr., for John G. Palfrey, for Francis Parkman, for Charles G. Leland, for Edmund Quincy. Channing we have, but not Theodore Parker; Webster, but neither Everett, Sumner, nor Phillips. Gilmore Simms is spoken of as still living. But the editor is impartial in his omissions. He takes in neither Walter Bagehot nor Prof. Cairnes. To Mr. Freeman he allots no more space for extracts than to Mark Twain.

The Antelope and Deer of America. By John Dean Caton. Illustrated. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1877. 8vo, pp. i-xvi, 17-426.)—If we take this treatise for what it is, and do not mistake it for what it does not pretend to be, we are at a loss for criticism that shall not seem hypercritical, and do not feel that the lightest word of unfavorable comment is required. It is a good deal to call a book matchless, but our experience in popular zoölogical publications does not show us another treatise, if we except Mr. Lewis H. Morgan's admirable monograph on the beaver, that so thoroughly satisfies the expectations which the author's announced intentions justify, or one which so thoroughly covers the ground he elects to go over. It in no way detracts from the rare merit of the work that the scope does not include various technical matters which underlie the general subject, and which would be indispensable in a treatise professedly and formally devoted to what is somewhat invidiously known as "science." Nature has not only put bones and teeth into animals for the convenience of taxonomists and paper-philosophers, but she has clothed them with flesh and warmed them into life with blood. Science is not all comprised within lists of names and categories of affinities; and if to be an amateur is to appreciate this to the fullest, in all its bearings, then we wish that we had, for the benefit of the truest and highest purposes which science can subserve, more students of nature who, like Judge Caton, are "only amateurs."

Probably no person living has had better opportunities for studying the deer and antelope of America than the author of this book has enjoyed, and his execution of the work proves that he has made the most of them, improving his extraordinary facilities with ripe powers of observation, abundant reflection, great judgment and discernment, and a genuine love of his subject. We were prepared for a work of unusual merit and value by the numerous minor papers which the author has previously published in various periodicals, and are not surprised to find here the sum of long years of patient, faithful, and earnest enquiry. It does not seem to us reasonably possible that more minute and accurate description of all that can be learned of these animals as studied alive could be given, or given in a more interesting manner. We are ourselves presumed to be tolerably familiar with the subject, but we can truthfully say that we have learned more from Judge Caton than from all the rest of our book-experience. He may almost be said to have placed the subject in an entirely new light—in the light most like nature's own, and most favorable for its full appreciation. It would be trite to say that the work is a mine of wealth, but such is the fact; and it is as such that we confidently recommend it to all who are interested in the subject, as well as to any who would like to be interested in something against their will. For it is a most persuasive and seductive book, with all the "hypocrisy of love" to lure a lukewarm or a faint-hearted reader. The author infuses his agreeable personality through every page, and is no less delightful as a companion than he is instructive as a teacher. It is not to our present purpose to go into any analysis of the treatise, but simply to indicate its character.

Irrigation for the Farm, Garden, and Orchard. By Henry Stewart. (New York: Orange Judd Company. 12mo, pp. 264.)—The idea of the irrigation of agricultural lands has hitherto floated in a mythical sort of way in the American mind. We have always known more or less about the irrigation works of Lombardy, and less definitely of those of Spain, Japan and China, Egypt, and much of the rest of the world. We have some idea, too, of the irrigation works of the early Spanish settlers in Mexico and California, traces of whose aqueduct gutters are still to be found. Some important modern works of this character have been established in our own time in Colorado, California, and elsewhere, but on the whole our knowledge concerning the art may be said to be limited to a conviction of its importance. Practically, every one who thinks about the subject at all is satisfied that irrigation must produce the most profitable results, but almost no one knows the manner in which the work should be done. With this knowledge of the importance of irrigation so long existing, it seems odd that we should now have only our first American book on the subject—and a very successful book it is. It is not faultless—as what first book on a practical subject ever is?—but it is an extremely clever and skilful presentation of the details of irrigation work, which strikes us as being really more comprehensive and clever than any single English or French work of its size on the same subject, and its reading should be the first step of all who intend to carry irrigation into practice.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*
Carpenter (Dr. W. B.), Mesmerism, Spiritualism, etc.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Cherbuliez (V.), Samuel Brohl and Company	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Clifford (Josephine), Overland Tales	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)
Gill (W. F.), Life of Edgar Allan Poe	(William F. Gill & Co.) $1 75
Grant (Sir A.), Aristotle	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Ingleby (C. M.), Shakespeare: The Man and the Book	(Trübner & Co.)
Leo (Dr.), The Preservation of Beauty	(George de Colange & Co.)
Marenholz-Bülow (B. v.), Reminiscences of Friedrich Froebel	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
McCormick (S. J.), Peters's General History of Connecticut	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Raub (A. N.), Complete Arithmetic	(Porter & Coates)
Renan (E.), Les Evangiles, swd	(F. W. Christern)
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1877.

The Week.

THE Maine Republicans nominated Governor Conner for re-election, and adopted a series of resolutions, some of which were almost long enough for political treatises on their respective subjects. Their character may be gathered from the opening sentences of the first, second, and fourth, as follows: "The United States constitute a nation and not a mere confederacy," "Citizenship is national," "Most kind and fraternal relations should be cultivated between all sections of our common country." None of them are of any importance until we come to the eighth, which contains a vigorous "demand that in the resumption of specie payment the promise of the national Government be kept in an honest, straightforward manner, and that no backward or sideway step be taken." The ninth opposes any radical change in the navigation laws, and "any further land-grants or subsidies for railroads by the general Government." The tenth affirms that "the States of South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana were fairly and legally carried by the Republicans at the November election of 1876 for State and national tickets." The rest relate to local affairs. Ex-Governor Chamberlain, now president of Bowdoin College, proposed the adoption of a rather mild resolution of approval of Mr. Hayes, which was met by another declaring that the failure of the Government to recognize Packard and Chamberlain placed it "in the humiliating attitude of surrendering to rebels." A somewhat stormy debate followed, but Mr. Blaine acted the peacemaker by enquiring, "Shall one man be compelled to swallow the opinions of the other? Shall not each have the liberty to cherish his own?" and moved that both resolutions be put upon the table, which was done, and the Convention harmoniously adjourned. The Democratic Convention, which met on the 14th, adopted a platform of only three resolutions, of no special import, and nominated Mr. J. H. Williams for Governor.

The State of Virginia in 1871 provided for the payment of two-thirds of her indebtedness by inducing her creditors to accept bonds with coupons receivable for taxes. These bonds amount to about $20,000,000. The remainder of her debt, about $10,000,000, was left unprovided for until some settlement could be effected with the new State of West Virginia. Upon this portion of the debt no interest is now paid or has been for some time, although no one disputes its justness, and it is held principally by widows and orphans whose money has been invested in it by order of the State courts. In 1872 the Legislature repealed the bill which provided for the receipt of the coupons for taxes. A case was immediately made up, however, and decided in favor of the bondholders, and, despite energetic efforts subsequently made by Governor Kemper and others to get rid of a portion of this debt by some short and practical method, the bondholders have persistently held on to their bonds, have paid their taxes with the coupons, and have stubbornly refused to consent to any new bargain with the State. For some time past it has been evident that the answer to the question, What shall be done with the public debt? would probably be the rock upon which factions would split at the next Democratic Convention, especially as Mahone, one of the aspirants for the Governorship and described as an aggressive and energetic man, had declared that the creditors of the State must be made to agree to a readjustment of the debt.

When the Convention met on the 8th the delegates, more than 1,400 in number, had become so excited upon the subject of the State's indebtedness that even the mention of the words debt and taxes acted upon them like a red rag, and it was almost impossible to transact any business. The temporary chairman, attempting to express an opinion upon the exciting theme, was actually howled down and compelled to desist. After a three days' turbulent session, Colonel F. W. M. Holliday, a Winchester lawyer and strong opponent of repudiation, was nominated for Governor, by the aid, however, of Mahone and his followers, and an "adjustment" plank, not a very strong one, was put into the platform. It should be added that Holliday is said to be opposed to any increase of taxation though without it payment of the State's debt is impossible. There is no excuse whatever for the repudiation fever which has recently obtained so strong a hold upon the farmers and planters of Virginia. The debt was legally contracted, and the taxes are not burdensome. The unanimity with which all hands disclaim the dishonorable project of repudiation, and the earnestness with which at the same time a large number are advocating "readjustment" as something entirely consistent with honor, is most absurd. Experience, however, is fast teaching us that a State's sense of honor does not necessarily include the idea of paying its debts.

The Georgia Constitutional Convention has given the bondholders of the State what appears to be a *coup de grâce* by repudiating all the securities in dispute. From the accounts given in the newspapers, it seems that this was not done through any misunderstanding of the nature of the bondholders' claims. The matter was thoroughly discussed, and many of the leading men of the State opposed the repudiating clause. Toombs, however, came to the rescue of the repudiators, and declared that all the bonds were inherently void, having been issued by a "usurping" government. Toombs probably knows what some of his constituents do not know, that there is no principle of public law and morals better settled than that, for purposes of credit, the government of a State is continuous; and that in civilized communities, when one class or interest succeeds in ousting another, even though that other may have been revolutionary and illegal in character, the utmost care is taken by the incoming power to protect the rights of creditors who have relied on the promises of the *de facto* rulers. Of course the idea that the carpet-bag governments were illegal or revolutionary is absurd. On the same grounds demagogues of the Toombs stripe might advocate the repudiation of the national debt on their old theory that the Union ceased to exist on the secession of the Southern States—as, indeed, we have no doubt they would if they got a chance. The main question now for the holders of the securities of such States as Minnesota and Georgia is, What can be done about it? There seems to be no resource except open and persistent exposure. Debtors who refuse not only to pay their debts but to give their creditors a hearing, are no better than common cheats, whether they be individuals or States; and as such they ought to be exposed and disgraced throughout the civilized world. It ought to be known by every one who has a dollar to invest, and by every emigrant who thinks of seeking a new home on this side of the Atlantic, that, in addition to the usual risks he runs, there is in such States as these one more—that the sense of good faith is benumbed, if not dead, and that he is making himself one of a community of swindlers. As we suggested some time ago, the Stock Exchange ought to wipe the securities of fraudulent States off their lists, as they do those of swindling corporations.

If the Republican party expects to hold on to the workingmen by demagogical tactics it must make up its mind to go a great deal further than it proposed to go in the Ohio platform. Conventions or mass-meetings of workingmen have been held in Baltimore, Philadelphia, Columbus, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, and perhaps in other places within the last ten days, and some of the speeches made and resolutions adopted show the feebleness, from a labor-reformer's point of view, of the Ohio Republicans' attempt to meet the issue.

The Cincinnati gathering, for instance, demanded, among other things, the abolition of all conspiracy laws; gratuitous instruction in all educational institutions; prohibition of convict labor; repeal of all patent laws; the control by Government of all railroads and telegraphs; and the management by co-operative unions under Government control of all kinds of industrial enterprises. On this platform a State ticket was nominated. Judge West and Mr. Stanley Matthews can hardly employ their time for a few weeks to come to any better advantage than by reading carefully and reflecting seriously upon the newspaper reports of these workingmen's meetings.

On Friday last Senator Conkling returned from Europe on the *Neckar*, and was welcomed by a band of patriots, among whom we notice some of our most prominent appraisers, postmasters, weighers, gaugers, and inspectors. It shows how little the new civil-service rules have cooled political zeal that the first man to climb over the side of the ship and welcome back New York's Favorite Son was no less a person than Mr. Silas B. Dutcher, the appraiser, lately reduced to slavery by his exclusion from participation in ward politics. Mr. Conkling is described as being "the picture of health," and must be in good spirits, too, for he came up the bay waving a small American flag to the accompanying delegation from the Custom-house and Post-office. He conversed very kindly with the reporters, complimented the captain of the ship on his behavior, and repeated an interesting if somewhat ungrammatical meteorological prediction that he had made to him—that "the further we get from Europe and the closer we approach America we will have no fogs." And so, he continued, it was, "for as we neared our own soil the American bird seemed to scatter the nebula with its wings, and eternal sunshine settled on our heads." In the evening the Senator was serenaded and made a speech, which was printed in full in all the papers of Saturday. He dwelt with feeling on the dangers to which he had been exposed on the stormy deep, when, as he beautifully described it, he had been "tossing in chill winds and rains on foaming seas, sometimes in the sweep of polar currents," and expressed his gratitude to the North German Lloyds, their officers and men, for his safe return; declared he was never so proud of his country as when abroad; and that he had been "amazed to find so little to envy" in foreign institutions. He then compared, in a brief but masterly way, English civilization with our own, pointing out that we were ahead in hotels, while in rapid transit London was more advanced than New York. He next referred to the magnanimity of Germany and the Germans in their dealings with France, and gave a glowing picture of General Grant in Europe, predicting that the honors now lavished upon him would not wipe out "a jot of his Americanism," or make him anything save the "same upright, downright American, without cant or palaver—the same modest, unpretending citizen" he has ever been.

One W. B. Moore, Chief of the Special Agents of the Treasury Department, was recently removed from office for cause, notwithstanding President Grant had made a particular request that he be retained. Moore conceived that Gen. H. V. Boynton, the Washington correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette*, had a hand in his dismissal, and accordingly published a statement accusing the latter of surreptitiously procuring papers from the files of the Department relating to himself (Moore), and then seeking to blackmail him by threatening to publish them. Gen. Boynton replies that he has never had any communication with Moore directly or indirectly; that he has never received any papers relating to Moore from the files of the Treasury Department, and that Moore's removal from office was caused by the discovery of papers showing that while the San Domingo affair was under investigation by the Senate, Moore conspired with Babcock, Whitley, and Nettleship (afterwards of safe-burglary notoriety), to kidnap an obnoxious witness, a citizen of Rhode Island, and carry him off to Texas on a false charge of murder; that Moore actually manufactured the affidavit of the alleged murder, and with it obtained from the Governor of Rhode Island a requisition to arrest and remove this person, intending to keep him in custody till the investigation was ended. When these documents were found by the present Administration, Moore was summarily discharged, and it has since transpired that he was the discoverer of the notorious "Bristow conspiracy" to blacken the name of General Grant by getting up an unnecessary prosecution of the distillers, and wickedly procuring the indictment of the President's private secretary. That Moore's correspondence with General Grant was largely if not chiefly instrumental in bringing about the retirement of Secretary Bristow from the Cabinet and of Bluford Wilson from the Treasury, and the removal of all persons who had distinguished themselves in any way in bringing the Whiskey Ring to justice, is now generally believed in Washington. It is to be hoped that General Boynton will make a fuller disclosure of these facts in the interest of historical truth. Cabinets have been unmade in other times and places by spies and informers, but by none, within our recollection, of so low a grade as this one.

One of the movers in the kidnapping affair, according to Gen. Boynton's statement, was Gen. Babcock, the negotiator of the San Domingo treaty. When this officer of the army was under indictment at St. Louis, an "interview" with General Sherman was published in one of the newspapers of that city, in which the General was reported as saying that he did not believe Babcock was guilty of complicity in the whiskey frauds; but whether he was or not, he would have to answer those charges at some future time before a tribunal where the technicalities of the criminal law would not avail him. This was accepted by the public as an intimation that his character as an officer and a gentleman, and his fitness to hold a permanent command over others, would be reviewed by a military court. So much time has since elapsed as to suggest that possibly the tribunal alluded to was the Last Judgment. It is not to be supposed that the whole world has joined in a conspiracy to crush an innocent and obscure person of the name of Babcock, by connecting him successively with the whiskey frauds, the Washington safe-burglary, the Black Friday conspiracy, false measuring of street pavements, and the kidnapping of a witness on a false charge of murder; and it is of some importance to the *morale* of the army and to the character of future graduates at West Point that the standard of fitness for a military commission should be something higher than ability to steer clear of the penitentiary. Gen. Babcock should be either vindicated or cashiered; and if the superior officers of the army cannot find an excuse for beginning the task, it will be incumbent upon Congress to take the initiative.

An important engagement with the Nez-Percés took place on Friday, this time within the limits of Montana. The Indians had retreated from General Howard's front to the Bitter Root Mountains by way of Elk City. They crossed into the valley of the Big Hole, and encamped on the northern edge of the prairie of that name on the night of the 8th inst. Here they were overtaken by General Gibbon's command, consisting of 150 soldiers and 32 citizen volunteers, and were attacked in camp at daybreak on the 9th. Their force amounted to 350 warriors, of whom a large number were surprised and killed in their teppees or wigwams. Nevertheless, with remarkable bravery and discipline they continued the fight all day, assuming the offensive, but disappeared in the night. Forty of their dead were counted on a portion of the battle-field. The troops, too, suffered a heavy loss—namely, seven officers, fifty regulars, and ten volunteers, of whom the killed numbered twenty-five. General Gibbon was among the wounded. He was joined on the 11th by General Howard, upon whom the pursuit will now devolve.

It is notable that for four consecutive days during the last week the price of gold did not vary from 105¼; that is to say, for four days the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar had a gold value of $0.9501. The purchases of gold by the Syndicate to complete their settlement with the Treasury for 4 per cent. bonds had much to do in steadying the price, which otherwise would probably have fallen with the rates for sterling exchange. These, at the close of the week, were nearly down to the point at which gold can be imported without

loss, provided the London money market remains as low as 2 per cent. The Bank of England, however, lost such an amount of gold to Paris during the week as to harden discounts and make it probable that the Bank will at an early day advance its discount rate to 2½ or 3 per cent. Notwithstanding this and the fact that in our foreign trade the imports are steadily increasing, it is probable that within 60 days we shall again be importing gold. The outlook for general trade during the autumn is encouraging. The wheat crop in the West is the largest ever raised, and other cereals are very promising. The cotton crop will also be a very large one, some estimates placing it above last year's. In Wall Street the inclination among speculators is to close their eyes to everything except the crops, and "bull" prices. Accordingly, there has been an advancing market for shares during the week.

Parliament was prorogued on Tuesday until October 30, to the great satisfaction of the British public, annoyed as they have been by the recent disorderly proceedings in the House of Commons. The Queen's speech was divided between the Eastern Question and the annexation of the Transvaal. Representations to Russia defining the "interests of the country" had "elicited a reply indicating friendly disposition on the part of that state," so that there had been no occasion to abandon the neutrality already professed by England. It was still possible, however, that the "rights of the Empire" (a bolder phrase than "interests," but equally vague) might be "assailed or endangered," in which case Her Majesty's Government would of course rely on the aid of Parliament in vindicating them.

The Russians in Bulgaria seem still to be under the paralyzing influence of the Plevna disaster. They are waiting for reinforcements, which have actually begun moving towards the Danube. Krüdener (or Latoff, who is said to have succeeded him) and Shakhovski, heavily reinforced from neighboring quarters, confront Osman Pasha at Plevna, but apparently shun a new collision. Their superior, the Grand Duke Nicholas, has removed his headquarters from Tirnova, backward, to Bulgareni, in the vicinity of their camps. On August 6, it is reported, 5,000 of Osman's cavalry attacked the Russians in a fortified position between Laskar, twelve miles south of Plevna, and the River Ruzhitza —which is rather vague, as the Osma intervenes—and were repulsed, but the Russians abstained from pursuing. On the following day a force of Russian infantry and cavalry made an attack on Lovatz (or Lovtcha), but retired with severe loss. These troops probably belonged to the division of Dragomiroff, which is stationed between Tirnova and Lovatz, while, further south, that of Mirski is entrenched before Selvi, thus covering the north entrance to the Shipka pass, which seems still to be held by Gourko. The Trans-Balkan region, however, has been completely evacuated, and any renewal of operations there is generally considered to be for a time out of the question.

The army of the Tzezarevitch, which has probably been somewhat depleted in favor of that of the right, is displaying equally little vigor. About 60,000 strong, it holds the long line of the river Lom and its main upper branch, the Kara (Black) Lom, from the Danube, near Rustchuk, to the slopes of the Balkans. The headquarters of the Crown-Prince, with the bulk of the Thirteenth Corps, are at Katzelevo, near the east bank of the Kara Lom, confronting Mehemet Ali Pasha's position at Rasgrad; the Twelfth Corps, nearer Rustchuk, is at Kadiköi, also east of the river a little below the junction of the Ak (White) Lom; the First Division of the Thirteenth Corps occupies the southernmost position, between Osman Bazar and Tirnova. A strong detachment of this division on Aug. 8 attacked the Turks at Yaila, twelve miles west of Osman Bazar, and suffered a repulse. Cavalry attacks south of Rasgrad, about the same time, proved equally unsuccessful, if anything more than a reconnoisance was intended. Suleiman Pasha was in the meanwhile endeavoring to cross the Balkans through the Feredjish or some other pass, southeast of Tirnova. Whether Mehemet Ali, strengthened by Suleiman's forces and by the troops withdrawn from the Caucasus, will venture on an offensive movement against the army of the Russian Crown-Prince, or continue to pursue the Fabian tactics instituted by his predecessor, Abdul-Kerim, must soon become apparent. The Egyptian troops under Prince Hassan are reported to have begun a movement against Gen. Zimmermann's forces in the Dobrudja—against his rear, if he has actually commenced the evacuation of that low and swampy region, in which his army has too long been exposed to the ravages of malarious diseases without being able to execute any serious military operations. Fevers are also prevalent at the imperial headquarters at Biela—if the Czar is still there—and that to a very alarming degree as reports have it.

But however frightful the ravages of manly warfare and of more destructive disease may be in the camps of the two contending powers, incomparably more horrid is the aspect of the carnage perpetrated on each other by the Bulgarian and Turkish populations of the districts successively occupied and abandoned by the Russians, or wantonly indulged in by irregular troops, probably on both sides. The recital of these horrors is sickening in the highest degree, and both parties delight in picturing them in detail, hoping to make capital by so doing. We are not going to abridge these narratives in our columns, both on account of their ghastliness and of the uncertainty which still attaches to most of the facts related. We are fortunately so situated here that no amount of barbarity proved against Turk or Bulgarian, Bashi-Bazuk or Cossack, can drive us into a crusade against the Crescent or an alliance against the Czar; and for a mere expression of decided sympathy we can wait until a critical sifting of the evidence and weighing of responsibilities has taken place through impartial observers. As an expression of opinion, suffice it to say that we consider both parties guilty of a certain amount of "atrocities," and the accounts on both sides to be grossly exaggerated and partly invented; that the history of the struggles between Russians and Turks, between Turks and revolted rayahs, between Russians and Turkomans, etc., has taught us not to disbelieve any statement of savagery in those quarters merely because it is apt to shake one's faith in the goodness of human nature; that we find it natural that the blood shed in Bulgarian districts in 1876, when insurrection was brewing, was productive of retaliatory bloodshed in 1877, when the Turks were fleeing before the Russians; and that we presume the Russians to be guilty of rashly fomenting insurrection south of the Balkans, and the Turks of cruelly suppressing or chastising insurrection when the retreat of the Russians left the Bulgarian inhabitants of Eski Saghra, Kalofer, Karlova, etc.—armed and unarmed—to their tender mercies. Nor is fierceness, stimulated by fanaticism, fear, and revenge, limited, even in our times, to the east of Europe, as witness the Sepoy war, the Carlist war, or the Commune of Paris.

In Asia both the Turkish and Russian armies appear to have assumed the offensive almost at the same time. The Turks about August 5 invaded Russian Armenia (the government of Erivan), crossing the Tchiadji pass, south of the high Alagöz group of mountains, and advancing as far as Alikutchak, twenty-five miles northwest of Erivan. Alikutchak was easily taken, but an attack on a neighboring place was repulsed after a severe fight, which seems to have baffled the further advance in the rear of Tergukassoff, who was concentrating at Igdyr, near the foot of Mt. Ararat. Shortly after this Russian general crossed the frontier and advanced to Balüklü, west-north-west of Bayazid, a portion or the whole of the Turkish invading force withdrew from Russian territory. In the meanwhile strong Russian detachments, all probably belonging to the forces in the centre, under Loris Melikoff, had attacked various points on or near the frontier river Arpa Tchai. The Turks claim advantages in several encounters, but nothing important is as yet reported from either side. An artillery duel is also stated to have taken place before Batum.

THE SPEECHES AT CLEVELAND.

THE speech of Judge West, accepting the Republican nomination for Governor of Ohio, which was briefly noticed in our last issue, has been visited with just indignation by a portion of the Republican press, and damned with exceedingly faint praise by another. The New York *Times* calls it "a communistic tirade that must have delighted any member of the International Federation of Labor who happened to hear it." It was preceded by a harangue from Senator Matthews of the most objectionable type, the worst parts of which were reproduced by Judge West, although the tone he adopted was somewhat freer from demagogism than was the Senator's. It is difficult to say how far Judge West was struggling with confusion of ideas, and how far he is chargeable with intent to make bad matters worse, in order to gain the votes of the rioters and their sympathizers. We prefer to believe that he looked upon the riotous element of society as helpless drunkards, who are to be reformed not by abstaining from liquor but by denouncing the rum-seller, or as children who have burned their hands and set the house on fire with explosives, and who are to be pacified by throwing all the blame on the naughty gunpowder. It is reasonable to suppose that he had no clear conception of his subject, since the very pith of his discourse is the strange notion that railroad companies should be restrained by law from carrying freight at such low rates that they cannot earn money enough to pay their employees "a just compensation." A few years ago the Legislature was invoked to compel railroads to lower their rates, the law of competition having enabled them to maintain high ones. Now it is gravely proposed to compel them by statute to raise their rates, the law of competition having forced them to adopt low ones. What Judge West proposes is, therefore, to abolish railway competition.

The step from this project to that of abolishing the competition of labor generally is not wide. Judge West proceeded to take it by announcing that he was in favor of fixing a minimum price for labor, and requiring that this minimum price be supplemented at the end of each year by a dividend out of the profits of the business. This rule is to be applicable to "all who labor in the mines and upon the railroads," but why it should be limited to miners and railway hands is not by any means clear. Operatives in mills, factories, stone-quarries, brick-yards, printing-offices, etc., will justly object to an aristocracy of labor in the departments of mining and railway transportation, and will claim the benefits of Judge West's improved method of dealing with the labor question; and when they, too, shall have been admitted to a share in them, the drayman, the 'longshoreman, the seamstress, the farm-hand, and all those who depend upon job-work and piece-work will be entitled to ask for the equivalent of the legal minimum for their labor, and of the statutory dividend out of somebody's profits. All this is of the essence of the doctrines proclaimed by the bedlamites of the several French revolutions, and their last expression—the last before the régime of street barricades and petroleum—is that the state must find employment and wages for everybody. We doubt whether Judge West contemplates so extreme a measure under a form of government whose chief boast is that it meddles as little as possible with the private concerns of the citizen. Nevertheless, he may fairly be held responsible for conclusions to which he logically points the way.

If argument were needed to refute Judge West and Senator Matthews, it would be sufficient to say that the world was not made in the way they would like to have it. Whether they could make a better one by leaving out the principle of competition may well be questioned, but it cannot be doubted that that principle is part of the organic law of the human race. When it shall have been so far reformed that the state is charged to see that everybody has employment and wages of some kind, it will reassert itself by demands for particular kinds of employment and particular rates of wages, until the whole framework of "reform" tumbles into ruin—that is, until society gets back to the starting-point at which the reformers began their experiment. This, however, need not, and probably would not, deter a new set from commencing at the same place and going over the same ground. Very much may be pardoned to the spirit of sympathy which looks upon all human suffering and privation as somehow linked with bad laws or with the want of good ones. We should be glad to believe that Judge West's dangerous utterances had no other inspiration, but, considering the time and place and the character borne by the speaker as the representative of his party, they call for all the censure they have received or are likely to receive. Such speeches from such men are the common forerunners and provocations of riots, and are of the stuff that make standing armies necessary in order that the world may not lapse again into a state where the only form of competition prevailing is that of the fist.

Senator Matthews is committed by his speech to the twofold task of abolishing "reckless competition" among railways by law, and of providing statutory means of arbitration between employers and employees in respect of wages. These two projects naturally go together, for they imply that all railways, except those most favorably situated, shall earn nothing, and that all laborers out of employment shall be deprived of the means of getting any. With competition abolished, the weaker members of the community are no longer permitted to offer their services at lower rates of compensation than the legal standard. Hence they will have good cause to demand that the state, which has taken away their natural rights, shall support them in their enforced idleness; and, as regards non-paying railways, that it shall make good all deficiencies in their earnings arising from their compliance with the law. Statutory arbitration between employer and employee is a vague and unmeaning phrase unless it implies enough force to bring the parties under its jurisdiction, and the exercise of such force is simply deprivation of freedom of choice to both; for if the employer is bound to pay the rate of wages decided upon by authority, the employee must be bound to work for the wages so decreed, even though he can do better elsewhere. This is equivalent to ruling out the unemployed altogether. Probably Senator Matthews's sympathies are not so engrossed with the misfortunes of those who are receiving only half-wages that he can do nothing for those who are receiving none. The public treasury is the only resource left for them. All the large streams and all the small rills intended to fructify industry on the plan proposed have their beginning in the reservoir of general taxation. Taxing all for the support of all is a principle in which any *communard* of the Old World can serve as preceptor to Senator Matthews, and one which the people of Ohio should be warned not to import in any of the disguises in which candidates for office may seek to array it. Since the best time to decide any question is when it presents itself for decision, it is most fitting that the doctrines propounded in the speeches at Cleveland should be met now, or that active preparations should be made to meet them. Old party ligaments may prevent any sharp division in the present campaign. Politicians will stave off the encounter as long as possible, but events will, in all probability, crowd it forward in spite of cowering parties and ambiguous platforms; and the sooner the better. Let those who would abolish competition, and throw all persons upon the public treasury for support who are not receiving "a just compensation," range themselves on one side, and let all who esteem this idea a subversion of civilized society, and especially of the American type of civilization, take their places in the opposite ranks as fast as possible.

FILIBUSTERING IN PARLIAMENT.

THE contention in the British House of Commons between six or seven Irish "Home-Rulers" and the rest of the House has brought out in a somewhat striking way the very French character of what is called "the national movement" in Ireland, and will probably render still more difficult the creation of anything like a good understanding between English and Irish politicians. In the first place, the Home-Rulers will probably never be forgiven the introduction of the practice of "filibustering" into the House of Commons. Filibustering has derived some dignity in this country from the fact that during the slavery controversy it was made

use of as a quasi-revolutionary proceeding for ends so important that any means seemed justifiable. But frequent resort to it is none the less calculated to bring parliamentary institutions into contempt. Rules of procedure are intended, of course, to aid a legislative body in arriving at decisions. Using them to prevent decisions and to stop the transaction of legitimate business and to prevent the majority having its lawful way, by substituting a trial of physical endurance for one of persuading power, is a gross and scandalous perversion. Rules will, of course, be now and then used, and often pardonably used, for the temporary postponement of a vote; but this is a different thing from formally challenging a majority to see which side of the House would divide oftenest without bodily prostration.

In this latter and extreme form filibustering has been hitherto unknown in England, and it has been introduced now for the somewhat ridiculous purpose of forcing the great majority of the members to accept the views of a minority of seven as to the hours at which the House of Commons should sit. The House, on every day in the week except Wednesday, begins its session late in the afternoon, and usually sits late into the night, under the single restriction that no "opposed business" can be brought up after midnight. There are many plain objections to this system, the principal one being that a large body of the members absent themselves at the dinner hour, between eight and ten, and are not in deliberative mood afterwards. But it has the great and overmastering excellence of enabling busy lawyers and merchants and government officers, who are hard at work in the courts or in their offices all day, to serve as legislators without interfering with their ordinary avocations, or, at all events, interfering to an intolerable degree; and the advantage of having such men in a legislative body cannot be overrated. To this Messrs. Parnell and O'Donnell and Biggar, who would like to go to bed at midnight, and profess not to care how the House of Commons is made up, object, and, not being able to win the majority over to their way of thinking, determined to force them into concurrence by the infliction of what was in reality corporal chastisement. Behind this there was probably another more powerful motive—that of pleasing their constituents by showing how much they could vex and incommode the Englishmen without violating the law. The Irish voter is of a most litigious temper, and there is nothing which gives him more pleasure than a successful game of legal chicane. Daniel O'Connell probably owed more of the continuance of his popularity to the general faith in his smartness as a lawyer, or, to use his own phrase, to the belief that "he could drive a coach-and-six through an act of Parliament," than to any other one thing; and the discovery that he had been caught in "sedition" by the Crown lawyers was a disenchantment from which his reputation never recovered. There is, too, probably below this merely combative satisfaction with the tactics of their representatives a vague hope that by making their presence in the House very obnoxious and inconvenient, England may be induced finally to consent to that division of legislative powers known under the name of "Home Rule."

There is, however, a certain amount of justice in one point of the Home-Rulers' case. One of the reasons why they are unwilling to permit legislation after midnight is, they say, that the English members refuse to give proper attention to Irish business; and that this is true there is little question. There is a great deal of legislation done for Ireland in Parliament, and a great deal of discussion of Irish questions, but the proportion of English members who pay any attention to them or take interest in them is very small; and the Government is, as a general rule, sure of being supported blindly in any course it may please to adopt with regard to them, as long as it shows no sign of concession to the priests. The same thing is true with regard to Scotland. Very few English members have any knowledge of Scotch affairs, or take the trouble of forming any opinion about them; but Scotch affairs are left by the Government almost completely to Scotch members, who form a little council under the presidency of the Lord Advocate, and anything they settle on on purely Scotch matters the Ministry, as a rule, are willing to adopt. Now, Ireland differs from England still more than Scotland does, and its peculiarities of local feeling, and usage, and manners, which ought to be taken into account in all legislation which is local in its intention, are still less comprehensible to Englishmen than those of Scotland. Nevertheless, not only are Irish members not allowed to frame the Irish policy of the Government, but their opinions about it, except as those of members having votes, are not greatly regarded. This is, there is no question, an unfortunate state of things, of which it is quite natural for the Home-Rulers to complain; but, like so many other Irish troubles, its roots go far back into the past. As a matter of fact, Ireland was originally annexed to England by conquest, and the practice of governing it without reference to the feelings of the natives not unnaturally then grew up. But it was afterwards settled solidly, and the local government seized and firmly held by Englishmen and Scotchmen, or, in other words, from a conquered country it became a colony composed for all political purposes of men of the English faith and blood, and forthwith had applied to it the régime under which the American colonies revolted. Ireland attempted the same mode of deliverance, but was too near home to be successful, and it had the curious but unfortunate experience of obtaining relief finally simply through the slow and irritating growth of wisdom and justice in the English mind with regard to the government of dependencies. But the habit of looking at Irish questions from an English point of view, and of feeling that Irishmen did not understand them perfectly, had become too deeply rooted in English politics to be readily got rid of; and when the Catholics were emancipated, the division among Irish politicians—the old and bitter feud, in short, between the English colonists and the natives—came into play to furnish a ready excuse for English ignorance as to what Irishmen want, and for the refusal of the Government to leave Irish affairs in Irish hands.

At present the Home-Rulers represent not only the least intelligent and poorest portion of the Irish community, but, what is still more unfortunate, a portion of it which is no more willing or prepared to play the game of politics in Anglo-Saxon fashion than Paul de Cassagnac. The curse of all "national" movements in Ireland is that they are not national. Whatever nomenclature or war-cries may be used in them, everybody knows that their strongest influence comes from Rome, and that the social and political ideal at which they aim would contain neither a really free parliament nor a really free press, and that political questions would in it be settled not by open discussion, or a fair vote, but by communications from the other world, transmitted through the bishops. As long, in short, as the bulk of the Irish people is as much dominated by priestly influence as it is now, a real government of the English type can hardly be maintained amongst them except by and through the good-natured and well-meaning but rather arrogant domination to which Irish representatives find themselves exposed in the House of Commons—which is another way of saying that "clericalism" is as much a curse in Ireland as it is in France and Spain, and that the spectacle of a Protestant like Mr. Parnell trying to play the patriot under its influence, and in responsibility to it, is grotesque as well as melancholy.

RAILROAD WAGES.

IN consequence of their embarrassed financial condition many of the railroad companies have reduced by ten per cent. the wages of their employees, and this reduction, it is alleged in some quarters, is a tyrannical and inhuman act, which has no complete justification in either economics or morals. In examining, as we now purpose doing, the correctness of this allegation, we shall have nothing to say about the recklessness of railroad management, swindling directors, and autocratic presidents. About these things we have already expressed decided opinions, and shall, without doubt, have occasion to refer to them again; but the wages of employees are not dependent upon the blunders or misconduct of their employers, and we have been sorry to observe respectable newspapers recently half-apologizing to the strikers whom they opposed, because of the assumed immoralities of railroad managers.

We do not care to consider any argument in justification of the late reduction which would not be equally good were railroad companies universally made up either of knaves or angels.

Hitherto railroad employees have been content with their wages. No one pretends that they have been unfairly proportioned to the wages of other American workmen, and we have all listened to the triumphant terms in which these have been compared with the wages of workmen in other countries. It is fair to assume, therefore, that until a very late date engineers, firemen, and brakemen were unable to complain of the equitableness of their wages. But precise figures and a good starting-point are furnished us by Mr. Arthur, chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, in a recent communication to the *Herald*. Twenty years ago, says Mr. Arthur, engineers' wages were $60 and firemen's $30 per month, conductors' from $40 to $60, and brakemen's $30. He admits also that the present pay of all these classes is now, since the reduction, equal to what it was then, but asserts that the cost of living is twice as much now as then. There was no great fault found with the wages of railroad hands prior to the civil war. Mr. Arthur's first statement may be accepted as substantially correct. There was probably more variation in the wages of railroad hands then than now. Firemen and brakemen certainly received less than $30 per month on some roads twenty years ago, and some engineers received more than $60, but the average must have been very nearly as above stated.

It is not necessary for us to repeat here any of the long lists of figures with which the papers have been filled giving the wages of the different classes of employees on different roads, and comparing them with the wages received in other years. It is sufficient for our purpose to state that, taking the average of wages actually paid by a large number of roads, railroad engineers are now receiving $85 per month, firemen $45, and brakemen more than $42—in many instances more than firemen. Of course the variations from these averages are considerable, but, so far as we have been able to ascertain, no engineer receives less than $60, and no fireman or brakeman less than $30—that is, as regular pay for full time —while some engineers receive as high as $115, and some firemen over $58. Not only, therefore, do these three classes of employees receive as much as in 1860, but engineers average 41⅔ per cent. more, brakemen 39½ per cent. more, and firemen 50 per cent. more.

It should be remembered, moreover, that the wages of railroad hands have never been very much higher than at present. When the cost of living was greatly in excess of to-day's cost, the wages of firemen and brakemen, although larger than now, were not proportionately larger. There has been no reduction, save the present one of ten per cent., on the Pennsylvania road, for instance, since 1873 ; and Donahue, a leader of the strikers on the Erie road, employed there for more than twenty-five years, refers, in a published letter of grievances, to only one 10 per cent. reduction since the war. Putting together all the roads concerning which we have been able to obtain statistics, wages of the classes mentioned are nowhere much more than 20 per cent. below the highest point reached ; 25 per cent. would be an extremely liberal allowance, but even this would be considerably below the average reduction in other and corresponding pursuits. To get some idea of the movements of wages, take those of carpenters from 1860 to the present time. One of the most prominent carpenters and builders of this city was paying in the spring and summer of 1860, to first-class workmen, $2 per day of 10 hours' work. In the autumn his men struck for $2 25 per day, and got it. In 1861, at the outbreak of the war, wages went all to pieces, and for a time no regular rates were established anywhere. They soon reached the last figures mentioned, however, and then rose rapidly until on the 1st of May, 1872, the same man agreed to pay the same class of workmen $4 per day of only eight hours' work. This agreement lasted for two years. Then wages began to decline, and to-day the men in the same shop are receiving $2 50 per day of ten hours' work, although in other shops the same class of workmen are paid but $2 25. Carpenters' wages, therefore, have fallen from the highest point reached from 37½ to 43¾ per cent. in actual wages paid, or, if the difference in the length of a day's work be taken into account, no less than 55 per cent. The wages of plasterers and masons have fallen still more. The highest point reached by them was $5 50 and $6 per day ; the present price being $2, or, in some cases, $2 50—a fall of from 54½ to 66⅔ per cent. The most rapid rise in wages perhaps was that of first-class tailors, which, from 1863 to 1873, went up nearly 132 per cent., from which they have as yet declined not much more than 20 per cent., the hold of a powerful trade-union by which they were forced up and kept up having only recently been broken. The wages of common laborers have declined from 37½ to 50 per cent., and of other laborers in special pursuits but not necessarily skilled workmen (blacksmiths' helpers, etc.), from 37½ to 60 per cent. These facts are enough to illustrate the truth that the wages of firemen and brakemen upon railroads have not fallen relatively as much as the wages of the great body of workingmen of all classes throughout the country, and this statement we believe to be indisputable even after all allowances have been made for special cases of hardships and underpayment. Whatever real cause of complaint, therefore, railroad hands may now have with regard to the amount of their wages, the great body of mechanics and laborers, who have had no serious thoughts of striking, should have far greater cause.

The comparative necessary cost of living in different years can only be ascertained approximately because of the great number of articles and the fluctuations in prices to be considered. Rents of city mechanics have not as yet fallen from the highest point reached in proportion to wages. From ten to twenty per cent. would probably cover the average reduction in this class of tenements ; but, on the other hand, the rents of railroad employees were probably never as high in proportion to wages as those of city mechanics. The cost of clothing, again, cannot be accurately compared, because the domestic stuffs of which common clothing was made in 1860 are not now manufactured. The fall in the price of the cheaper grades of goods, however, within the past three years has been very great, fully equalling the fall in wages, and bringing the price of a suit of clothes very close to that paid in 1860. Of other necessary articles of household expenditure, coal and oil are very much cheaper than in 1872–3, or even 1860, flour is cheaper than in 1873, vegetables are perhaps about the same as in 1860, and meat and butter are somewhat dearer. On the whole, we believe that the figures given recently in an article in the *Tribune* may be accepted as trustworthy. The average of prices of over sixty different articles of household expenditure is found to be less than seven per cent. above that of 1860. In other words, an engineer receiving $60 per month in 1860 should receive to-day, if wages were governed solely by cost of living, about $64 per month. As a matter of fact, he receives, as we have already ascertained, no less than $85 per month.

We do not pretend to determine the amount per day upon which a workingman can live. It is well to remember, however, that not only all common laborers, but great numbers of workingmen at least as skilled in their pursuits as firemen and brakemen, are now living uncomplainingly upon far less than the wages paid to these. The striking miners in Pennsylvania have been receiving from $15 to $20 per month only, and assert that if their demand for 25 per cent. advance be complied with they are willing, if necessary, to work only a portion of the time, with, of course, a corresponding reduction in the amount of wages. Firemen and brakemen are not skilled mechanics. They are but a grade above common laborers. Their places, indeed, might readily be filled from among these. Their wages, therefore, can never be very high. That they can readily live upon the wages now received has already been proved by past experience. Their recent intense expression of dissatisfaction arose not from any clear understanding of the relative amount of wages received, but from the great difficulty which all unthinking persons have in consenting to the sacrifice of anything to which they have been for a time accustomed. No one, however intelligent, finds this process a pleasant one ; but the ignorant man turns brute-like upon the hand that seems to be wilfully depriving him of his coveted goods. That the railroad companies are doing all that they might, even from interested motives, for the welfare of their employees our readers well know we do not believe ; but they are paying the fireman or brakeman all that he is economically worth. Less than this he can never receive for any great length of time. A demand for more than this, accompanied with violence, can, in defence of the existence of society, only be met with violence.

SIR STAFFORD NORTHCOTE'S MISMANAGEMENT.

LONDON, August 1, 1877.

SO long ago as the beginning of September of last year I ventured to hazard an opinion in one of my letters to the *Nation* that Sir Stafford Northcote, the present leader of the House of Commons, was not strong enough for the place. "He is a dull man," I said, "without brilliancy or humor, and free from even the suspicion of genius. He will find it no easy task to keep his own party in hand, and an unruly House will laugh him to scorn." And on the 3d of February of this year I stated that, "Long before the middle of August, unless Sir Stafford Northcote develops faculties the germs of which have hitherto been screened from sight, the

discipline of the ministerial benches will be slackened, and the control of the House will be a thing of the future and the past. It is impossible that he can keep 658 middle-aged senators docile and amused throughout the dog-days." We are now at the beginning of August, in the middle of the dog-days, and the House of Commons is in a state of anarchy. I have just returned from witnessing the closing struggles of a now notorious band of seven Irish obstructionists, who have kept the House sitting for twenty-two hours on end, from 4 P.M. on Tuesday until 2 P.M. to-day, over the clauses of a simple bill; and the almost universal opinion of both sides of the House is, that no small portion of the blame to be attached to this scandalous exhibition is due to the weakness and the want of authority which are the predominant characteristics of Sir Stafford Northcote's public life. I do not for a moment wish to palliate the action of the Irish obstructives. Actuated as they have been, partly by an Irish desire to play a practical joke on a large scale upon the House of Commons, partly by vanity, partly by a confused idea that by bringing business to a standstill in a House of Parliament composed of English, Scotch, Welsh, and Irish members, they will induce that House to sanction the existence of a House of Parliament composed exclusively of Irishmen, these seven Irishmen—Mr. Parnell, Mr. Biggar, Captain Nolan, Mr. Gray, Mr. O'Connor Power, Major O'Gorman, and Mr. Callan—have exhausted the forbearance of the House and tried the nerve of its present leader; and while the House has stood the strain upon it with credit and decorum, the leader of the House has failed conspicuously. Since the beginning of the session up to last night Sir Stafford Northcote has gone from bad to worse. He has done nothing well. He has not made a single speech of promise. He has said nothing worth remembering. He has not met the speeches of his opponents in fair argument. His policy appears to have been throughout the whole session to say nothing in as many words as possible, and trust to his mechanical majority to tide him over the troubles of the session. And this tiding over is comfortable enough in tranquil times when the routine business goes on without let or hindrance. It might answer at the commencement of a Parliament when troublesome men have not learned their power, and when the new administration has the freshness and polish of youth upon it. The times of late have not been tranquil, and though a man of the nerve and character of Mr. Disraeli, or of the innate dignity and authority of Lord Hartington, might, and probably would, have risen to the emergency, Sir Stafford Northcote has succumbed. Within the last two weeks he has made three egregious blunders, and by loosening discipline and confessing to his own weakness he has helped as much as any one to bring about the present demoralization of the House of Commons, which is in danger of becoming a by-word and reproach at home and a scandal and object of contempt to our friends abroad.

The Tory administrations of the past have not unfrequently been suspected of a tendency to jobbery, and those of late years have never been quite able to discard the taint and present a clean bill of health. The present administration has not been more fortunate than its predecessors. Ever since it came into office it has been *suspect*, and the Prime Minister has had the reputation of being a minister who might not hesitate to prefer the services of a personal or political friend to the national good, if he could do so with impunity. This being so, his recent appointments to lucrative posts in the civil service have been watched and scrutinized by some of the economists and purists in the matter of patronage who sit on the Opposition benches. A good fat post fell vacant some months ago—the Controllership of the Stationery Office. This post had for some time been held by men distinguished rather for their literary accomplishments than for their knowledge of business. It had been filled by Mr. MacCulloch the political economist; and the last occupant was Mr. Rathbone Greg, under whom it had come to be regarded as a comfortable deanery in the civil service rather than as a post with duties attached to it which required the best of a man's time and attention. Four years ago a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to enquire into the state of the different civil-service offices and to report what changes, if any, should be carried out in them. Among their various recommendations there was one regarding this office which was to the effect that when it became vacant it should be given to some one who was conversant with the technical knowledge required in a printer's or a stationer's business. Lord Beaconsfield, when Mr. Rathbone Greg resigned the other day, paid no attention to this recommendation, and appointed a junior clerk in the War Office, Mr. Pigott by name, who knew nothing of the technical matters of a printer's or stationer's business, and whose only recommendation, so far as the world knew, was the fact that he was the son of a former vicar of Lord Beaconfield's parish in Buckinghamshire. This appointment, after due intimation, was brought up before the House of Commons and severely criticised. Sir Stafford Northcote was in his place to defend the appointment; but he had not a word to say for it. He let the condemnation go by default, and, for all he had to say, Lord Beaconsfield might as well not have been represented. A division, which practically was a vote of censure on Lord Beaconsfield, was taken, and the Government were left in a minority—some of their stanchest supporters deserting them and a few others actually voting against them.

Lord Beaconsfield was not a man to put up with this indignity. He could not, as a peer, defend himself in the House of Commons, and he had to make a personal explanation in the House of Lords. The fabric in which this historical assemblage meets is for acoustic purposes about the worst in England. The beauty of the proportions of the house is all that could be desired, and so far as the sense of sight is concerned there is no finer building extant. But the sound of the voice seems to fritter itself away among the Gothic arches and elaborated wood-work of the galleries and the gorgeous red morocco benches. When the house is crowded, it is generally difficult to hear the clearest speaker. On the occasion of Lord Beaconsfield's personal explanation the house was crammed. Every peer in London and within reach of London had come up, and the galleries set apart for peeresses—for they are merciful to the ladies of the patrician house, and allow them to see and hear the debates and to be seen, whereas in the Commons house they are caged up behind a grating—were filled by a coterie of the fairest and most influential ladies in the land. The portion of the house set apart for strangers and for members of the House of Commons was crowded to such an extent as hardly to leave standing room. Lord Beaconsfield had drawn a good house, and if on ordinary occasions it is difficult to catch a speaker's words, on such an occasion as this, when the voice has nothing more resonant to strike against than human bodies, it would be regarded as impossible. Lord Beaconsfield, however, spoke for upwards of an hour, and every intonation of his voice was audible in every part of the house. A more successful rhetorical performance has rarely been accomplished. But not only did he make himself heard, he made out a good case for the appointment, and, on the assumption that his statements were trustworthy, he cleared himself of every imputation of jobbery in this particular instance. But were his statements trustworthy ?—that is the question which every one kept asking when the performance was completed. If they were, why were they not disclosed to Sir Stafford Northcote ? Either they were not trustworthy, or Sir Stafford Northcote was unfit for his place and had neglected to inform himself in a case that seriously affected the public character of his chief. There was no escape from the dilemma. The whole subject was reviewed in the House of Commons on a motion calling on the House to rescind its former resolution. Then it was found that Lord Beaconsfield had in one or two particulars deviated from strict accuracy, but his statements as a whole were not disproved. Sir Stafford Northcote then got up and humbly explained that he had not got up his case. He called out that he and he alone had sinned, and begged that the censure of the House might fall on him, and not on the Prime Minister. When the leader of the House of Commons comes down and cries "peccavi" in such humble tones a generous body like the House forgives, and it accordingly rescinded its own resolution without a dissentient voice. But the discipline of the House was broken by this act of humiliation on the part of the leader, and the first active step toward anarchical demoralization had been taken.

We have gone on with giant strides since then. Last Wednesday Sir Stafford Northcote made his second blunder. The seven Irishmen of whom I have spoken were obstructing as usual. Sir Stafford Northcote, impelled apparently by the more hot-headed of his supporters round him, decided that it was full time that something should be done. He accordingly moved that certain words which fell from Mr. Parnell should be taken down, and on these words he proposed a resolution that Mr. Parnell should be suspended from the discharge of his duties for two days, when the whole subject should be brought up. But what were the words on which this indictment was to be framed? Mr. Parnell had stated "that he should have satisfaction in preventing and thwarting the intentions of the Government." On a moment's reflection, the House saw that there was nothing obstructive or wrong in a parliamentary sense in these words. The *raison d'être* of an opposition and all the elaborate machinery of party organization is to prevent and thwart the intentions of the government of the day, and party government could not go on upon any other terms. If Mr. Parnell had expressed satisfaction in thwarting the business of the House or the business of the country, Sir Stafford Northcote would have been in the right. But Mr. Parnell is too

sharp for that sort of thing. Sir Stafford Northcote struck too soon and took the fly out of the salmon's mouth. The House saw this at once, and one of Sir Stafford's colleagues had to move the adjournment of the debate, and Mr. Parnell triumphed. This was blunder number two.

Two days after, another disorderly scene took place in the House upon the ruling of the Chairman of Committees. The Chairman ruled that an honorable member was in order in alluding to certain customs and laws, but that he would be out of order if he entered into an elaborate discussion upon these customs and laws. The ruling is obviously a doubtful one, but Mr. Callan, one of the obstructives, somewhat exceeded the limits of Parliamentary decorum by insisting that this ruling was "an insult to the common sense of the House." He was repeatedly called to order and desired to withdraw these words, and when he declined to do so Sir Stafford Northcote rushed into the fray and moved, as he did in Mr. Parnell's case, that Mr. Callan's words should be taken down. This time he was too late. The Chairman informed the House that as some discussion had taken place between the time that the words were uttered and the motion made by Sir Stafford Northcote, the time had passed when the words could be taken down. It was clearly a sacrifice of dignity for the leader of the House to interpose at all in the middle of a heated and acrimonious wrangle unless he could do so successfully. But to interpose at the wrong time and in the wrong way was an act of folly. This was blunder number three.

The scandal created by these nightly exhibitions of rowdyism is fast becoming intolerable. All self-respecting Englishmen are now only longing for the prorogation, in order that the indecency of these wrangles in the legislature may cease. We feel that a new Parliament and a new leader are imperatively demanded, and we hope that these disreputable occurrences may tend to satisfy these demands. There are some also who piously join in the supplication which Mr. Spurgeon offered up some months ago: "And, O God! give our senators wisdom, especially at this critical time. Let not the extraordinary folly of our rulers lead our country into trouble, and change our rulers, O God! as soon as possible."

A GERMAN EULOGIST OF GAMBETTA.*

II.

FREIBURG, July 18.

NOW, however, the reverse of the medal is presented. Herr von der Goltz emphasizes the fact that, contrary to a pretty common belief, the equipment of the republican troops was good, and their arms, for the most part, excellent—the chassepots being decidedly superior to the *Zündnadelgewehr*. But good arms alone are not sufficient to make enormous masses of able-bodied men great armies. According to the author, the efficiency of the armies was seriously impaired by their very hugeness. He reproaches Gambetta with overstretching all his schemes to gigantic dimensions. The metal of the German troops had been sufficiently tested to know that they could not be made to shake in their boots because vast numbers were drawn up before them. On the other hand, theatrical effects make a great impression on the average French mind. The grand spectacle drew away many a man to the ranks who was willing to share in the certain triumphs, but not at all anxious really to undergo the dangers and tremendous hardships of a *guerre à outrance*. Draconian laws were necessary to render these men conscious that the dictator was in terrible earnest, and fully aware that he had undertaken no child's play. But no articles of war could make up for the lack of thorough training. Inefficiently trained troops, no matter how brave they are and how glowing their patriotism, inevitably step more on each other's toes the greater their number is. When a certain number has been reached every further addition actually works to the disadvantage of the army.

It is probable that Gambetta had not entirely overlooked that; but there was a fatal discrepancy between his means and his more immediate end. The author is satisfied that the fundamental idea of the dictator was the only correct one. If anything could be effected at all, it was only by organizing the *Volkskrieg*, by opposing the French *people* to the German *soldiers*. As it was, the recuperative power of Germany, principally with regard to officers, was very nearly exhausted. "At Le Mans, regiments were engaged who had only nine, twelve, and fifteen real officers (*Berufsoffiziere*) left. On December 11, 1870, after the battle at Beaugency, the second Bavarian division had only one captain of the line, who stood in the front as commander of a *Compagnie*. In this division five or six battalions were commanded by first lieutenants, many *Compagnien* by young officers from the reserve. With the Prussian troops it was pretty much the same. All those who had done much fighting were gradually changed into a mass of reserve-recruits, with officers who had received their training through one year of volunteer service. The army was on the way to be changed by and by into a militia" (pp. 290, 291). A harassing defensive war, extended over as great an area as possible, the author seems to think, would have been the right thing for the French to do. Even after they had lost half their officers, and "when part of their infantry had to work their way forward over snow-fields and through winter storms barefoot and in torn clothes, when food was lacking and the ammunition had to be spared," the Germans knew how to conquer. But in that way they could, perhaps, have been tired out and forced to use themselves up by their very successes. Gambetta was fully aware of that. He afterwards declared before his judges that the Germans "perceived very well that they had reached the limit where their military institutions stood on the very point of exhausting themselves." And yet all his energies were bent upon collecting in a few weeks huge masses in order to be able to strike, without delay, a few decisive blows. His fundamental idea was *defense;* and yet, from the very first moment, he threw himself with headlong recklessness into an eminently *aggressive* warfare, which offered no chance of success. His starting point was the conviction that Paris was not France—that France could be saved though Paris was lost; and yet he risked and lost all in endeavoring to save France, though he never relinquished his first idea, and still maintains its correctness. When the President of the Court of Enquiry asked him whether, after the capitulation of Paris, he had still thought resistance possible, he answered with fire: "Certainly, Mr. President, and I still think so. . . . There is no nation in Europe which has not at a given moment had the foreigner on its soil, which has not kept him there a long time, but finally driven him out after all. And by what force has that been done? By that of genius, by military combinations? Never! But by courage, by stubbornness, by pertinacity. So it has been with the Austrians, the Russians, the Spaniards, the English; but we, we wanted to liberate ourselves in forty days, up to a fixed date, suddenly, as if a mercantile transaction was in question."

His acts give ample proof that this was his real opinion at the time. He was, indeed, not discouraged for one single moment. The author is full of sincere and high admiration for the energy and elasticity of this mind, its unspeakable belief in the strength and in the virtue of France, and its bewildering fruitfulness in grand schemes. Every new disaster seems to increase his own strength and his resources. The first Army of the Loire being whipped to the verge of annihilation, in the twinkling of an eye there are two armies of the Loire in the field, and a more grandly conceived plan is to be pursued. This having entirely miscarried, the seat of his aggressive warfare is suddenly transferred to the frontiers of Alsace. Bourbaki's army, turned almost into an armed rabble, wends its dreary way to Switzerland; and still another plan is brought forth—this time, it is true, stark mad, but yet a plan; while, at the same time, Chanzy gets more than a plan—men and material enough to enable him to recommence his operations at the very moment that the gates of Paris are opened. In all these plans—with the single exception of the one after Bourbaki's defeat—the author discovers a small spark of real genius glowing. He has already declared that Gambetta undid by his strategy what he had done by his organization, for that required time, while this demanded overhaste. Yet he thinks that the reputation of a very good general would suffer no harm from the groundwork of the dictator's strategical conceptions.

Nevertheless it is here that Herr von der Goltz finds the second cardinal mistake in Gambetta's military career. He was not content with organizing resistance, he also wanted to direct the campaign; he was not only minister of war but also commander-in-chief, and as such he betrayed the lawyer at every step, and the more so the longer the bloody game lasted. A genius of the first order instinctively remains within those limits to which nature has confined his greatness. Gambetta was the victim of a gross illusion about the extent of the uncommon powers of his intellect, and France had to pay dearly for it. The man of yesterday, the offspring of the revolution, whose only title to authority and leadership are his talents and his tremendous will, apes the Vienna *Hofkriegsrath* of bygone times. The man who is vying with Carnot as an organizer, is turned into a doctrinarian of the most dangerous sort. What boots it that the flash of genius is still perceptible in his general conceptions? His unbridled imagination carries him as in a whirlwind over the rocks on which his generals, who have to tread the hard soil of reality, are to dash their military reputations to atoms, and over the abysses which cannot be filled by the corpses of his men, though they are hurled in by thousands and ten-thousands. Moltke would have considered the man a fool who had

* See No. 632 of the NATION.

urged him to prescribe to his generals every step they were to take ; Gambetta, who before had barely seen a review on the Champ de Mars, deemed himself fully competent to do so. And yet he did not dare to carry out the fatal principle to its last consequences. He hesitated, faltered, did the one thing as well as the other, and thereby made bad worse. The author has laid great stress on the fact that Gambetta had the nerve to take on his own shoulders the whole responsibility for all the money and all the blood this second war was to cost France. But here Herr von der Goltz points out that there was a deficiency not only in his intellectual powers, but also in his moral qualities, which absolutely forbids us to call him a great man. While he dictated the minutest detail "from the green table," he had not the moral courage to break down every resistance ; he neither acknowledged the authority of the professional men, nor did he dare to place before them the alternative—Unconditional submission to my will or quit your place. He neither confined himself to what he was really able to do, nor did he show the metal required for what he presumed to do ; he persisted in actually being the commander-in-chief, and the responsibility which he had assumed as such he shoved off on the shoulders of his generals, whose advice he did not heed ; and he did it in a manner which the author is forced to call "little loyal," "very ambiguous," "an intrigue," "a plot." General d'Aurelle wanted to remain on the defensive at Orleans. The dictator neither renounced his own aggressive plan, nor did he compel him to obey ; behind his back he ordered General Pallières to march on Pithiviers. "General d'Aurelle was degraded to the part of a communicator of telegrams to his commanding generals." And so with Bourbaki ; Gambetta had no confidence in him, and yet he was afraid to face public opinion for venturing to dispense with the services of such a renowned general. The general, who was personally a very brave man but without backbone, neither insisted on his own opinions nor submitted implicitly ; the dictator chafed under his slowness and indecision—and kept him ; the execution of gigantic problems was entrusted to a man who did not believe in the possibility of success. If anything could justify the ex-lawyer for presuming to play the part of a great commander, it was the reckless energy which the absolute rule of one will could infuse into everything, and just this, which the dictator had known so well how to improve as an organizer, he completely sacrificed as actual commander-in-chief.

But more than that. His moral weakness or his vanity was great enough to make him assert, at the time and afterwards, that nothing was done which had not first received the assent of the generals. History will know, as well as he himself and as his generals knew, how to distinguish between the substance and an empty formality. He went further. After the defeat at and the loss of Orleans, D'Aurelle had to serve as scapegoat. Not only was he blamed for not having remained at Orleans, when his staying there would have irretrievably sealed the fate of the remnants of his army, but he was publicly and in the most cutting manner reproached for not having concentrated his army in time, while it was the dictator and his delegate Freycinet who, against his repeated and most earnest remonstrances, had scattered it to the four winds, while he had been rebuked by the wise remark that Prince Friedrich Karl had "a still more extended front." One of the main weights which crushed the energy, as well of D'Aurelle as of Bourbaki, was the fear that, in case of a failure, the dictator would hurl his terrible accusations against them, and that they, like Bazaine, would be charged with treason. Would there have been no just cause for this fear even if they had not had the example of Bazaine before their eyes ? Gambetta's patriotism raved under the truth, and he did not think France able to stand it. There, the author justly says, is the main root of his failure. The comparatively small success at Coulmiers, the drawn battle at Villersexel, the one German standard gathered up from among the thickly-strewn corpses at Dijon, were trumpeted as great victories, which left no douot that now. the hour was at hand when the "barbarians" would be ignominiously hunted from the holy soil of France ; and, in consequence, the defeat at Beaune la Rolande, Bourbaki's retreat, Garibaldi's inactivity, had a crushing effect upon public opinion. In this most essential respect Gambetta was not a whit better than the "light-hearted" men of the Empire ; with illusions and direct lies the *grande nation* had to be fed. But if "genius" and "military combinations" cannot drive out the invader, illusions and lies are certainly much less proper means. There is the cardinal difference between 1813 and 1870-71. Germany rose to reconquer her very existence, while France did not want to pay a single inch of her soil as indemnity for the sins of her Government and her people. The Germans, therefore, went into the war with every muscle and every nerve strained by the full consciousness that they were going to engage in a death-grapple for everything worth living for ; the French, on the contrary, succumbed because their patriotism, though it added a laurel-leaf of melancholy greatness to the national fame, did not and could not come up to either the horrors or the sacrifices of a real *guerre à outrance*, for it was adulterated by too large a share of mere national vanity and hollow vaingloriousness.

Did Gambetta himself feel that, when he laid down his dictatorship after having thrown the gauntlet to the Government of National Defence ? Honor to him if this was his motive for at last loosening the iron grasp with which he had held his country for four months ! But even then it would be true—"he had either done too much or not enough." This, however, is not the last word of Herr von der Goltz. He most emphatically denies that the only results of Gambetta's dictatorship have been incalculable quantities of money and blood wasted, and harder conditions for his country. "Already to-day we can say that [history] will accord him, too, *immortal* merits. The first is that, immediately after the deepest fall, he gave back to France the consciousness of strength. The second is that, by lashing up his people for an ideal aim, he broke the way for a moral resurrection which at this hour has unmistakably commenced in France."

If my hope is to be fulfilled, that these lines may serve to induce some publisher to present this book in an English dress to the American public —an undertaking the success of which I should be willing to guarantee— I shall be justified in herewith bringing my remarks to a close, though the remaining sixty-three pages of the work are probably the most important part of it—at least for us. They are devoted to the discussion of the practical lessons which the author draws from the history he has told the reader. Here in Germany they have set people to thinking, military men as well as others ; and every intelligent American reader will also find in them much material for instructive reflection.* They may be briefly summed up in the following three sentences : In Europe no militia can compete with a regularly trained army. The present military institutions of Germany do not give sufficient security to the Empire for the future ; they can be and they must be rendered more efficient without increasing the burden already resting so heavily on the nation. Perfecting the tactics, improving the arms, etc., are alone not sufficient, and in some essential respects even contain an element of great danger, which is already exerting an evil influence on our army ; if we do not know, first, how to make the *allgemeine Wehrpflicht* a truth, and, second, how to raise the moral standard of the people and of the army to a higher eminence, we shall be found too light the next time we are thrown into the scales and weighed.

Correspondence.

MISSOURI IN THE REBELLION AND DURING THE STRIKE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In noticing the work of Mahan on the late war, in your issue of the 2d inst., you express surprise that men marshalled on the Union side in Missouri in 1861 should be spoken of as well-disciplined and soldier-like. You emphasize the reference to Missouri as if it were a particularly good joke to speak of the Unionists of that State being creditable in a military point of view.

This almost reads like an outcropping of the denunciation of "Border-State loyalty" of which, during the war, Union men in the Border States heard so much from those who stayed comfortably at home in the Northern States. I know that you are not consciously unjust in this matter. It must be that you suppose yourself warranted in sneering at the courage and efficiency, in 1861, of the Union men of Missouri. These, however, were the men who, in May, 1861, took Camp Jackson; who in June, 1861, fought the battle of Boonville (where, however, the stand made by the rebels was not such as to lead to a serious contest); and who in August, under Lyon, Schofield, Granger, and others, fought, against great odds, the battle of Springfield, in which Lyon lost his life. But his army held the field, after losing nearly one-fourth of their number in killed and wounded. With the most trifling exception (there were less than 60 regulars), the men who fought this last battle were Missouri volunteers. If the army which met Beauregard at Manassas had shown anything like the same steadiness, the memory of that day would not have been a cause of humiliation and sinking of the heart to the whole

* He will kindly pass over the strange assertion that "the final victory of the American cause [in the War of Independence] was only (!) brought about by the regular French troops under Rochembeau (*sic*) and de Grasse" (p. 258).

country. Where, in all the United States, up to September, 1861, had any such good conduct and discipline been shown by the Union volunteers as in Missouri? Not in Western Virginia, for there we greatly outnumbered the rebels; and surely not in Eastern Virginia.

It is unaccountable to me how it happens that such systematic injustice (if not systematic, at least constant) is done to Missouri by the press of the East. The New York papers of July 27 represented St. Louis as being in the hands and at the mercy of a mob, and the authorities as supinely yielding to the violence of the rioters. On the 26th the "authorities" of St. Louis, having summoned to their aid the volunteer citizen soldiers of the city (not volunteer companies already organized, for of these there were less than 150 men; but citizens having no organization whatever until Wednesday, July 25), and receiving on Thurday evening, July 26, from the governor of the State the arms which were until then lacking, perfected the arming of the St. Louis volunteers; and before the corresponding hour on Friday, July 27, every person engaged in the riots was either in flight or in prison. All this was done by the St. Louis police and the St. Louis citizen soldiers. But of this no trace appears in your last issue. You actually omit all mention of St. Louis when speaking of the places where proper resistance was made to the disorders of the last fortnight; and you do mention St. Louis when speaking of the places where the riot was raging. Now, we claim the benefit of one of two possible hypotheses. Either St. Louis was, throughout, free from disorder by reason of the law-abiding nature of her people, or order was restored there by her unassisted resources, without killing a man. The last is true. But no one could learn this from your columns, when professing to give the news of the past week. In fact, any reader of the *Nation* or the *World* would infer that the disorder in St. Louis continued unchecked, with the qualification that the *World* of the 30th of July represents St. Louis as being disturbed by a mob, which was "promptly suppressed" by Gen. Bates—the fact being that since July 27 there has been in St. Louis nothing which even exaggeration could call a mob; that the disturbance so "promptly suppressed" by Gen. Bates was in *East* St. Louis, Illinois, and not in St. Louis, Missouri; and that Gen. Bates is a citizen and a soldier of Illinois, and has never been in St. Louis, except in peaceful guise.—I am your obedient servant and constant reader,

THOS. T. GANTT.

ST. LOUIS, August 5, 1877.

[Our exact language, following Mahan, was "perfectly disciplined troops"; and, in spite of the honorable achievements of the Missouri levies, under such exceptional leadership as Gen. Lyon's, we must still hold to the belief that the very cream of our volunteer regiments could hardly, in a military sense, be called "perfectly disciplined" for a long time after June, 1861—say, even in June, 1863. Still, though we should not have turned to Missouri for examples of the highest discipline at the former date, we do not, on reflection, think that things were any looser there than elsewhere, as is implied in the phrase to which our correspondent takes exception.

As regards St. Louis during the strike, our correspondent has read our issue of Aug. 2 much too hastily. We simply said, in a very brief summary: "In Chicago there was rioting until Thursday, . . . and also in St. Louis and Peoria"; the inference being that quiet was restored on and after that date (July 26), or one day earlier than the date fixed by Judge Gantt. In enumerating the cities where the "regular forces of Government" proved sufficient to keep the peace, we omitted San Francisco and Pittsburgh as well as St. Louis, inasmuch as they all had to resort to "volunteer citizen soldiers—not volunteer companies already organized," and therefore no part of the "regular forces." For the mistakes and misrepresentations of the daily press of this city, which undertook to give minute and extended accounts of the strike, and were therefore peculiarly liable to error, we cannot of course be held responsible. That we were sometimes misled by them in making up our brief abstracts is quite possible; and since we have the floor on this subject, we may as well say here, in reply to the superintendent whose letter we printed last week, that the *Herald* of July 24 was our authority for the statement, not that the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad (with several other roads) "acceded to the demands of the strikers," but *either* acceded "or compromised with them in some way." According to the *Herald's* St. Louis despatch of July 23, the road notified its employees on that day that "the wages recently reduced would be restored to the former figures on August 1."—ED. NATION.]

SOUTH CAROLINA SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, "C.," seems to feel kindly towards the South, but has evidently been misled by his "friend long resident in South Carolina" as to the nature and tendency of the recent legislation in relation to public schools and the University. This person may not have been an active politician, but the whole tenor of the extract from his letter shows that he sympathized very decidedly with those who no longer constitute "the dominant party" in this State. Every statement evinces prejudice against the new order of things. He can see nothing good in those who now control affairs, and hence gives an account of what the Legislature has done in relation to education suited to mislead any one who has no other information.

He recounts certain facts with a view to showing that the new Democratic Legislature is exceedingly hostile to the public schools, and is determined to get rid of the burden of educating the colored youth of the State. But these facts really establish no such propositions, but simply indicate that the method of collecting and disbursing the funds for the support of public education has been modified. It is true the Legislature has abolished special taxes and forbidden the local school-tax. The tax is assessed now as a whole, and goes into the public treasury. But it would be as sensible to conclude that the governor and other officers are in danger of receiving no salaries, because no special tax is laid for the purpose, as that the public schools are to be allowed to languish. In connection with his other statements, this gentleman should have stated also that this same Legislature had set apart the entire poll-tax, amounting at the very least to one hundred thousand dollars, for the maintenance of the public schools, and that it appropriated in addition one hundred thousand dollars for this purpose. This sum of not less than two hundred thousand dollars is to be apportioned by the school commissioners of the respective counties on the basis of the school attendance in the several counties for the last scholastic year (Acts and Joint Resolutions of the Gen. Assembly of S. C. passed at the Extra Session of 1877, p. 257). This appropriation may not be as large as many would like to see it; but when the impoverished condition of the State is taken into consideration, it would seem to show that the Legislature is disposed to do what it can.

It is also stated that the General Assembly "broke up the University and refused to pay the just claims of the teachers or professors." A few words as to what sort of institution has been broken up seem necessary here. Shortly after the government of South Carolina fell into the hands of the band of adventurers who have lately taken their departure, the honored members of the faculty of the University were quietly removed, for no other reason than that they differed from our rulers in politics, and the places were wanted for "loyal" men. A new faculty of approved political sentiments having been inducted, the doors of the institution were thrown open to colored youth as well as white. This, of course, caused the withdrawal of the patronage which had been the support of the college in the past, and the Legislature soon found it necessary to pay students for attending, as well as teachers for instructing. But even the payment of an annual bounty of two hundred dollars to each member of the college could not secure the attendance of more than a handful. The university dwindled into a mere day-school, and was found in this condition by the present administration. It is surely not strange that the new Legislature thought it necessary to make some change, seeing that the cost of maintaining the institution was as great as in its palmiest days. They did not, however, refuse to pay the professors. The Board of Trustees, at its recent meeting, recommended the payment of all the salaries in full, so that the members of the retiring Faculty will lose nothing.

But the Legislature did not leave the matter here. Seeing that the effort to educate the white and colored youth in the same institution had failed, as any rational man must have foreseen, an act was passed which provides in "Sec. 2. That his Excellency the Governor and the Board of Trustees, together with the Chairmen of the Committees on Education of the Senate and House of Representatives, respectively, shall constitute a Commission to enquire into and devise plans for the organization and maintenance of one university or college for the white and one for the colored youths of the State, which said universities or colleges shall be kept separate and apart, but shall for ever enjoy precisely the

same privileges and advantages with respect to their standards of learning and the amounts of revenue to be appropriated by the State for their maintenance" (Acts, etc., of General Assembly of South Carolina passed at Extra Session 1877, p. 315). When, therefore, the University of South Carolina is again opened for students, there will be an institution of precisely the same grade for colored youth. This does not look like unwillingness to provide for the education of the negro.

As to the alleged "expulsion of Northern teachers from Southern institutions of learning," it should be stated that no man has ever been expelled because he was born and educated beyond Mason and Dixon's line. There is probably not a single college of any standing in the South which has not had among the most honored members of its faculty men of Northern birth and education ; and the same is true, to my certain knowledge, of many of these institutions at the present day. It would be well to distinguish between the carpet-bagger who plays professor and the true man of learning who comes South to cast in his lot, in good faith, with the people whom he aspires to educate.

In what was said about the *penalty* which the expulsion of Northern teachers carries with it, we feel inclined, from the general tone of the *Nation* and its fairness to the South, to believe that it was indulging in a bit of that irony which so often enlivens its pages. Regarded in this light, we are sure that all will regard it as an excellent joke. Any one who comes fully to understand what the carpet-bag professor has done for the South will be disposed to regard the penalty connected with his departure as of very much the same nature as that which the expulsion of his brother in politics has brought. We only wish people at the North knew more of our Southern institutions and those who teach in them. We believe that the great majority of those who dwell north of Mason and Dixon's line are inclined to feel kindly towards us and to appreciate the truth concerning us when they have learned it ; and as all fair-minded persons are beginning to believe that we are capable of organizing and controlling governments for ourselves, and in the interests of all classes of our population, we trust the day is not far distant when they shall be ready to allow that there are men amongst us competent to the task of conducting institutions of learning of the highest grade without the assistance of those adventurers who, upon all occasions, bewail our ignorance and are constantly seeking to make themselves martyrs in the effort to enlighten us.

L.

COLUMBIA, S. C., August 8, 1877.

[As regards the University of South Carolina we leave the question where our correspondent leaves it, except that we know at least one of the retiring professors who cannot justly be reproached with incapacity or with the mercenary motives of the carpet-bagger, nor, we may add, with any illusions as to Southern ignorance, since he has taught elsewhere in the South. That the East Tennessee University expulsion is to be accounted for on the same grounds as the South Carolina, we cannot, with our present information, admit.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at its twenty-fifth meeting a year ago in Buffalo have been published in the usual full volume at Salem, Mass. Especially noteworthy are the addresses of Professors J. E. Hilgard and E. S. Morse. Among the numerous papers, that by Mr. John Muir on the Post-glacial History of *Sequoia gigantea* will be read with much interest by all who desire that this noble tree may not be exterminated. Mr. Muir describes its present range, accounts for the gaps in the line by reference to extinct glacial rivers, shows that it is not affected by drought, and that its roots gather water into bogs and even into running streams, that in Southern California it propagates itself freely, and that its enemies now are sawmills and fires, for which last the "sheepherders" or "muttoneers," as they are called, are even more culpable than careless mountaineers and lumbermen or the deer-hunting Indians.——The late Benjamin P. Hunt, of Philadelphia, who was a native of Massachusetts, and who died in February, bequeathed his invaluable collection of works relating to the West Indies, and particularly to Hayti, to the Boston Public Library. The twenty-fifth annual report of that institution, just issued, contains a short sketch of Mr. Hunt, who was an unostentatious but devoted friend of the colored race.——Brown University is taking the initiative in a reformation of the prevailing practice of bestowing degrees. The plan which it submits to other colleges is reported to make the degree strictly the acknowledgment of a special literary performance. This may, we suppose, be a work composed without reference to academic honors, but the design is to stimulate the production of works for which such honors will be asked and granted if they prove worthy.——The reports made by the Venetian ambassadors at the various European courts to the home Government, as published by Barozzi and Berchet, have been found to contain most interesting matter regarding not merely the history but the manners and social condition of the countries reported upon—France, Spain, England, Piedmont, and Turkey—during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The despatches from the Papal Court at Rome, of which the first volume has just appeared, will certainly not be found of inferior interest.——A curious book has been published by Hachette of Paris: a selection of the themes of American scholars exhibited last year at Philadelphia. The selection was made by the President of the French Educational Commission sent to Philadelphia, but the translation is by another hand. The French *pensionnaires*, if the book ever finds its way into their hands, will no doubt be amused, and perhaps a little surprised, at the productions of their American cousins ; as, for instance, the composition "On Paper," of a girl nine years old, who writes that, if there were no more paper, young ladies would receive no more love-letters—an assertion which shows that she was farther advanced in social than in palæographical science.

—Two correspondents have obligingly supplied us with the information which we lacked in regard to Victor's 'History of the Rebellion,' so highly praised by Dr. Mahan in his 'Critical History of the American War' reviewed last week. It appears that the work was published in this city, probably by subscription (which would account for our never having met with it), in four volumes, royal octavo. The full title is 'The History, Civil, Political, and Military, of the Southern Rebellion, from its inception to its close ; comprehending also all important State papers, ordinances of secession, proclamations, proceedings of Congress, official reports of commanders, etc.', by Orville J. Victor. The first volume bears on its title-page the date of 1861. One of our correspondents, a bookseller, had seen no other. He writes that he had always supposed the work to be more rare than valuable. On the other hand, we are assured that "any collection of books relating to the Rebellion which lacks it is deficient indeed ; for, whilst I do not agree with Dr. Mahan as to its superior ability, it is in many respects without an equal, and merits the attention of military students who desire to possess a better idea of the different movements in their relation to the final struggle."

—Mr. J. A. Allen's learned and exhaustive monograph on the 'American Bisons, Living and Extinct,' which was originally printed in a small edition as part of the Memoirs of the Geographical Survey of Kentucky, has been, with Professor Shaler's and Mr. Allen's permission, reprinted in the ninth volume of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey, and again separately from the same plates. This has been done under the editorship of Dr. Coues, who has incorporated the appendices with the text, and has brought the whole essay within popular bounds by omitting the portion relating to extinct species. The author has besides added some new matter. The former habitat of the bison on this continent extended from latitude 62° N. (Great Slave Lake) to 25° N. (northeastern provinces of Mexico). Its recent remains have been found in Oregon as far west as the Blue Mountains. Its extreme range in the northeast was the region about Buffalo. Elsewhere, east of the Mississippi, except certain parts of Pennsylvania and Virginia, it was "restricted to the area drained by the Ohio and Illinois Rivers and their tributaries, and the lesser eastern tributaries of the Mississippi in Northern Wisconsin and Minnesota." It was not found south of the Tennessee River. The buffalo has now only a range extending northward from the sources of the principal southern tributaries of the Yellowstone into the British possessions, and another in Western Kansas, a part of the Indian Territory, and Northwestern Texas. This division into two bands was caused by the overland emigration to California in 1849. The railroads have since contributed to their wholesale destruction, and as no steps have been taken to prevent their extermination, the days of the wild buffalo are probably numbered. In the four months following the opening of the Atchison, Topeka, & Santa Fé Railroad (September 23, 1872) to Dodge City, more than a hundred thousand buffaloes were killed in the neighborhood of that town for the sake of their hides and saddles. How many more were wantonly destroyed by "sportsmen" can only be conjectured. As the Indians who supplied the fur-traders used to kill two millions a year, it is only surprising that the buffalo did not long since become extinct, and that one may still see herds which blacken the earth as far as the eye can take in the landscape. Remembering that "rarely is more than a single leaf

produced at a birth," the period of gestation being nine months, we can from the multiplication of this animal better appreciate the assertion of Darwin that "the elephant, the slowest breeder of all known animals, would in a few thousand years stock the whole world."

—What Mr. Allen has to say about the domestication of the buffalo is of great interest and full of encouragement for those who would undertake it. The cross between the bison and the native and short-horn cattle promises great results for the dairy. As we may yet hope to see the Indians employed as herdsmen, the experiment of domestication on a grand scale may well be made by them in the vicinity of the southern range of the buffalo. Our minister at the Court of St. James has recently forwarded to the Secretary of State a copy of a letter addressed to the Aborigines' Protection Society by a Mr. Wilson, who is described by the London press as "the well-known Australian colonist." Taking for granted the extirpation of the buffalo, he wonders "why the Americans, in their difficulties with the native Indians, have not endeavored to educate them in the cultivation and breeding of cattle as a most natural substitute for the buffalo." He refers to the good service amongst the Australian cattle which he has seen rendered by convicts of very inferior character and by the native aborigines of Australia, as a precedent for similarly employing our Indians. We hope his prompting will not be unheeded by the Government, and that the desirability of preserving the buffalo will also be taken into account.

—"Historical Maxims for Troubled Times" was the subject of an address delivered by Gen. J. D. Cox before the Yale Law School at its last Commencement, and now printed in pamphlet form. The speaker's aim was to review in general terms the reconstruction period just closed, to point out how far the maxims of history were disregarded in the heat and passion of our political settlement, and to admonish his hearers, about to enter their professional life, to qualify themselves by the study of history for the part they would probably play in the political conduct and education of the country. He justified the President's Southern "policy," without alluding to it, when he said: "Another maxim constantly recurring in history and almost as constantly forgotten in troubled times, is that, under institutions at all free, solid peace can only be built upon the *general* consent of the governed, and especially upon the assent and support of the classes which include the intelligence, the energy, and the capital of the community in a preponderating degree." General Cox might have added that this maxim is, in this country, persistently overlooked even when the times are not troubled, and that if it ever obtained the assent of the classes he refers to, we should witness some experiments towards the restriction and elevation of the suffrage that would do more than any other one thing to ward off trouble. When we see attempts making in Georgia to disfranchise non-taxpayers and petty thieves, we may feel that prejudice against the negro sustains, and to some extent directs, the movement, but we must confess that if non-taxpayers and the "dangerous classes" could be kept from the polls in our Northern States also, we should be infinite gainers by such a deliverance. When, again, we see, in General Cox's own State, the Democratic Convention demanding the repeal of the registry law because it is "burdensome and expensive, and discriminates unjustly against the poorer class of voters"—*i.e.*, the very ones through whom frauds are perpetrated—it is impossible not to be struck with the analogy between such views of the suffrage and the trades-unionism of the present day. Government, it would seem, is to be carried on in the interest of the lowest members of society, just as business must be conducted in the interest of the least skilful and laziest mechanics and laborers, and in both cases on terms dictated by them. We doubt, in fact, if the workingman will listen to any but his own definition of the "rights" of labor so long as the "right" of suffrage is conceded to every one who claims it, and conceded the more obsequiously the less fitted he is to exercise it.

—The twenty-fifth annual report of the Boston Public Library, including summaries of its past history and experiences, has been commented upon not altogether favorably by the Boston press. There is always a smothered discontent with any city institution; and as the largest library in the country cannot be maintained without cost, it is natural that its expensiveness should be complained of in a city which has suffered heavily by fire, and still more grievously by insolvent railroads; which sees itself condemned by necessity to heavy disbursements for improved sewerage, by pride to lavish outlay on a park system capable of indefinite expansion, and by politics to a permanent drain upon her resources in keeping up free ferries. The Boston *Herald* calls attention to "the slowly-growing belief that the library is approaching the maximum of expenditure that the city can wisely devote to this purpose. The cost of maintaining it is advancing much faster than the taxable wealth of the city, while the increase in circulation is in no small degree due to the unpopular enactment which reduces the time during which a book can be retained from a fortnight to a week." The critic then speaks of the purchase of the Barton Shakspere library as simply throwing away money, because the collection is of no popular value. Objection is made also to the expensively illustrated works and rare foreign editions that are not allowed to circulate, and the trustees are warned not to attempt to make a great and symmetrical library so much as to supply the people with the mental food they desire. The article is written with moderation, and there may possibly be some justice in the complaints, and yet we fancy the managers could present a satisfactory reply.

—They might say, for instance, that they are between two millstones: that the library has always been very freely blamed for being too "popular," for buying too much of Oliver Optic and Horatio Alger and Mrs. Southworth. They might urge that they have more than $100,000 of trust funds, given, in nearly every case, to be spent "in the purchase of books of permanent value," and that the city appropriations for books have been almost religiously used "to supply the people with the mental food they desire." They might suggest that scholars are a part of the people and have some rights, and that any one of the "people" may develop the tastes of a scholar; that, in fact, this is one of the purposes for which the library was established, one of the chief ends at which it has always been aiming; that, moreover, a large part of the works to which the critic objects are gifts, and many more such will be given, in single volumes, in small collections, and in whole libraries, if it is understood that they will be welcomed and well cared for, and not thought out of place there; that if Boston desires to see costly donations turn away from the doors of her library and seek other resting-places, where a kinder reception is promised, she has only to make it clearly understood that she does not desire "expensively illustrated works, rare foreign editions, and books which from their great rarity cannot be given out to the public," or that if she accepts them as gifts she grudges the money which it takes to house and catalogue and care for them. And let her add that she does this because none of her inhabitants desire or can assimilate the mental food which such works offer. Such a declaration, though somewhat premature, would not be altogether out of accord with the change which is slowly creeping over the character of that city.

—The story about the alleged recovery of the lost arms of the Venus of Milo appeared in the French papers in a somewhat different form from that which was transmitted to this country by Mr. Meredith Read. It was only one arm that had been found by the pupils of the French school at Athens, and very near the place where the statue was discovered in 1820—one marble arm holding a mirror. And the story, traced back to the Athens paper in which it first appeared, and thence to the original authority, is limited to the actual finding of a marble hand and wrist holding a round object like a fruit, and no more likely to belong to the Venus of Milo than is any one of the thousand fragments of marble which brief research might be expected to bring to light in the island of Melos. At a recent meeting of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres, in Paris, a letter was read from the director of the Athens school contradicting the story, and at the same meeting M. Ravaisson, who is, or recently was, custodian of the antique and modern sculpture in the Louvre, exhibited a drawing of the different pieces of the statue, made at the time of its discovery by an officer of the ship-of-war *Estafette*, which rescued the statue from the Turks. M. Ravaisson's argument seems to have been that the arms were not with the statue when it was found in Melos; because there was M. Voutier's drawing of all the pieces existing at the time. As our readers are aware, M. Ravaisson is the author and stanch supporter of a theory that the Venus of Milo was grouped with a statue of Mars, the whole group representing Venus persuading Mars to cease from conflict, and to disarm. And this theory, it seems from the report of the proceedings of the meeting of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres, he still holds, and has new evidence to prove. The Mars Borghèse seems to M. Ravaisson the type of the statue which should complete the group, though that particular statue is on a smaller scale than the Venus of Milo. The question is of great interest, and it is to be hoped that Mr. Stillman will publish the monograph he proposes, supporting a theory so widely different.

—'Pädagogische Studien' is the title of a series of brief essays upon education, edited by Dr. Wilhelm Rein of Eisenach, the place of publica-

tion. Part of the essays are by the editor, part by other writers; the sixth, published a few months ago, is 'Zur Pädagogik des Mittelalters,' by Dr. Karl Just of Leipzig. It contains 48 pages, and consists of five chapters: the education of noble boys, knightly education as contrasted with priestly, the education of girls of rank, children's plays, and punishments. They are interesting papers, copiously illustrated with extracts from German poets of the Middle Ages, but with the defect of not taking sufficient pains to indicate the period referred to, for they cover the ground of nearly a thousand years. The most valuable paper is perhaps the second, which describes the formal lifeless system of education in the schools under ecclesiastical influence, and compares it with the free and inspiring methods by which boys of rank were trained in castles, under the immediate influence of the lord and lady of the castle; this he shows to have anticipated some of the features of modern education, but to have been deficient in the direction of self-control—an education, we may suppose, which had many of the merits and of the defects, in its influence upon character, of the life upon our Southern plantations.

MORGAN'S "ANCIENT SOCIETY."*

II.

THE last link in the gentile series of the Iroquois, the highest point reached, is the confederacy of tribes. Here again the strictly democratic character appears in some of its general features, as, for instance: Perfect independence of each tribe in matters pertaining to local self-government; a general council of sachems for the confederacy; unanimity in the council requisite; no chief executive magistrate; two head-chiefs for warlike purposes elected, with equal powers, so as to counteract at once any tendency of a single individual to reach extraordinary power. There can be no doubt as to the truth of the picture presented by Mr. Morgan of the organization of the Iroquois and their institutions. He has extended his researches over the remainder of the North American Indians, and has established the existence of the gens among nearly all of them. Even the names of the gentes of more than thirty tribes scattered over the entire area of the United States and of Canada are given. They are mostly taken from animals, as among the Iroquois. All of these tribes belonged or belong still to an inferior condition of mankind. Either they are roving savages or at best sedentary Indians of the lower order, limited horticulturists, or rather hunters with a fixed abode for a longer period of time, since the female portion of the tribe increased the means of subsistence at a given place through their garden-culture. But besides them Mr. Morgan gives us the gentile organization of the Moqui and Laguna, two sedentary Indian tribes of the higher order of New Mexico—whose dwellings, large communal houses of adobe and stone—are permanent, who subsist exclusively upon agriculture, and who (like the other tribes of the "pueblos") when first met by the Spaniards were described by them as "living in cities larger than Mexico."

The fact that the Lagunas and Moquis are organized after the gentile system certainly suggests the possibility that the tribes of Mexico and Central America, at the time of the conquest, were in a similar condition. Mr. Morgan indeed adduces some evidence to the effect that the Maya of Yucatan had the gens, with descent in the male line. It is, moreover, proved by Bienvenida that they practised communism in living, and when, in 1698, the last Maya pueblo (Tayásal on Lake Peten) fell into the hands of the Spanish general Ursua they found "each house occupied by an entire relationship." These are further evidences in favor of his views. The "Popol-Vuh," or so-called holy book of the Quiché of Guatemala, although to some extent a work of doubtful authenticity, reveals, in that part of it which embodies undoubtedly genuine Indian traditions, the organization of the Quiché tribe, of which Fuentes, and after him Juarros, and also Stephens, have made an empire. Four gentes (houses) originally constitute the tribe; these are shown to subdivide into twenty-four, while they themselves remain as four phratries. It is, besides, established by authorities of great weight that the Quiché were led not by one, but by four chiefs, and that the office was elective. This carries still further the analogy with the typical institutions of the Iroquois. Nothing is wanted but the tribal confederacy to complete the series of gentile society. This confederacy Mr. Morgan has found beyond a doubt in Mexico.

It would require too much space to discuss at length his chapter on the "Aztec confederacy," although the name employed by him is incorrect, since the Aztecs formed but one tribe of the three who mastered in conjunction the valley of Mexico. His application of the principles of gentilism to the Mexican tribes in general is certainly very successful, and we recognize at once how erroneous has been the impression of their condition heretofore conveyed. We can safely predict that a further investigation of the details of their society will reveal all the features common to the other Indian tribes just noticed. The gens is found in the military organization of the Mexicans, in their tenure of lands by "calpules," in their communal plan of living. The phratry is established beyond a doubt through the principal "quarters" of their pueblo. A confederacy, for purposes of warfare, with a common war-chief of the Mexicans, and nothing else, at its head, takes the place of the empire, of the state or nation of Anahuac. The Mexican nobles and princes will, we are very certain, reduce themselves to elective chiefs, and the head-power in each tribe will ultimately appear in the council of chiefs, to whose decisions the head-chief had to submit. There are many points yet left in doubt, but the fundamental character of Mexican institutions is fixed beyond any cavil through Mr. Morgan. These institutions were yet barbarous, but certainly democratic, and neither despotic nor monarchical. The Mexicans had progressed far beyond the Iroquois, descent was probably in the male line among them, their organization was more complicated; but from this to a "high ancient civilization," analogous to the status of Asiatic empires, there is yet a wide step.

From what has been said we must expect Mr. Morgan to extend his investigations also to the South American Indians. His information on this point, however, appears to have been limited. In vain do we look for many remarkable proofs extant of the general prevalence of gentilism among the aborigines of South America, such as the (31) gentes of the Uaupés (between the Rio Uaupés and Amazonas), who, with equal propriety, might have styled themselves "people of the long house"—like the Iroquois. As early as 1507 (the date of the first printing of his letters) Amerigo Vespucci tells us of the large communal huts of the inhabitants of northern Venezuela. Molina (Abbé F. X.) pictures to us the democratic institutions of the Araucans, their elective chieftains, the council of chiefs leading their tribal affairs. He even mentions one of the fundamental attributes of the gens—the right to mutual help and assistance. Of the sedentary village Indians of New Granada, the Muyscas, we are told by Gomara, by Pedro Simon, Piedrahita, and Garcia, that descent was in the female line, as among the Iroquois. Lastly, in Peru, Polo de Ondogardo describes the communal tenure of the soil by kin. Even the latest investigations have fully established the fact that the dwellings all over the "land of the Incas" were joint tenement-houses analogous to those of Zuñi, Laguna, and Moqui. Still, the Peruvian aborigines had attained a higher degree of development even than the Mexicans, since by the side of the organization by kin (into "ayllus," or lineages, or gentes) we find already for warlike purposes another one based on numbers after the decimal system.

We state these facts merely to indicate that there is in South America overwhelming evidence of the truth of Mr. Morgan's views. His investigations have thus at least established American ethnology on a firm basis, furnishing reliable guides for the study not only of the ethnography, but also of the aboriginal history of the entire Indian branch of the human family. Reverting to other continents, Mr. Morgan demonstrates the existence of the gens among a large portion of the aborigines of Africa. In India it is found very plainly; remnants of it are yet visible in the Chinese Empire and among the Mongol tribes. Lastly, the Irish sept, the Scottish clan, are in Europe unmistakable representatives of it, while it is still vigorous in Bosnia and Bulgaria, coupled with the communal plan of living. The ancient Hebrews are shown to have had the gens, the phratry, and the tribe. An extended discussion of the gens, phratry, and tribe among the Greeks and Romans occupies a large portion of the "Growth of the Idea of Government." The subject is of very great importance, but we can only call attention to the remarkable concordance existing between the functions of the gens among the Iroquois and those of the Roman gens especially, and to the description given of the change from gentile society to political society, among Greeks as well as among Romans. How far the picture drawn by Mr. Morgan is correct we leave to students of classical antiquity to determine.

The third part, "Growth of the Idea of the Family," lies without the scope of this review. It involves the question of primitive marriage, which has latterly become an object not only of discussion but even of strife. We regret to see that in England this discussion has not been always conducted with the regard due to the real merits of Mr. Morgan's labors, which, while the British scientific world would be proud of them

* 'Ancient Society; or, Researches in the Lines of Human Progress from Savagery through Barbarism into Civilization. By Lewis H. Morgan.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877.

had they not been performed by an American, have not even received due courtesy, ordinary fairness and justice.

For a satisfactory understanding of the fourth part, "Growth of the Idea of Property," one must resort to the researches on the gens. So far as the American aborigines are concerned, the communal tenure of lands, for instance, appears as an established fact among most of the sedentary tribes. In regard to Mexico, however, we are at liberty to state that detailed researches are now being made which should establish, in a satisfactory way, the manner of holding the soil on the part of its aboriginal inhabitants. They may not in every respect confirm the ideas advanced by our author, but their general results will only strengthen the general principles laid down by him.

BAPTISTS AND QUAKERS.*

ON the surface no religious sects would seem to have less in common than the two which are grouped together in the above title. They represent, in some respects at least, the most divergent extremes of that enormous variety of practice and opinion which renders the real value of the great Protestant Reformation still a matter of so much dispute. While the Quaker exalts the spirit, the Baptist has always made a boas of adhering more closely than any other body of Christian believers to the very letter of the Written Word. In his revolt from all external rites and ceremonies the Quaker has refused compliance with the plainest commands of the Founder of Christianity, while the Baptist has strained language to make literal obedience to at least one injunction an imperative test of Christian fellowship. In his reverence for the inner light the Quaker has discarded any formal creed ; he has ranked the authority of Scripture beneath that of the individual consciousness ; he has eschewed emotion as an ingredient of religious experience ; content for the most part with an indirect influence upon others, he has not been spurred, even by the prospect of gradual extinction, to any systematic effort of religious propagandism ; while, on the other hand, the Baptist has been the zealous assertor of a pronounced dogmatic system ; he has exalted the Bible as the only source of religious truth ; he has eagerly lent himself to the most exciting appliances of the modern revivalist ; he has been characterized by an intense denominational spirit, which has naturally been quickened by a great numerical increase.

Yet with all these external differences nothing is more certain than the fact that these two religious bodies proceeded from the same impulse, and that during their early stages they had very much in common. George Fox, who, if not the founder of Quakerism, did more than any other man to fix its distinctive outlines, derived his earliest religious impressions from the Baptists, and constantly associated with them both before and after entering upon his unique career. He had an uncle who was a Baptist, his first sermon was preached to a Baptist congregation, and throughout his life, both in England and in this country, he was strongly attracted towards them. No attentive reader of his 'Journal' can have failed to note how constantly he sought among them his first-fruits. The great majority of the early converts to his doctrine were drawn from among the Baptists. The resemblances between the two sects were very striking. Both earnestly insisted that the church was a society of equals, and consequently refused to recognize any distinctive clerical class. Both denied the civil government any right of interference in religious matters at a time when this right was acknowledged by all the reformed churches without exception. Both objected to the use of anything but Scripture phrases to define the essence and attributes of the Infinite Being. In matters of minor moment the likeness was not less marked. Both disapproved strongly of instrumental music ; both agreed in the disuse of "heathen names" of days and months ; both discarded the pronoun "you," as used in the singular number ; both testified strongly against superfluity of apparel ; both disciplined members for marrying out of the sect ; both recognized the right of women to preach ; both denounced learning as a qualification of the religious teacher. In short, the language which Pepys uses in his diary as descriptive of the Quakers, "a melancholy, proud sort of people, and exceedingly ignorant," might be applied to either sect.

The author of this monograph has rendered a service in calling attention to these curious resemblances, but he is manifestly wrong in asserting so strongly that Quakerism was mainly a copy and continuation of the Baptist system. The truth is that one did not spring from the other, but both were products of the great religious fermentation of the XVIth and XVIIth centuries. Had Mr. Tallack made a little more philosophical study of his subject, he would not have missed so obvious a fact. The subsequent history of the two sects shows plainly enough that one was not a mere continuation of the other. The Baptists, in all their history, have produced no such genuine religious genius as George Fox ; and we may search the whole body of their denominational literature in vain for a theological treatise that will bear comparison with the eloquent and spiritual 'Apology' of Robert Barclay. The later history, indeed, of the two religious movements, in their origin so much alike, affords much matter for reflection. The Quakers, rejecting all external badges of communion, and reducing religion to a spiritual experience, have almost ceased to exist ; the Baptists, insisting on a form, and refusing to recognize a religious faith incapable of concrete expression, have enormously increased. It would almost seem as if a religion like that taught to Nicodemus and professed by John were unsuited to the coarser wants of average human nature, and that the aid of some external signs were necessary to make its appeal successful with the mass of men. It cannot be denied that the one simple rite on which the Baptists have everywhere insisted has been an element of singular strength in the great popular influences of the denomination.

Beyond this single feature, Mr. Tallack's volume has very little value. It is a compilation made with no great skill, and containing considerable matter only remotely connected with his subject. To show the resemblance between the Quakers and the early Baptists it was hardly necessary to enumerate all the members of the Society of Friends, in modern times, who have prospered in trade, or who have aided in promoting the temperance reform. The author's own reflections, when not inapposite, are usually commonplace. As a study of the character and career of George Fox, the essay is singularly inadequate—no facts are presented which cannot be gathered from the most common biographies. The author possesses neither the intellectual nor the literary qualifications requisite for delineating the singular enthusiast whose making to himself a suit of leather was of more significance, Sartor Resartus says, than the Diet of Worms, or the battle of Waterloo, Peterloo, or any other battle. In Fox's 'Journal,' and in his controversial writings, there is rich material for such a portrait, but Mr. Tallack has not known how to use it. The portions of the book which relate to Fox's experiences in this country are especially unsatisfactory. The extent of the author's acquaintance with the religious history of New England may be inferred from his remark respecting the Massachusetts Puritans who flogged and hung the Quakers, that "they were Episcopalians and not Nonconformists." Governor Endicott would have stood aghast at such a statement. Mr. Tallack has evidently never heard of the Cambridge Platform, and never read John Cotton's 'Way of the Congregational Churches Cleared.' The most striking episode in Fox's American career was his controversy with Roger Williams. Mr. Tallack refers to this, but a more careful study of the curious literature connected with it would have supplied him with some additional illustrations of the analogy between the Quakers and the early Baptists, while at the same time it would have shown with how little reason Roger Williams has been identified with the latter sect.

Epochs of Ancient History. The Athenian Empire. By George W. Cox, M.A., joint editor of the series. With five maps. (New York : Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 12mo, pp. 257.)—The fault of this book is one of proportion. It covers a period of about seventy-five years, including the very culmination of Grecian art and literature, and the career of the most triumphant democracy in history; but five chapters out of seven—three-quarters of the entire text—are taken up with the history of the Peloponnesian war, the melancholy downfall of the empire. From the title one expects the central figure to be Pericles, and the leading topic the Athenian constitution at this period of its glory ; a careful statement of the relation of Athens to the allied cities, first in the confederacy of Delos, and then when the confederacy was converted into an empire ; the causes of disaffection among the allies, and of the weakening of the power of the ruling city. The Peloponnesian War one would expect to be only an incident, or the instructive termination of a dominion founded upon injustice. The defence, of course, would be that in the period of this war the historian has the invaluable aid of Thucydides, and that the proportion of the book is controlled by the proportion of the materials. This is a sufficient justification for an encyclopædic history like Grote's; one who undertakes to give all that is known of the history of a country must perforce be more voluminous where the authorities are fuller. But

* 'George Fox, the Friends, and the Early Baptists. By William Tallack.' London : S. W. Partridge & Co.

even in Grote the reader feels that the perfection of the book as a work of literature is impaired by this; and in a mere sketch, such as Mr. Cox's, there is no reason for suffering the relative abundance of materials to govern the plan, rather than the relative importance of periods. There would have been enough to say of the Athenian Empire in its glory to fill five chapters out of seven, and leave two to treat of its overthrow. With this defect the book has great merits; Mr. Cox is master of his subject, and has the power of using his materials to excellent purpose. As a history of the Peloponnesian War the book is admirable.

Hours with Men and Books. By William Mathews, LL.D. (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1877. 1 vol., pp. 284.)—This book is one which calls for brief notice under several heads; and happily it is one which will review itself very well. Mr. Mathews tells us as a critic, for instance, that Thomas de Quincey was "one of the greatest scholars and thinkers of our century," and that his prose is "the most passionately eloquent, the most thoroughly poetical prose, our language has produced." As to talking, he could talk about anything; "it mattered little what was the theme of his high argument; whether beeves or butterflies, St. Basil or Æschylus." Clearly Mr. Mathews has himself no small ear for style, and he recognizes very clearly its value; "a tremendous thought," he says, "may be packed into a small compass, made as solid as a cannon-ball, and cut down everything before it" (p. 259). Thus, he says that "America is the grand asylum and *home of humanity*, where people of every race and clime under the whole heaven may stand erect on one unvarying plane of political and religious equality" (p. 306). As a moralist he is severe upon "the Jesuitical doctrine of Infidelity's latest champion, Rénan," as he writes the name of "this unblushing apostle of fraud." But Mr. Mathews has his sportive moments too, even while he castigates the unorthodox; thus, in his censure of Hume we may appreciate the lighter play of his mind: "What truth," he asks, "could be expected of a historian who wrote lying—on a sofa?" And yet in spite of this lightness rigorous science is by no means alien to Mr. Mathews, as shown by his remark that "in our animal economy it is a disastrous policy to eat exclusively the nitrates which contribute to the muscles, the phosphates which feed the brain and nerves, or the carbonates which develop fat" (p. 151). But we may not linger over the merits of this book; we must find space to say that it is, for the most part, a collection of well-worn *ana* about literary men, strung upon lines of thought that are more than commonly commonplace.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*
Adams (C. F.), Memoir of John Quincy Adams, Vol. XII	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Bartlett (Mrs. J. M. D.), Until the Day Break: a Tale	(Porter & Coates) $1 25
Clarke (H.) and Wake (C. S.), Serpent and Siva Worship, swd	(J. W. Bouton) 50
Cunningham (Rev. W.), On the Epistle of S. Barnabas	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 25
Daudet (A.), Jack: a Tale	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 50
Dugdale (R. L.), "The Jukes," 3d ed	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Farrar (Rev. F. W.), Life of Christ, Parts 9-12, swd	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 25
Folsom (Dr. C. F.), Disease of the Mind	(A. Williams & Co.) 1 25
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Heron (D. C.), Jurisprudence and its Relation to the Social Sciences	(Hurd & Houghton) 1 50
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Leeds (J. W.), History of the United States	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Mitchell (Dr. S. W.), Fat and Blood	"
Michelet (J.), The Bible of Humanity	(J. W. Bouton)
Perkins (F. B.), My Three Conversations with Miss Chester, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 25
Smart (H.), Two Kisses: a Tale, swd	(A. K. Loring) 50
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Continued from page iv.

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E F Bickford 27 Oct 77

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 23, 1877.

The Week.

IT is a pity that Judge West, before opening the Ohio campaign at Bellefontaine on the 16th, had not received a proof-sheet of Mr. Sherman's speech at Mansfield on the 17th. The addresses of the two representative Republicans might then have been made to harmonize somewhat more closely than they now seem to do. Mr. West does not perceive how it is possible for the authorities "to consummate resumption on the day fixed without the most serious consequences, unless the opposition House shall come to their aid, which is not at all probable." Mr. Sherman, on the other hand, shows plainly that he can "consummate resumption" on the day fixed without serious consequences, and that he will do so if the "opposition House" will only have the kindness to let him alone. Again, Mr. Sherman says nothing about the remonetization of silver, which Mr. West elaborately yet hazily discusses, believing in it apparently, and advocating it, although regarding it as "at best a hazardous experiment," and, in fact, managing to say as much against it as in its favor. We cannot forbear quoting from this discussion a paragraph which, as an example of stump rhetoric and an illustration of political hoodwinking, is almost unequalled:

"Together the gray and the golden eagle swept from their original perch of equal dignity and powers; the former has been stricken down in its flight. It is now proposed to reinstate it. Shall it be with its lost dignity and powers restored? or shall it in the outset be made a bird of prey to feed on and consume the public and private credit wealth of the nation, powerless to render a purchasing equivalent? If this, then indeed will it fall into contempt and again lag behind its more favored companion. To this, speaking for myself, I am unwilling to consent. Rather let them together soar, bearing up in their flight those rival handmaids to industrial and commercial prosperity—PUBLIC CREDIT AND PRIVATE FAITH."

About the only point on which Mr. West and Mr. Sherman were essentially agreed was that upon which we should have been glad to announce a disagreement—viz., the proposed treatment of the railroads and of the wages question by Congress. Even here, however, they are not wholly at one, Mr. Sherman believing in an irrepressible conflict between labor and capital, needing Congressional interference, while Mr. West maintains that an irreconcilable antagonism between labor and capital is most unnatural, and that the two can dwell together in eternal concord if the capitalist will adopt a reasonable minimum compensation to be paid at all events, and will add to it a compensation graduated according to the net profits of business. He adds that he would not have this harmony of labor and capital brought about by "compulsory legislation," and, although he eulogizes the proposed National Bureau of Industry, would confine its functions to those of a collector of statistics and an enlightener of public opinion. He concludes the discussion with a burst of eloquence which falls but little short of that upon the silver question above quoted.

Mr. Sherman's address, the main points of which we have elsewhere given, was on the whole of remarkable excellence, and will have a good effect upon the credit of the country. The only point of importance upon which his opinions were not clearly pronounced was that of the remonetization of silver, which we are inclined to infer he does not really believe in. It is true that throughout his discussion he refers constantly to gold and silver as though the two terms were convertible, and persistently uses "coin" where, if he means anything, he must certainly mean gold; but Mr. Sherman delivered his address in Ohio, and cannot be supposed as yet to have discarded all the arts of the politician. Further, in describing hypothetical modes of resumption, he says the necessary "accumulation both of silver and gold can be made by arresting from exportation our own production of these metals," which is of course absurd. Mr. Sherman, by failing to characterize the remonetization project as it deserves, and as he probably knows it deserves, failed also to give the last proof of the courage of his opinions.

General Mahone, the defeated candidate for the Democratic nomination in Virginia, "fired the first gun" in the campaign in that State on his return to his home in Petersburg, his remarks being devoted to what is called in Virginia "readjustment," but in the places where the creditors of the State dwell, "repudiation." General Mahone declared that

"The interest of this people, the honor of Virginia, and the security of the creditor alike demand that a readjustment and equalization of the public obligations shall be made; and I am more than ever persuaded that unless speedy and earnest efforts be directed to this end, bankruptcy, dishonor, and open repudiation must ensue."

In other words, if the creditor doesn't stop reminding the debtor of the pledge of its honor for the payment of its debts, and does not reduce his claims to what the debtor feels like paying, the debtor will not pay a cent. This can hardly be improved, except by the Georgian method of silencing creditors who complain of not having had a hearing, by framing a constitutional provision preventing the State from giving them one. A good authority alleges that an additional State tax of one mill (the present tax being about five mills) would enable Virginia to pay her debts honestly and put an end to any supposed necessity for "readjustment."

The absurdity of keeping Collector Arthur at the head of the Custom-house in this city is once more shown by the third and last report of the Investigating Commission on the weighers and gaugers. The Commission finds that this branch of the Custom-house is rotten to the core; that appointments in it are simple matters of favor; that the number of office-holders is greatly in excess of the needs of the service; and that they receive extravagant salaries and have scarcely anything to do. The Commission recommends that the entire force be dismissed, the districts reorganized, and the whole method of doing business changed. We shall be anxious to see whether, after this report, the Administration will issue another order to the man who is responsible for all these abuses, directing him to reform them. The understanding now seems to be that Mr. Arthur is to be allowed to remain in office to the end of his term, to be then succeeded by a proper person. We sincerely trust, however, that this plan is not so completely fixed that no amount of exposure, however complete, will convince the President of the absurdity of giving him reform work to do. We can assure Mr. Hayes that in this city the reform of the customs service by Mr. Arthur is regarded as a huge joke. The dim prospect of his retirement is, we understand, already bringing to the front applicants for the place, most of whom are, as might be expected, totally unfit for it. The selection of a good collector of customs in a great commercial city like New York ought not to be a difficult matter; yet the abuses of the last twenty-five years, the gradual corruption of the whole civil service, the forced exclusion from political life of that class from which good collectors would naturally be drawn, makes the selection of one a task of some difficulty. What is wanted, we take this opportunity of saying, is not a custom-house lawyer, nor a politician who has developed great skill in "fixing primaries," nor a broken-down hack who, having no means of support, has set up as a reformer, but a merchant of good position, public spirit, an intelligent comprehension of the commercial position of the country, and possessed of a fortune which places him above temptation. The sooner we get him the better for Mr. Hayes and "the party."

Donahue, the rioter, who was brought up before Judge Donohue for contempt of court in resisting the order of Mr. Jewett, the

receiver of the Erie Railroad, has been sentenced to thirty days' imprisonment, and his term has already expired. This sentence has naturally aroused some dissatisfaction, for it has been treated as a test case of the willingness of the State to punish offenders of this class. The judge's decision implies that the action of the prosecution in making the proceedings turn on a contempt of court—a technical offence—when as a matter of fact neither Donahue nor any of the strikers knew that the property of the Erie Railroad was more sacred than that of any other road in the State, was a mistake. But it was certainly no less sacred, and Donahue's acts were just as riotous as they would have been on any other road. If thirty days is a sufficient imprisonment for a man who does his best to reduce the society of a great community to a state of anarchy, our penal scale should be revised. Donahue's crime is far more dangerous to the public generally, and more criminal, because it was without excuse, than many of the cases of larceny or burglary for which poor, starving, ignorant wretches are put at hard labor for months, or may be years. If it was necessary to let Donahue out on this charge after an imprisonment for thirty days, because it was merely a case of contempt, we trust he is going to be indicted at once for rioting.

Last Friday, the Senate at Albany, which was convened some weeks ago to try Ellis the bank-examiner, voted by 21 to 10, the majority being of both political parties, to remove him. A resolution was at the same time adopted exonerating him from any "intentional wrong." This termination of the trial is fortunate for depositors in banks as well as the public, for it shows that a total neglect of their interests and the statutory duties prescribed to the bank-examiner will be followed by some punishment. It must be confessed, however, that the punishment for so gross a case was light. It was found that Ellis, knowing one of the banks in his charge to be broken, concealed the fact and allowed depositors to go on depositing in it, as if nothing was wrong, to the extent of about a hundred thousand dollars. It was not denied that this was in direct contravention of his statutory duties, which required him to have the bank wound up. But his defence was substantially that he was no mere bank-examiner, but was charged with important financial interests, and must therefore survey the whole field and determine whether, all things considered, the public would stand having the bank wound up or not. This he said he did, when, recalling the disastrous effect of the failure of Jay Cooke and Duncan, Sherman & Co. and the panic of 1873, he came to the conclusion that it would be dangerous to the general financial interests of the public, and would precipitate another crash if he performed his duties. This is a favorite view of official duty nowadays, and is frequently taken not only by bank-examiners, but by representatives, senators, governors, mayors, district-attorneys, and even judges on the bench. It leads to many calamities, from the simple ruin of private fortunes and the loss of private lives to great public disasters and scandals. Had the judges who have been trying Ellis been guided by it, instead of enquiring simply whether he had or had not failed to wind up a given bank, they would have allowed the determination of the case to depend upon such considerations as the probable effect of official scandals on the national reputation and the 4 per cent. loan, the danger to this or that "great party" of having any more such scandals, etc., etc. A copy of the record of Ellis's trial should be sent to every member of General Grant's late administration and to every official of the Freedmen's Savings-Bank. His line of defence has been in constant use by accused officials for years, and the result of this trial is one of the first signs that it has served its turn and is beginning to be understood.

Prices at the Stock Exchange were advanced 1 to 1¼ per cent. during the week by the speculators who found themselves loaded with railroad stocks at the time of the railroad strikes. The public, or that part of it which owns railroad shares, took little interest in the movement except to sell stocks which they had held unremuneratively for a long time. The chief event of the week to speculators, and an important one to all concerned in cheap telegraphy, was the consummation of an agreement between the Western Union and the Atlantic and Pacific telegraph companies, by which the two are to work in accord in the future, to "pool" gross earnings and divide them, the Western Union retaining seven-eighths and the Atlantic and Pacific getting one-eighth. The contract is for twenty years, and is secured by the transfer to Mr. Wm. H. Vanderbilt of a controlling interest in the Atlantic and Pacific, subject to the interests of the Western Union. This part of the arrangement was not made by the Atlantic and Pacific Company, but by two or three large owners of its stock. This practical consolidation, although technically only a traffic arrangement, may benefit stockholders, but at the expense of the public, who are interested in continuing such a competition as will keep rates low and the companies on their good behavior.

The particulars of this agreement may have some interest for our readers. Last winter a "pool," including an experienced California operator, was formed to buy up *all* the Western Union shares on the street—to corner the market, in fact, and "squeeze the shorts." Accordingly, in a few days the stock went up from 71 to 78, and the "shorts" began to cry aloud for mercy. Suddenly Western Union began to fall as rapidly as it had risen, and did not cease falling till it touched 56. The bulls suffered terribly by this decline, and they attributed all their misfortunes to a want of good faith on the part of the Californian and perhaps others of their number, who, they said, had joined the bears at the most critical period of their joint enterprise. The result was that certain ex-members of the pool, including the Californian, took a heavy interest in Atlantic and Pacific Telegraph, forming a close alliance with the bears, in the innocent belief that as they had rescued the bears from total destruction, the latter would be bound by the strongest ties of gratitude to keep faith with them. Things ran on for some months to the comfort of the allies, and Western Union sank as though there were no bottom to it, but Atlantic and Pacific meanwhile made no money and became a burden to its holders. Then a new mystery began to disclose itself on the Street. The great bear avowed his intention to put Western Union down to 40 and compel that company to buy the Atlantic and Pacific stock at prices dictated by himself. To sell Western Union under 60 would result in a handsome profit if the sellers could execute this intention. It is alleged that the Californian and others sold heavily, but the stock advanced in spite of them until it was discovered that the great bear had privately disposed of his interest in Atlantic and Pacific and had bought largely of Western Union, sending up the stock with great rapidity. What to do now was a burning question with those who had retained their Atlantic and Pacific shares; and since charges of bad faith would not put money in their treasury, they were driven to postpone revenge and get a portion of their money back by making a bargain with the elder company.

In the New York money market there were signs of higher rates for loans. The banks have little more than as much surplus reserve as a year ago, and their lending capacity is about $45,000,000 less than then. The one favorable indication is that as legal-tender notes go from here first to the West and then to the South, to facilitate the transfer of the crops from the farmers and planters to the dealers, it is likely that gold will be imported from Europe, as sterling exchange at the close of the week justified importations. If there should accumulate here such an amount of gold as would be burdensome to the market, an opportunity would be offered to Secretary Sherman to sell bonds for gold for redemption purposes. At the close of the week the gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar was $0.9546. The bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar had a gold value at the close of the week of $0.9049.

Mr. Meredith Read, the United States Minister to Greece, has sent a despatch to the State Department asserting that Russia has heretofore been the only competitor of this country in the grain markets of Europe; that, under the most favorable circumstances, we can place grain on board vessels at 15 per cent. less cost than Rus-

sia; and that in the present embarrassed condition of that country, we could with a little effort control the grain trade of Europe. He also asserts that British merchants are now building vessels for the transport of grain from this country, and suggests that we should build the vessels as well as send the grain. To this last it may be replied that we shall certainly build vessels as soon as it will pay us to do so, and no sooner. Russia, it is true, is our chief competitor for the grain trade of England, but not the only one, nearly an equal amount having for the last three years been forwarded from Germany (including Austria-Hungary), France, and British India. Moreover, it will not be good policy for our merchants to suppose that Russian wheat will fail to reach England. The Baltic ports are, of course, closed, but the present price of wheat in London (about 33 per cent. above that of last year) justifies sending it from Russia by rail. We shall still have a good market for our abundant crops, since France has not much wheat to sell this year, and the good effect of this upon general trade is already most encouraging. It should not be forgotten, however, that, as England pays more than usual for wheat, she will have less money to spend upon other things.

No event or movement of any magnitude has taken place within the week on the theatre of war in western Bulgaria. The Grand Duke Nicholas and the commanders belonging to his army have left Plevna, Lovatz, and Selvi, which they confront, unmolested, and the troops commanded by Osman Pasha have made no serious move against either Tirnova or Gabrova, not to speak of an attack on the Grand Duke himself. The latter has now his headquarters at Gorni (Upper) Studeni (the use of "Gorni" alone is as wrong as that of the often-repeated "Boghaz pass," which is equivalent to "Pass pass"), a few miles east of the former headquarters at Bulgareni, and he has there been joined by his brother, the Emperor. Heavy reinforcements are evidently waited for before an attack in force is renewed on Osman Pasha, and in the meanwhile a strong cavalry movement is said to be preparing, or already in progress, in his rear, with the object of cutting his communications with Sophia, from which he mainly draws his supplies, and also of cutting off his retreat in case he is routed in the next great battle. The undertaking is thus declared to have a great aim, but is also acknowledged to be "hazardous." From the Pasha's camps no prospective events are announced by correspondents. That he has as yet made no attempt on Tirnova, which is not strongly covered, and from which the seat of the lately established Bulgarian government has been removed to Sistova, or on Gabrova, in order to force the evacuation of the Shipka pass, tends to show that he is apprehensive of an attack on his northern position at Plevna, or on the centre of his line at Lovatz, or else waiting for a combined action with Suleiman Pasha.

There are concurrent reports from various quarters to the effect that Suleiman Pasha, whose successes over Gen. Gourko are now acknowledged on all sides to have been very marked, has succeeded in crossing the Balkans, and in effecting a junction with Mehemet Ali's forces near Elena or Iliana, S.E. of Tirnova. These reports are, however, apparently contradicted by a reported bulletin of his dated August 19, in which he announces that he passed through Kazanlik and occupied the town of Shipka. Mehemet Ali himself has kept quiet in his positions on and near the White Lom, and he has been left undisturbed by the Russian Crown Prince, excepting one or two attacks on outposts repulsed with loss. The fortress of Rustchuk, however, has been repeatedly subjected to a heavy bombardment from Giurgevo, and has answered with an equally vigorous fire. A new bridge has been constructed by the Russians above Rustchuk, at Pirgos. More important movements seem to be in progress in the Dobrudja, which Gen. Zimmermann has not yet entirely evacuated. The Turks are reported to have landed near the Sulina mouth of the Danube a force of some 7,000 men, probably from Varna and belonging to the command of the Egyptian Prince Hassan, who are marching on Tultcha, while another Turkish force is advancing from Silistria on Tchernavoda, both divisions apparently co-operating to intercept the retreat of the Russian troops which recently reoccupied Kustendje, where the Turks were expected to land. In order to extricate the remainder of his army in the Dobrudja, Zimmermann may have to retard the transfer of the bulk of it (north of the Danube) toward the positions in western Bulgaria. What other reinforcements the Russians there are receiving cannot even be conjectured, so vague are the accounts, but they expect a vast number of men, including most of the Imperial Guard.

Before Kars, along a line extending northward from Magaradjik, southeast of that fortress, the army of General Melikoff made an attack on Mukhtar Pasha's position early in the morning of August 18. According to the Pasha's report, the Russians, whom he states to have numbered 35,000 infantry, 10 regiments of cavalry, and 110 guns, were, after a combat of some ten hours, compelled to retreat to their camp with a loss of 1,500 killed, while that of the Turks was less than 500 in killed and wounded. The Russian version will undoubtedly differ materially. From the Caucasus the Russians report the successful advance of the Ingur (River) column through Abkhasia to the banks of the Kodor, at Atara, which shows that the Turks still hold Sukhum Kaleh, where Hobart Pasha has been embarking for Trebizond large numbers of fugitive mountaineers. The abortive attempt at a general rising in the Caucasus has proved a source of endless misery to the Abkhasians and other mountain tribes, but it has served the purpose of making a strong diversion in Transcaucasia, and thus contributed to the failure of the Russian campaign in Armenia. Those Circassians of Turkey, the Montenegrins, continue with their wonted stubbornness the assault on Niksitch, to the rescue of which Turks are again marching, and we hear again of the Duga pass, Kirstatch, etc. And there is also the unceasing talk of Servia's continuing or going to break her neutrality, of Austria's threatening or not threatening to prevent the breaking of it, of the more or less warlike intentions of Greece, and of the more or less contented feelings of the Rumanians since the crossing of the Danube by their division under General Manu.

The famine in Southern India is prolonged by a second year of drought, and bids fair to be greater in extent and to demand more vigorous measures of relief than any occurring heretofore in the present century, though inferior to some of the great famines of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in the extent of territory affected. The last great famine—that of 1873–4—was confined to Bengal; the present one affects large portions of Madras and Bombay, covering with varying intensity a region of nearly 1,400,000 square miles, containing over 25,000,000 inhabitants. The people seriously afflicted probably number from ten to fourteen millions. The problem of relieving this starving multitude is, notwithstanding the experience gained during the Bengal famine in 1874, one of tremendous difficulty. The people of Southern India are very widely scattered over a great extent of territory, and it is absolutely impossible to reach many of them in time to prevent death from starvation. The country has almost no railroads, no navigable rivers, few roads of any kind, and these mostly very bad, and there are but few European officers who understand the language of the people to be relieved. Cattle would die of thirst long before a load of grain could be carried to some portions of the afflicted region. Government is doing what it can towards gathering the people in encampments at relief centres where they may be fed. At Madras, at last accounts, nearly one million were engaged upon public works, and more than another million were charitably relieved. Terrible epidemics are almost certain to break out at the relief centres before the famine is ended, and the number sure to die of starvation, in spite of all efforts to save them, is appalling. The ignorance and superstitious apathy of the people, and their caste prejudices, add greatly to the difficulties of relief, many of them preferring to die rather than to labor on public works or receive food from English hands. The expense of these recurring famines (this being the fourteenth of the present century) seriously threatens the financial solvency of British India.

SECRETARY SHERMAN'S SPEECH.

MR. SHERMAN'S political speeches while a member of the Senate and chairman of its Finance Committee reflected with great steadiness the average opinion of the people of Ohio. Through the varying phases of the bond and greenback controversy he was never very far behind or very far in advance of the bulk of his immediate constituents. During all this time he betrayed more knowledge of financial topics and a clearer insight into economic science than he esteemed it wise to discover to the people. He has illustrated, with much intrepidity, the maxim that the truth should not be spoken at all times. This is not all that might be said of his public influence at certain critical periods, but it is enough to say now that the professional and business classes of the community had long since learned to be distrustful of Senator Sherman—a state of mind which might have grown out of the circumstance that Senator Sherman was distrustful of them, that he underestimated their intelligence, their influence, and the robustness of their moral health.

Elevation to higher responsibilities has been improving to Mr. Sherman. His speech at Mansfield, Ohio, on Friday last comes very near being a masterpiece of common sense. Near the close he falls into the same ditch-water in which Judge West soiled his garments, and here he reminds us of the Senator Sherman of nine or ten years ago. But it will be remembered that Senator Sherman never pressed the financial heresies he chose to espouse into the forms of law, and it may be assumed now that he will not be active in abolishing railway competition by act of Congress, although he had the exceeding ill grace to say that that would be a wise and useful thing to do. Aside from this there is very little in the speech to find fault with and very much to commend. The Southern policy of the President is defended not on the abrupt ground of necessity which Senator Morton espoused, but upon the broader one of right. It was not merely necessary, he says, that the troops should be withdrawn from the South, but it was right; it would have been unlawful to have kept them there; the negro is better off without them, the South is more law-abiding and more prosperous, and the North better satisfied. This is the most courageous word that has been uttered on the subject by any leading Republican since Packard and Chamberlain retired from business. The usual defence of the President's action has been couched in the deprecatory phrase, "Wait and give it a fair trial," or, "The President having done his sworn duty, do not condemn him without a hearing; perhaps the experiment of obeying the Constitution may not prove so disastrous after all." Mr. Sherman has rightly perceived that such a defence is untenable, and that the way to obtain popular approval is to challenge debate upon the merits. The reader will not fail to notice the shaft he sends at the admirers of General Grant. The Blaines and Camerons having been seized with new veneration of the policy of the ex-President toward the South, Mr. Sherman reminds them that it was his refusal to recognize Packard and his decision at one time to withdraw the troops and recognize Nicholls that deprived Packard of all moral support at home, honeycombed his legislature, and left President Hayes no alternative.

Civil-service reform, economy in public expenditures, and a colorless allusion to the tariff are the next topics of the speech. As to the first of these, Mr. Sherman avows his belief that the civil service needs considerable amendment, and says that the President's order forbidding officeholders to meddle with caucuses, conventions, and party machinery is not only just, but is in accord with the oft-expressed wishes of his own constituents and neighbors. He does not indicate with the clearness that could be desired what further steps should be taken to reform the civil service, but we must remember that the speaker is a novice at this work. He has never been an outspoken defender of the spoils system in politics, but he secured his promotion to the Senate by the usual promises of patronage in return for votes, and always made full use of his Senatorial prerogative in the filling of offices, so that we are quite satisfied to find him now in a reformatory mood. In the matter of public expenditures he makes a very creditable showing. The cost of collecting the customs revenue has been reduced by three-quarters of a million, and the work on public buildings economized considerably more than a million dollars, without impairing the efficiency of the service or the value of the work. The argument which supports these economies would serve equally to condemn the Texas and Pacific subsidy, but upon that subject Mr. Sherman is silent.

The remainder of the speech, save the lapse into railway reform through Government control—Congress to fix maximum *and minimum* rates of transportation—relates wholly to the public debt and specie resumption. As to these topics Mr. Sherman's views may be presumed to be nearly decisive of the policy of the Administration. It gives us pleasure to say that these views are wholesome, and that the arguments by which they are supported are well calculated to sustain and improve the public credit and the public morals. There is a notable omission of the silver question from the points discussed, but we are not at liberty therefore to suppose that the Secretary has departed from the views given to the public a few weeks ago through the medium of the Associated Press, which were not at all agreeable to the advocates of the "dollar of the fathers." The incongruities of the Resumption Act of 1875 are noticed by the Secretary, and the opinion is expressed that this act contemplates the continued circulation of greenbacks after resumption—a policy which he personally favors. Notwithstanding these incongruities, he pledges himself that if the law remains unchanged "every dollar of United States notes will, before the time fixed for resumption, buy as much as an equal amount of gold or silver." Failing of other means to bring this about, he intimates that he shall use the surplus revenues and sell bonds of any of the classes authorized by law (4, 4½, or 5 per cents) for coin to redeem such greenbacks as may be presented at the Treasury at and after that time. Opinions may differ as to the amount of coin-reserve needed to effect and maintain specie resumption, but all difficulties on this score will disappear if the Secretary pursues his purpose unflinchingly. It was never contemplated that the greenbacks should all be redeemed in one mass—that would be a physical impossibility; but the duty to commence redemption on the 1st of January, 1879, is now binding on both Government and people, and if the coin then in the Treasury should be demanded, it would only be necessary to supply more from time to time with the means at the command of the Secretary. Mr. Sherman, however, does not anticipate this necessity—he looks to an extinguishment of the gold premium; but as he does not show how this is to be brought about under existing laws, there is a hiatus in his argument. Still, it is perfectly safe to rely on the power to sell bonds and use the surplus revenues as experience may prove needful. He rightly assumes that the credit of the Government and the resources of the country in precious metals and exportable produce are sufficient for all purposes. Let the Resumption Act be construed to mean "on and after the first of January, 1879," which is the only rational construction, and all difficulties regarding the supply of coin are removed. The value of the Secretary's speech consists in the declaration of his fixed purpose to resume at that time if not interfered with. For Congress to interfere with this purpose, so solemnly proclaimed to the world in its own acts—to interfere before the appointed time, and therefore before anybody can know whether the execution of the task will be difficult or not—would be a monstrous blunder and fraud. Whether it will be expedient to keep United States notes in circulation concurrently with bank-notes after specie resumption, is a question that may be safely left to the future.

Mr. Sherman's remarks on the commercial crisis and the relation of political parties thereto, though not novel, are well conceived and well timed. His statement that ours is the most prosperous of all countries at the present time is, however, an exaggeration. Official reports show that railway earnings have been steadily increasing in England during the past year, and pauperism steadily diminishing. These are safe indications of returning prosperity, and we have nothing of like import to show. Perhaps the bountiful harvests of the present year may lift the cloud that has so long hung over

American trade, but so many predictions of better times since 1873 have been falsified that the school of the prophets has fallen into disrepute. Let us hope that the Secretary's vision is clearer, and that he is correct in saying that the worst is over and that industry will soon revive.

THE TURCO-RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.

THE Russian defeat at Plevna has made a serious change in the situation, which, though it may have no influence on the final result, will doubtless postpone the Turkish overthrow. That it is a misfortune for Turkey, we think there can be little question. It, in the first place, removes all prospects of interference in her behalf from any quarter. If the Russians had been able to fulfil the promise of the opening of the campaign, and advance without serious check on Constantinople, the Powers would undoubtedly have cried Halt! before she got there, and have imposed a peace which would have left Turkish resources practically unimpaired, however much it diminished the Sultan's independence. Now, however, it seems certain that the combatants will be left to fight it out, and that when the end comes Turkey will have no claim to consideration except her misfortunes. The Mussulman population will be utterly exhausted for all military purposes, and Russia will be, according to usage, entitled to compensation in proportion to her efforts and sacrifices. In fact, it is not impossible, and we think not improbable, that the battle of Plevna has sealed the doom of the Ottoman Power in Europe. The war now raging on the Danube has one striking point of resemblance to the late civil war in this country in the first campaign; namely, that a great many persons are greatly interested in having it kept within narrow limits, and in not allowing it to go too far. They want a war which will frighten the Turk, and make him behave himself, but not a war that will damage him greatly or expel him from Europe, or loosen his hold on the Christians too seriously. They would like, in short, a war "with limited liability." The chances are very strong that the late Russian reverses, like Bull Run and the Seven Days, are the very thing needed to upset all the calculations and precautions of all the prudent statesmen of the West, and convert the struggle into a desperate and successful attempt, not to readjust the Turk's relations to Christendom, but to destroy him as a European state, and compel the great Powers, once for all, to face the dreaded and often-postponed task of deciding what shall take his place.

The secondary cause of the Russian check it is now not difficult to point out. Of course, the first and fundamental one is the want of a great strategist. But the proximate reason of the Russian failure to strike the catastrophic blows which made the German campaign in France the wonder of the world, is plainly an overweening contempt for the enemy. This contempt would be justifiable enough in assailing the Turks in the open field, but there is nothing in their military history to justify any such contempt for them when fighting behind breastworks, as has been indicated in the Russian attacks on the fortified and naturally strong positions at Zevin and Plevna, with forces not greater than or even inferior to those of the defenders. Behind earthworks all the defects of the Turkish army disappear, or are not felt—the worthlessness of the officers, the absence of transport service, the inefficiency of the commissariat, and the absence of drill and organization. The raw Bashi-Bazuk, just arrived from Asia but behind a parapet, is, once he has got used to the breechloader, as good a soldier as any the Russians can bring against him, and, indeed, will bear pounding better. He will not resist the assault of a greatly superior force, but he may be relied on to keep out any force which is no greater than his own—a lesson which the Russians have certainly learnt in their Turkish wars a score of times.

Under these circumstances the attack on Plevna, with an army somewhat inferior to Osman Pasha's, must be looked on simply as a remarkable piece of folly, for which it is difficult to account. The fact that Osman did not attempt to follow up his victory makes it plain enough that the Turks know both the secret of their strength and weakness, and that nothing will please them better than to have the Russians launch small parties against their positions and thus throw away the invader's greatest advantage—his immense preponderance in numerical strength. The Russians have evidently begun, as we did, with the "anaconda policy," but will probably have to end, as we ended in our war, by getting together the largest force possible and using it to strike blows so tremendous as to leave nothing to chance and nothing to the enemy's valor or devotion. The old and much-talked-of rule of war, that "you must be strongest at the point of attack," has won most of the really great victories of history, but it is an inconvenient rule to follow, and all commanders naturally try to persuade themselves that once in a while strength may be taken to lie in something else than number—in morale, for instance, or discipline, or in the goodness of the cause. Sometimes they are right, and cover themselves with glory by dint of audacity; but for the most part, as the French saying is, "Providence is on the side of the big battalions," and compels even the most brilliant strategists to solve the seemingly humble and prosaic problem of having always three men to the enemy's one as the first and great condition of all success.

In the sore struggle on which the Russian Emperor and people have now entered, they may fairly claim the sympathy and good wishes of all civilized—we do not need to say of all Christian—men. They are doing the last and greatest work of deliverance now left for Christendom to do—a work in many of its features having as strong claims to respect and support as any emancipation of slaves which has yet taken place, because dealing with an evil which has probably inflicted more moral and material damage on manhood than any slavery which the modern world has witnessed, and a work, too, which all Europe should long ago have undertaken. That it has been left for this generation to do is the crying shame and scandal of modern history. And it is by no means necessary to show that Russia has entered on it, and is prosecuting it, in a spirit of pure philanthropy, any more than it is necessary to show that the North fought out the late war solely through love for the negro, in order to entitle her to our good wishes. Much the same class in England which, in 1862 and 1863, demanded philanthropic motives of absolute purity from the North as the price of their sympathy, are now horrified by the suspicion that Russia in attacking Turkey seeks more territory and more sea-room, besides the deliverance of her fellow-Christians. Nothing is more natural than that she should do so, and even if it were a matter of reproach, we should be unable to say who of all the Powers of the earth was entitled to cast the first stone at her. But after admitting it, and giving it all the weight that can possibly be claimed for it, the great fact would still remain that every improvement in the condition of mankind which has been wrought by war has been wrought under the influence of mixed motives. Great masses of men have never yet been put in motion for the battlefield in a spirit of pure missionary zeal, and there is something grotesque as well as revolting in the cant of those who, while rightfully glorying in the fact, for the Hindu's sake, that England now holds India, no matter by what means or with what aims she acquired it, cannot bear to have the Bulgarian or Armenian delivered from tyranny as bad as that of the Moguls or Mahrattas by anybody who cannot produce a certificate that his heart is pure, and that Christian love is the sole source of his sacrifices.

THE CHARGES AGAINST JUDGE DILLON.

IN the *Nation* of the 12th of last month we noticed some public charges involving the reputation of Judge Dillon, growing out of the foreclosure suit of the Central Railroad of Iowa. We did not vouch for their truth, but expressed the opinion that the scandal was so grave as to call for the examination of the charges by some competent tribunal, and stated that we understood that the persons aggrieved had taken legal advice, looking to the impeachment of the judge at the approaching session of the Senate. Since then Judge Dillon has replied to these charges at length in a published letter to the Hon. Thos. C. Reynolds of St. Louis, and we have been called upon by several newspapers which have undertaken the

defence of Judge Dillon to either prove these charges or retract them. To call upon a newspaper to prove the truth of charges of this kind is obviously to ask an impossibility. We have no power to send for persons or papers, to swear or to examine or cross-examine witnesses. All that can be fairly asked of us is to show that there is reasonable cause for a judicial examination of the case, and this we originally thought there was. A further consideration of the facts has convinced us that we were right, and that the case is even darker than we originally supposed.

The charges were that Judge Dillon had grossly denied and delayed justice in the foreclosure suit of the Central Railroad, and the facts on which they were based were stated to be as follows: 1st. Notwithstanding a final decree was entered by consent of all parties, authorizing a sale of the road in October, 1875, the execution of the decree was delayed nearly two years; 2d. Judge Dillon during this delay removed a competent receiver and put an unfit man in his place, who not only mismanaged but plundered the road. 3d. On charges being brought against this receiver he refused to examine them. 4th. Having first denied an appeal from the decree of 1875, he almost immediately afterwards allowed it, without any change of circumstances; and, having first decided that it was impossible to have the decree corrected or a new decree entered, he subsequently decided the opposite. 5th. Having finally granted a stay of proceedings, and the case having been taken to the Supreme Court at Washington, and there decided against him, and the stay set aside, he still continued for some time to prevent the execution of the decree. 6th. The Hon. Hiram Price, the father-in-law of the judge, having been made a commissioner early in the litigation to examine and report upon the road, comes forward, after all these delays have depreciated the value of the property, with an offer to buy the road at thirty-three cents on the dollar. We gave an abstract of Judge Dillon's published reply to these charges two weeks ago, but have deferred replying to it, partly because, as we stated at the time, only a competent tribunal could dispose of them finally, and partly because any reply involved an examination in detail of a voluminous record over 3,000 pages in length. We should, in fact, have much preferred to leave the matter where it was until some body like a committee of Congress could take it up, and either vindicate Judge Dillon as he should be vindicated, if innocent, or drive him from the bench which he disgraces, if guilty; but as the newspapers which have undertaken the defence of Judge Dillon have seen fit to infer from our silence that the original charges were baseless slanders, and that there is no ground for investigation or criticism, we feel it to be our duty to our readers and the public to correct this misapprehension. What we shall now say is based upon a careful examination of the record.

In the first place, it will be noticed that there is no dispute as to the fact of the final decree having been entered in 1875, or that it remained unexecuted for nearly two years. There is no question either that during these two years the vast majority of the bondholders have been trying to get it executed, and only a small faction, headed by Russell Sage of this city, representing $200,000 in bonds, opposed it. What Judge Dillon says about "warring factions" of bondholders is a misrepresentation of the facts. Since the decree of October 22, 1875, all the bondholders except the Russell Sage party have been entirely united as to the proper course to be pursued. The question is, therefore, What caused the delay? If the decree had been allowed to stand there would have been no trouble. As to this, Judge Dillon declares the reason that the decree was not allowed to stand was that "the Court supposed at the time it was a decree by consent, but this soon afterwards turned out to be a mistake." Now, we say without hesitation that there is not the slightest scintilla of evidence in the whole record to show anything of the sort. The only persons who objected to the decree were the party headed by Russell Sage referred to above. This party, at some time between Oct. 1, 1875, and Oct. 22 (the latter being the date of the decree), by letter to the trustee under the mortgage, the Farmers' Loan and Trust Co., authorized it generally to foreclose on "such terms and conditions as a majority of the bondholders desire." The trustee thereupon "asked the advice of the Court in the premises," and stated that it "was ready to execute any decree the Court might see proper to make." This communication was presented to the Court, and the decree was thereupon entered. Further than this, in an opinion delivered at the May term, 1877, the judge states, speaking of the same decree, that "it was procured for the equal benefit of all," and adds generally that the Court "cannot entertain the application of specific bondholders except when they come in and represent and make a case, showing that the trustee is guilty of a breach of trust or neglect of duty." No such showing was ever made. Again, on the 16th of December, the Court denied an appeal prayed for by the trustee; because, "1st, the decree in question was entered by consent of all the parties in interest." It is not until the 13th of January, 1876, that a pleading appears upon the record signed by one W. W. Cole, as counsel for the Sage party, containing an allegation that the decree was "not entered upon and with the consent of all the parties thereto." What parties had not consented was not stated, and was manifestly incapable of proof. The allegation was not verified by the affidavit of a single bondholder. Who W. W. Cole was we have no means of knowing, but he appears to have been injected into the case for the purpose of filing this extraordinary document, and to have then retired from it. Lawyers only will perhaps be able thoroughly to apprehend the singularity of the behavior of a court which under such circumstances reopens a final decree; but to laymen it must be obvious that under such rulings there could be no final decree by consent in any railroad foreclosure case in which there are a large number of bondholders. The record therefore shows plainly that the beginning of all the delay was caused by the Court itself.

We pass over for the present the charges connected with the receiverships, to consider the others immediately connected with the appeal proceedings. As to the point that, having denied an appeal, he turned round and granted it without any change of circumstances, it is admitted that Judge Dillon denied the first appeal; but he says that there was a change of circumstances, because

"The first appeal was applied for by the trustee on behalf of certain bondholders not parties to the record, leaving the rest of the decree unappealed from. This I decided could not be done. The next application was made, not by the trustee, but by bondholders who did not consent to the decree, to appeal so far as to protect their own interests; and the allowance of this appeal the Supreme Court of the United States has sustained (3 Otto, 412). What can be thought of the accuracy of the statement that there was no 'change of circumstances'? How unjust to charge me with improper conduct in allowing an appeal which the Supreme Court has sustained by refusing to dismiss it!"

This is a misstatement of the facts as we understand them. We have just shown that the decree having been by consent, and no proof having been introduced to upset this fact, there could be no change of circumstances. Whether bondholders came in, or the trustee came in for bondholders, made no difference as long as it was a matter of record, unshaken by proof, that the decree was by consent. But, besides this, the only change of circumstances which Judge Dillon refers to is contained in the fact that the first appeal was applied for by the trustee, while the second was applied for by bondholders, and sustained by the Supreme Court. Now, the peculiarity of this as a defence is that, as a matter of fact, the bondholders who applied in the second instance were the same bondholders (the Russell-Sage party) for whom the trustee had applied in the first, and the rights to be protected (had there been any) were the same in both cases, and Judge Dillon so treated the case, because, when allowing the appeal, he ordered it to be taken as of the date originally applied for by the trustee; while it appears from the decision of the case by the Supreme Court which he refers to that the appeal was sustained simply as a matter of practice, without regard to the merits, the Court directing substantially that the decree should still be executed as if there were no appeal pending.

Judge Dillon next proceeds to deal with the charge that, having first decided that it was impossible to have the decree corrected or a new decree entered, he subsequently decided the opposite. He says:

"This is a total misapprehension, and exactly the reverse is true, as will be seen in 3 Otto, p. 415, where I say, as 'the term at which this decree was rendered has not yet ended, but stands adjourned until January next, the proper course for the parties in whose behalf an appeal is sought (viz., the appeal sought by the trustee and refused) is for them to appear, and if the decree is erroneously entered, or is improper, to apply to be made parties, or to have the decree corrected or a new decree entered.' It is thus seen by the official report that precisely the reverse of the newspaper statement is the truth."

He here seems to make out his case, though we infer from the record that the charge was not correctly put. But it would require too much space to examine in detail the precise ground on which it rests, and we cheerfully give the judge the benefit of the doubt.

As to the granting of a stay of proceedings, or *supersedeas*, the adverse decision at Washington, and his subsequent preventing of the execution of the decree, he says, first, that he "never granted any stay of proceedings whatever." The following is the language of the record of the order granting it (with the appeal)—"or if said Sage, Buell, and Cowdrey desire said appeal to operate as a *supersedeas*, the bond for that purpose is fixed at the sum of $1,000,000." It is somewhat staggering to find a judge who used this language saying he never granted any stay at all. The appel-

lants, thinking the bond was too large, got it reduced by Judge Miller, but the *supersedeas* disposed of by the Supreme Court is that of Judge Dillon.

The statement that after the decision against him in the Supreme Court he continued to prevent the execution, he denies emphatically, and says that the trustee has ever since that decision been at liberty to order a sale. Messrs. Turner, Lee & McClure, counsel for the Trust Company, wrote us a letter on this subject, making the same assertion two weeks ago. As to this matter we do not need to go outside the record, but the evidence of the record is fortified by extracts from a letter from these same counsel, which has already been quoted in the newspapers, and which we have seen. Writing on January 19 last, to the representative of the majority of the bondholders, one of these counsel, representing the trustee, says: "Pardon me if I say . . . that when you know that the course . . . *which you criticise as the obstructive course of the trustee was pursued under special directions from Judge Dillon*, you may consider," etc., etc. If we had known of the existence of this letter at the time Messrs. Turner, Lee & McClure wrote to us, we should have exposed the character of their communication. It is clear that either their letter to us saying that "the statement that he continued for some time to prevent any execution of the decree is absurd," was untrue, or else their letter just quoted above was false. But all question as to this is set aside by the record of the opinion of the Court delivered in March, 1877. The Supreme Court having set aside the *supersedeas*, there was no reason why the decree should not at once have been executed, and an application was made to the Court for that purpose; nevertheless Judge Dillon warned the Trust Company off, in language calculated to deter any prudent trustee from doing anything at all. It is a significant fact that while Judge Dillon, in his reply, declares that the trustee "appeared and opposed the application," the record shows, on the contrary, that it submitted itself to the direction of the Court. The opinion is too long to quote; but its *animus* may clearly be seen by a comparison of it with his opinion at the May term, on a renewal of the same application, when finally, after a delay of nearly two years, he suddenly changed his tone and, while denying the application, urged the trustee to execute the decree, saying, "We would be glad if the trustee could see its way clear to execute." Down to this time it is obvious that, through Judge Dillon's action, the trustee had been prevented from giving effect to the judgment of the Supreme Court setting aside the stay. It will probably strike most lawyers, too, as rather novel law that the execution of a final decree of a United States court is a matter of choice, with which the court has nothing to do.

Judge Dillon goes on to say that it is a "noticeable and most significant fact" that the "faction among the bondholders" who wanted the sale made pending the appeal refused to submit the matter to the Supreme Court on printed briefs under Rule 20, when it might have been decided in a few days, but insisted on oral arguments, thus tying up the appeal for two or three years. The explanation of this is that what Judge Dillon calls a "faction," and what is in reality all of the bondholders except the Sage party, knowing very well that there are no merits in the appeal (as will appear from what has gone before), do not care whether it is tied up for two years or not. The natural explanation of their conduct in not going to the Court on written briefs is that they wanted the benefit of an oral argument.

To sum up this whole matter of the appeal and *supersedeas* proceedings, the delay of two years was caused by the Court on the ground of objections made by bondholders, not originally parties of the record, representing a small amount of bonds, who had already consented to a final decree, and who brought forward no evidence that their rights were invaded by it.

In the May opinion of this year Judge Dillon states it as the opinion of the Supreme Court "that individual bondholders ought not to be allowed to become parties to the record in railway foreclosure cases, *unless upon strong and clear reasons, for good cause.*" This is, of course, good law, and we should have supposed that Judge Dillon would hardly have quoted it without bringing forward at the same time the strong, clear reasons and good cause which led him originally to admit the Sage party of bondholders to intervene.

But by far the gravest charges are connected with the appointment of the receiver, Mr. J. B. Grinnell, and the removal of Mr. Pickering. On this head the misstatements of the judge in his reply are numerous. He speaks of Mr. Pickering as "provisional receiver." The suggestion, of course, is that his receivership was intended to be temporary only. As a matter of fact the record shows that he was appointed permanent receiver January 7, 1875. He next says that charges of a serious nature were made against him, and "pressed at every term." He omits to say, however, that the record shows that the charges were all withdrawn, and the persons making them "urged his (Mr. Pickering's) continuance" in office on September 30, 1875. Three months *after the withdrawal of these charges* (January 18, 1876) he was suddenly removed and Grinnell appointed. Of course we cannot undertake to prove that Mr. Grinnell was, as is alleged, a grossly and notoriously unfit man for the place, or that Mr. Pickering was a fit man; but complaints were made against him. Judge Dillon says that they were not supported by affidavit, but they were as a matter of fact supported by the affidavit of Mr. Ashhurst, whom he elsewhere describes as "an able and respectable attorney of Philadelphia," and he declined to investigate them. The removal of Mr. Pickering, against whom no charges were made, and who was satisfactory to the vast majority of the bondholders, and who was complimented by the Court at the time of his removal, may be compared, for the purpose of getting at the *animus* of the Court, with its action when this same majority undertook to remove the trustee under a provision for summary ouster contained in its articles of incorporation. The Court held, in plain nullification of the provision in question, as the record shows, that the action of the bondholders was void. Judge Dillon finally says: "As to the charges against Grinnell, I never heard anything more of them, and supposed they were dropped." There is independent evidence to contradict this. Writing on March 19, 1877, Mr. Grant, counsel for the Trust Company in Iowa, says, on the subject of Grinnell's management, that

"The business has no head, no order or system, and is in general confusion; that Mr. Grinnell has undertaken to manage a business *of which he knows nothing*, and is governed by persons who influence him for their own benefit. That *he shall insist to the judges that they appoint* or allow the bondholders to appoint a competent manager; that he suggested that the majority would want Pickering, but the suggestion did not take. That he *had told Judge Dillon privately that he was afraid Grinnell's want of judgment would produce great mischief*, but that he did not think it advisable, under any circumstances, to openly assault the Court's appointee, and should feel justified in resorting to every expedient to save the property from loss."

Writing again, March 21, 1877, he repeats that

"There is no head, no order, no system—a perfect array of officials who do nothing, and have others under them, and a constant mismanagement from Mr. Grinnell's want of knowledge of the business; that the line of fence is badly built, because Grinnell furnished worn-out ties for posts; that iron was purchased by a man who knew nothing about it, and is poor and worthless."

And again, March 27, he says that

"Three prominent cases of most gross mismanagement are established beyond doubt. Mr. Grinnell's attempted qualification of the facts is contradicted by his books and clerks."

Again, May 12, that

"He thinks it essential to safety to get Grinnell out of the management."

Again, that

"Grinnell is a politician, and all things to all men, and knows nothing of railroad management."

It is proper to add that Mr. Grant is the most intimate professional friend of Judge Dillon in Iowa. That Mr. Hiram Price offered to buy the road at thirty-three cents on the dollar Judge Dillon does not deny, but thinks there was "no harm in it." And he adds that the trustee was directed by the decree to buy in the property for the whole amount of the first-mortgage debt, which greatly exceeded the value of the property. This is true, but would not be apt to qualify the surprise of the bondholders at receiving (after delays caused by the Court had depreciated the value of the property) an offer at a price fixed by this depreciation. It seems a pity, if there was no harm in Mr. Hiram Price's offer, that he does not come out and tell on whose behalf it was made.

Here we are obliged to leave this curious case for the present. It is evident that there appears to be reasonable ground for a searching investigation by some competent tribunal. Steps are to be taken, we understand, to secure this.

A GENERAL VIEW OF THE EUROPEAN CRISIS.

PARIS, July 26, 1877.

EUROPE is suffering now from the effects of a long crisis which has many causes. I was lately in Germany, and nowhere is this crisis felt more keenly than in the country which of late years has gained the greatest successes in the political field. Capital is everywhere unemployed,

and cannot find any remunerative rates of interest. We are suffering in Europe from the excess of useless capital ; more than two milliards of specie are in the vaults of the Bank of France. Production became overabundant after the war of 1870, and we are feeling now the effects of this over-production.

Is the present crisis only to be compared to those which have been noted before, or ought we to find in it something more ? Can it not be traced to political as well as to economical reasons ? Europe is now a great camp, and the compulsory system has converted the whole of our youth into an army. It may be said that in times of peace an army does not destroy any capital ; but it hinders capital from being created, and it may safely be asserted that at the present moment the amount of capital which is lost every year amounts to two milliards of francs, if we admit that there are two million of men in the ranks in Europe, and that each of these men is capable of creating a capital of a thousand francs in one year. Add to this the military expenses which may, and certainly do, have a great political utility, but which are unproductive in an economical point of view, such as the expenses of constructing forts, barracks, etc. If we make the addition of these expenses for France alone, we shall find four hundred millions for last year and two hundred millions for this year taken out of that elastic fund called the *liquidation* fund. Germany must run with us in the race of millions, and it is clear that she is becoming tired of this new sort of rivalry. We can fatigue Germany by our armaments more than we could probably hurt her by our arms.

The tremendous sacrifice which the new conditions of war impose on the nations can be justified in some instances. The loss of to-day may become the gain of to-morrow. It was Mirabeau who said as far back as 1789, speaking of Prussia, that war had become with her the national industry. Her monarchs had applied themselves to the creation of a potent instrument of war, and we know how this instrument became the means of conquering Silesia in the last century, and in our time of placing all Germany under the hegemony of Prussia : it would be idle to say to the Pomeranians or the Brandenburgers that the maintenance of a large army is a great loss of capital. If some nations can look upon war as a remunerative industry, as did ancient Rome, it is not so with the majority of nations. France has no conquests to make ; she is only regretting her ancient conquests, and her position has become purely defensive, notwithstanding all that may be said by interested parties about her projects and her anti-Italian or anti-German tendencies. Still, France has now an army which in war times may amount to almost two millions of men. The peace budget of the War Department is now as much as 500,000,000 francs, and we must add to this 126,000,000 spent upon the navy. Italy has accomplished her unity ; what more can she desire ?—the little valley of the Trentino, which enters her territory on the north like a wedge, but which can no longer be made the centre of any great military operation against her ? She is said to look with envy from the Sicilian shores on Tunis and its territory. But are the Trentino and Tunis worth any great sacrifices ? Italy spent, however, in 1876, for her army 189,000,000, and for her navy 37,000,000,

Austria has no conquests to make ; thus far she turns a deaf ear to those who tempt her with the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and seems to say, "Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes." Austria spent in 1876 277 millions for her army and navy. All the expenses of Italy and of Austria may be called unproductive ; the expenses of France have at present, if I may say so, a purely negative character, since France has no immediate or near object to attain. The same cannot be said of the two nations of Europe which in one sense may be called the youngest, those which tend more naturally to break the barriers opposed to them by nature and to make new conquests—I mean Northern Germany and Russia. Much has been said, and much will be said, about the rivalry of the Germans and the Slavs, and the inveterate and instinctive hatred which these two races feel for each other ; but these instincts are not different from those which you will find wherever you find two different races, and more powerful than these natural feelings are the natural affinities, I would almost say necessities, which tie historically Northern Germany and Russia. Both have been imprisoned in the parts of Europe least favored by nature ; both look with envy on the South, on the countries of the sun—on the rich lands of Canaan ; both have strong governments, which do not allow themselves to be ruled by vulgar or popular prejudices, which keep their traditions, which can conceal their plans, mature their projects. Since the time of the partition of Poland, the House of Hohenzollern and the Romanoffs have felt that they had a common cause. You can follow the thread of the same idea in the history of these two houses. Whenever Prussia is afraid of Russia, and wants to draw her nearer to herself, she has but to pronounce one word—Poland ! Whenever Russia sees herself abandoned by Prussia and threatened by the German forces, she has but to pronounce the word Austria ! Russia was, in 1870, the best ally of Northern Germany, and Bismarck has shown his great intelligence in not being ungrateful to Russia. He did not copy the policy of Austria. When this empire was saved by the Russian arms, at the time of the Hungarian rebellion, an Austrian statesman said, "Austria will astonish the world by her ingratitude." She did astonish the world not only by her ingratitude, but by the extent of the misfortunes which followed. As she had abandoned Russia at the time of the Crimean war, Russia abandoned her when she became the prey of Italy, of France, of Prussia ; Solferino and Sadowa taught her a lesson which was almost too severe.

Prince Bismarck is a thorough German, but he is not a German of the Metternichian school ; he is a Prussian German, and he knows what has been the value of the Russian alliance to his country. The book of Klaczko, 'Two Chancellors,' was written in order to show of what service Russia has been to Germany, and the Polish author hoped, by ridiculing Prince Gortchakoff and laughing at his insolence, to separate the two Chancellors from each other. He has not succeeded ; the German Chancellor has paid, and is still paying, his debts to the Russian Chancellor. Since the beginning of the Eastern difficulties, during the tedious discussions of the Conference at Constantinople, Russia was always supported by Germany, and she has slowly but surely advanced towards her end.

A great portion of the European press has long maintained that Germany was laying traps for Russia—that Prince Bismarck wished to embark his allies in some insoluble difficulties. For a long time nobody would even believe that war would take place. But now the Russians have crossed the Danube, they have crossed the Balkans, and their military operations are conducted with an extraordinary vigor. I advise all the detractors of Russia to read the official report of the Grand Duke on the crossing of the Danube ; they will see that the Russians have lost nothing as soldiers ; they are the sons of the men who gave their lives at Eylau. Their leaders have learnt the art of war from German professors ; the men are always the same—obedient, always ready to give their lives for the Czar and for the Christian faith. The present war in Turkey is a true crusade, and I for one should be very much surprised if the Russian army was not allowed to enter Constantinople. How great in history would be the Czar who had proclaimed emancipation, and who should again bring the cross into the Church of Saint Sophia !

I will note here a curious symptom of the time. Everybody must be convinced now that Germany and Russia are in close alliance ; nevertheless, the sympathies of the French are chiefly on the Russian side. There is only a small minority which sides with the Turks ; the nation, instinctively, is drawn towards the Russians. It obeys in this case a generous and chivalrous sentiment more than its self-interest, as it is obvious that if Russia succeeds in her enterprise she will have, in her turn, a heavy debt of gratitude to pay to Germany. Just as Bismarck is now keeping off the powers who meditate opposing the Russian plans, Russia might be afterwards employed to keep off the enemies of Germany. In fact, the alliance of the two youngest nations having the two largest territorial forces in Europe seems to be becoming the governing power of Europe. England, as well as the Latin races, will find herself controlled, overpowered, stifled by the pressure of the twin colossi of middle and northern Europe. The end of this century will witness, perhaps, scenes similar to those which were seen when the German races pressed against the frontiers of the Roman Empire. Nobody knows as yet exactly what limit Russia has assigned to herself in her present enterprise ; but war is such a costly speculation in our age that, even looking at it from a purely material point of view, she cannot be contented without some solid advantages. If we regard the moral commotion which has been excited in the Russian people, we must also conclude that great satisfactions must be given to this people by its government ; the revenge of the Crimean War must be complete, and the victory of the Christians against the Moslems must be definitive. I am no more inclined to believe in a sham campaign, in a military promenade, than I was inclined to believe in peace at the beginning of the Eastern difficulties. If my point of view is correct, Europe may still have to expect great complications. It will be difficult to drag England into the war ; she is not willing to *drift* again ; at the same time she is becoming more and more restless and uneasy ; her pride suffers, though she would like to conceal her sufferings. She hesitates between what is due to prudence and what she thinks due to her own position in the world. If, unfortunately, the combative element

which is always dormant in her should come uppermost; if England should take some of those resolutions which cannot be retraced, we may expect to have very soon afterwards the whole of Europe in a ferment. The doors of the temple of Janus would then have to be open for years. There is, therefore, nothing abnormal in the general uneasiness which is felt throughout the Old World, and the industrial crisis is only one of its signs.

Correspondence.

THE MAINE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The action of the recent Republican Convention in Maine is of sufficient interest, as a supposed indication of the sentiment of the party in New England, to warrant some explanation of the manner in which it was brought about, and some mention of the causes which led to it.

Mr. Blaine seems to be considered the "manager" of the Convention and the author of its policy; but, while it is true that his personal influence and remarkable popularity in the party undoubtedly had a considerable effect upon the delegates of his own immediate section; while it is true that he "manipulated" the Convention; introduced, through a faithful follower, the hostile resolution which gave him the opportunity to make his "pacificating" speech; and that he probably prepared the ingenious resolutions which have caused so much amusement—and indignation—among the large portion of the party friendly to the Administration; still his influence was not the only, and, indeed, not the most powerful, cause of the result.

The Republican party in Maine, though generally thoughtful and intelligent, is, perhaps more than in any other New England State, governed by the opinions of its representative men. It is easy to discover the sources of Mr. Blaine's popularity among his constituency, and to estimate the feeling of personal disappointment which his defeat at Cincinnati caused throughout his State. That defeat made him friends from those who had previously been hostile or lukewarm, and gave him a popular following such as he never had before. But the western part of the State, which Mr. Blaine is supposed to represent, as Mr. Hamlin the eastern, is *not* opposed to the Administration. The counties of Cumberland and York, which are the richest and most populous in the State, and which, being commercial and manufacturing, are less likely to be governed by impulse and prejudice than those mainly agricultural, are, if not warmly in favor of the Administration, at least desirous that its policy should have a fair and unopposed trial. It is possible (as has been asserted but not proved) that a majority of the delegates to the recent Convention were not of that belief; but the organization is still in the hands of "the machine," and those familiar with the operation of managing primary meetings in country villages will easily understand how little difficulty "the machine" would have in securing delegates to its liking.

In what is considered Mr. Hamlin's part of the State the condition of things was entirely different. There public sentiment is generally opposed to the Administration and bitterly hostile to its policy. The notorious Etna resolutions are no exaggerated indication of the feelings of the people of northeastern Maine. This state of affairs is due almost entirely to Mr. Hamlin's personal influence and efforts, increased, of course, by the advice and assistance of Mr. Blaine. It is inevitable that Mr. Hamlin should oppose the Administration, for it is governed by principles which he has been fighting throughout his political life. He rose to position through little other ability than that of an accomplished politician, and he has retained his place and power by the use of those political ways and means which it is the avowed purpose of the President to render impossible. Naturally, however, though civil-service reform is the most offensive feature of the Administration policy to Mr. Hamlin and his henchmen, they hardly dare to make *that* the foundation of their attack upon it. They sneer at it; they say it is all very well as a theory but impossible to practise, that it will do very well in Arcadia or when the millennium arrives; but their souls are roused with righteous indignation against the "Southern policy." "The infamous Southern policy" has been the text of the leading articles of pretty much all the newspapers in the northeastern part of the State for months; and these articles, which apparently sprung from a single source, have been so violent, so malignant, and so inflammatory, that, coupled with the private influence of Mr. Hamlin and his friends—a very great one—they have succeeded in arousing throughout that section a public feeling which was fairly indicated by the "Etna resolutions" and feebly by the action of the Convention. When a Republican Senator of the United States says publicly, as one is said to have done, "that he would not vote for the candidates of a convention which approved the infamous Southern policy of the President," it is not wonderful that the constituency which he manages so completely should reflect his opinions.

The real cause of the hostility to the Administration of both Senators from Maine and of all its Representatives, with perhaps a single exception, arises from the fact that the Administration policy in regard to the manipulating of politics by office-holders will deprive the party leaders of the material aid which has thus far enabled them to remain leaders. It is true, as one of Mr. Blaine's resolutions states, that the official record of Federal office-holders in Maine is, as far as regards actual malfeasance in office, perfectly clear. But it is also true that the entire management of the party organization has been in their hands, and used to their own advantage and for the advantage of the men who made them office-holders, without any particular regard for the interests of the public service. "Hence these tears."

Such are some of the causes which led to the action of the Convention. On the management of its deliberations, if that term can be applied to proceedings which hardly failed of being riotous, Mr. Blaine displayed his usual consummate ability, not to say sharpness. The chairman was a man of his own choice, and when it was discovered that the original programme of silence in regard to the Administration was to be broken by the introduction of a moderate resolution commendatory of the President, it was, as we have said before, a personal follower of Mr. Blaine who introduced the carefully-studied hostile resolution (which it is believed was inspired if not prepared by the Senator himself) that gave an opportunity for the "pacificatory" speech, and afforded an apparent justification for the action of the Convention.

While it would be untrue to say that a majority of the Republicans of Maine are opposed to the policy of the Administration, it is idle to disguise the fact that many of them are bitterly opposed to it. The feeling in its favor, however, is growing every day, and Mr. Blaine's influence with the better portion of the party is every day growing weaker. Republicans are becoming disgusted, not only with the political ideas which can only thrive upon the hotbed of violence and commotion, but with the means whereby such ideas are falsely made to appear the governing ideas of a great party. The coming election will not probably be affected by any dissatisfaction in the party, however great it may be. Governor Connor is not only an unexceptionable candidate, but he is popular, and deservedly so, among the men who feel most aggrieved at the action of the Convention. Besides, there is nothing to be hoped for from the Democrats of Maine. The action of their Convention will be taken before this can be printed; but there is no hazard in predicting that they will *not* do anything to take advantage of any possible dissatisfaction among Republicans, and *will* do everything that they can to strengthen Messrs. Hamlin and Blaine, and the other manipulators of the "machine."

M.

Portland, Me., August 14, 1877.

THE LABORING MAN AND THE CAPITALIST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discontent that led to the recent outbreak has not been removed by the dozen volleys and hundred proclamations fired at the rioters. It had its roots in actual suffering, and its cure is to be found rather in diminishing the causes of discomfort among the poor than in increasing the national police. It is easy to say that the poor are their own worst enemies. This is only half true. The wage-getters have not lowered their expenses in proportion to the fall in wages. They are in many ways recklessly extravagant. But a low standard of subsistence among laborers is a recognized economic evil. A desire on their part for better houses, better clothing, better food, more leisure, is in itself a good thing, and they are little or not at all responsible for many of the causes of their present suffering in the United States—such as the lack of proper municipal regulations for sewers, light, air, and water; the insufficiency of school accommodations; the non-existence of compulsory education; the needlessly high prices of the necessaries of life, due to the tariff and the currency; and the general control of legislation in this country by capital.

This last is a deadly evil, for it makes the state—the agent and the representative of the social organism—the apparent enemy of the laboring man. He has his tiny fortune swept from him by the failure of savings-banks while the thieves go unpunished, and he knows that post-office

savings-banks have been proved practicable and cannot fail. If the slow robbery of savings-banks were as injurious to capital comparatively as it is to labor, how long would it be before every safeguard the law could bring to bear would be thrown about such institutions? The laborer sees that legal redress for wrong is a costly luxury beyond his reach, and he knows, or ought to know, that the *Conseils des Prudhommes* of France, the Courts of Conciliation of Denmark, and the semi-legal Boards of Arbitration of England have put justice in those countries, at least in certain things, within the reach of his foreign fellows. He finds it almost impossible to invest safely his scanty savings, and he sees France offering her bonds directly to the people while the United States refuses to do so, save in a cumbersome method and in too high denominations. In view of recent insurance and railroad revelations it is not too bold a thing to say that the workingman sees certain forms of theft either legalized or made safe for the capitalist. When "property" and "robbery" are thus brought into juxtaposition it is not unnatural that he should sometimes follow Proudhon in thinking them to be interconvertible terms.

Dishonesty by capitalists, allowed or at any rate unpunished by law, has borne with especial weight upon the railroad employee. If dividends must be paid upon watered stock; if interest must be paid on the large portion of the cost of road-bed, rolling-stock, repairs, and running expenses due to a protective tariff; if fast-freight lines and palace-cars, in which the officers of a railway are part owners, are allowed to absorb a considerable percentage of the rightful income of the road; if the mad ambition to be a "railway king" fastens leeches along every trunk-line in the shape of unproductive branches; then, in all these cases, the fund for the payment of wages is necessarily and greatly diminished. We do not have to go far from Chicago to find a road which not long since issued stock that trustees eagerly bought and which then paid living wages. Now that the main line is loaded with costly mementos of the late management, such as leased and branch roads, it cannot afford to pay the men who work upon it their fair share of what it earns. Is it worth while to keep sacred the contracts which A., B., and C., as managers of the main line, made with themselves as owners of the side-tracks, when the price of their sacredness is the creation of a proletariat and the steady manufacture of mob-material?

The intelligent Malthusian and the sentimentalist shrieker against the humane and rational teachings of Malthus, may both well shrink from the fact that to-day, in the United States, the workingman who marries makes a fool of himself. The ruling rate of wages taboos the family. The American artisan is offered his choice between celibacy and want.

If we would prevent or even postpone a worse outbreak in the near future, we must consider these things. Without going too far in the dangerous path of socialism, I may venture the assertion that legislation and public opinion, acting together, can and should materially better the condition of the laboring classes by the enforcement of proper sanitary regulations; by the provision of proper facilities for education, and the enforcement of their use; by the resumption of specie payments; by holding savings-bank trustees and all corporation managers to a rigid accountability, and subjecting their acts to a strict supervision; by selling United States bonds, in denominations of $20, at every national bank; by simplifying and quickening the administration of justice; and by forbidding henceforth and for ever the robbery of the many by the few, which is legalized and upheld by a protective tariff.

ALFRED B. MASON.

CHICAGO, August 6, 1877.

[There is a great deal of truth in the foregoing, and every word of it is worthy of consideration. It is on matters such as Mr. Mason brings up that the late Presidential canvass ought to have run, and it is to such matters that we, as far as we could, tried to call the attention of the orators last summer, as the best mode of preparing the public for intelligent legislative action on them. Instead of this the campaign was passed in a wild and wicked crusade against the South, as a part of a deliberate attempt by notorious political jobbers to divert attention from their own misdeeds and hiding-places. The result is that the winter and spring have been again filled with scandalous revelations, which find the community surprised, helpless, and bewildered. But Mr. Mason's facts do not bear out all his conclusions. It is not true, for instance, that this country is governed by capital. Capital often gains its ends, but only by legitimate means. As illustrations of its feebleness, we need only cite its inability to procure a repeal of the usury laws or to lighten the burden of bank taxation in this State. Moreover, the mismanagement of railroad and insurance companies is proof not of the power and wickedness of capital, but simply of the existence of rascals among capitalists. Mr. Mason's error lies in using the term capitalist to mean rich men. It means in America and everywhere else every man who has saved any amount from his yearly expenses, and uses it, or lends it to be used, in the work of production. Life-insurers and railroad stock and bondholders, however small the amount of their premium or investments, are capitalists, and no classes have suffered so much from the frauds and mismanagement of the last ten years. In the break-down of the savings-banks the workingman suffers in just the same way, and from the same causes, as the railroad stockholder; and the state in letting the savings-banks break down is no more his enemy than the enemy of the farmers or lawyers. In what he says on this point our correspondent, with all respect be it said, is guilty of cant, and we have had enough cant about "the laboring man," and more than is good for him. He is suffering as regards the security of his savings, as we are all suffering in one way or another, from the want of intelligent legislation, and honest and efficient administration; and capitalists (*i.e.*, the saving, frugal class, who live within their means) suffer far more from it than "the laboring man" who spends every cent he earns. Of course a high standard of subsistence on the part of the laboring class is a great good, but only if accompanied by a high intelligence and morality. In that one case it makes the laborer careful, energetic, industrious, and eager to excel in his calling. If, however, his morality and intelligence do not keep pace with his standard of living, "the desire for better clothing, better food, and more leisure" either converts him into a cantankerous trade-unionist, enforcing rules for the suppression of merit and the exaltation of laziness and incapacity, or else a Molly Maguire, carrying out his social theories through blood and fire, and fit only to be knocked on the head.

Mr. Mason, too, overlooks the fundamental fact that the laboring man in America counts, as a voter, as the equal of every other man, and that no provision can be or is likely to be made for his wants without his own initiative or support. There are no arrangements here for taking charge of him as a minor, and there is no accepted theory under which we can do so. How much weight he has as a voter, even in the low estate of an incendiary and robber and obstructor of the public highways, is well illustrated by the shameless platform of the Ohio Republicans; and the condition of municipal government in several of the large cities is the direct result of his exercise of a power which nobody would dare to deny him. This being the case, we see no way of making an exception of him which can stop short of giving the country into his hands, and letting him convert it into a huge national workshop. If we do not do this, he must take his chance with the rest of us, contribute his share to the rational exposure of abuses and the suggestion of rational remedies, and suffer with the rest of the world, as best he may, the consequences of hard times, including celibacy. As a railroad employee, he suffers no more from the misdeeds of capitalists than clerks or mill-hands. As such he forms a member of a large and conspicuous class, but this hardly justifies his blocking traffic on the national highways.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS announce the following timely works: 'How Shall the Nation Regain Prosperity?' by David A. Wells; 'Money and Legal Tender in the United States,' by H. R. Lindemann, Director of the United States Mint; 'Economics; or, the Science of Wealth,' a manual for the use of higher classes; 'Labor and Capital,' by John B. Jervis; and a new popular edition of Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations.' ——Harper & Bros. will shortly publish 'Caricature and Other Comic Art in All Times and Many Lands,' by James Parton, with upwards of 200 illustrations; 'Contemporary Art in Europe,' by S. G. W. Benjamin; 'The Book of Gold, and Other Poems,' by J. T. Trowbridge; and 'The

Origin of the World, according to Revelation and Science,' by J. W. Dawson.——The 'Official Reports of the International Board of Judges, Centennial Exhibition,' edited by Francis A. Walker, will be published by J. B. Lippincott & Co.——Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger have in press 'Scenes and Incidents in the Peninsula Campaign.'——Macmillan & Co. announce 'Travels in Turkey and Greece,' by Hon. Dudley Campbell. ——The Virginia College of William and Mary is reduced to such pecuniary straits that it is questionable whether the venerable institution will not have to be closed for ever. We believe it is now as a last resort making an appeal to Northern liberality, on which it has at least the claim that its main building was wantonly burnt by Northern troops during the war, and that Congress five years ago refused to indemnify it. It might perhaps be better for the State if the University of Virginia were without rivals; but one could not witness without regret the downfall of William and Mary, not only because of its historical associations (it is our second oldest college), but because at this juncture, when the State is demoralized on the subject of its credit, the extinguishing of the humblest focus of morals and discipline is a melancholy spectacle.——The Atlanta University, for the education of the blacks, is maintained by the State of Georgia, and a very satisfactory report upon it has just been made by a committee of the General Assembly. They found the "mental training" as exhibited in the examinations "very satisfactory," and declare that "these pupils will *certainly* exert a tremendous influence on their race." The hope is expressed that the graduates may be encouraged by municipal authorities to "engage in teaching their race, and in helping to make them good citizens." Their teachers (from the North) are advised not to "alienate them from their old masters and homes and from their native State," by the careless use of sectional text-books, etc.——The August number of the *Geographical Magazine* (Trübner & Co.) is of unusual interest to the general reader. Two letters on the Livingstonia mission settlement on Lake Nyassa give very encouraging accounts of this Free-Church experiment, and are illustrated by a large-scale map of the lake. An official report of Don F. P. Moreno's exploration of the River Santa Cruz to its sources supplements Captain Fitz Roy's discoveries in 1834. Besides these, there are valuable articles on affairs in Japan, the last great earthquake in Peru, the india-rubber-trees of Brazil, in defence of the British Arctic expedition, etc.——'Two Years of the Eastern Question' is the title of a work just put forth by Mr. Gallenga, the able Italian correspondent of the London *Times*, who goes by that name in literature.—— It is announced that we may soon look for Professor Seeley's 'Life of Stein.'

—The discussion as to the claims put forward by General Grant, or by his principal adviser, in regard to his proper place in the social order of England, has heretofore chiefly turned upon the value in such a scale of his late title of President of the United States. There is no doubt that the attempt was made, and with all but complete success, to assimilate his elective dignity with that of an hereditary ruler, and to secure for him from the "ex-sovereign" point of view a treatment which no real ex-sovereign would be allowed or would expect to receive. In the Editor's Easy Chair of the September *Harper* the ground is shifted. So far from acknowledging the extraordinary courtesy with which on so many occasions the required precedence was accorded to a private citizen, the Editor is "bewildered" to learn that at the Prince of Wales's reception General Grant "brought up the rear of the procession to the dining-room," and he straightway convicts the Prince of extreme discourtesy, adding that rather than endure such a slight "General Grant should quietly have left the house." His reason is not that Grant was an ex-sovereign but that he was the guest in whose honor the entertainment was given; and that inasmuch as "the rules of really good society, whether titled or untitled, are everywhere the same in regard to certain essential points," "the rigidity of ceremonial forms" should in this instance have been relaxed. It is, however, only by example that we learn what are deemed "essential points" by good society among the titled; and when we find the leader of that society putting his untitled guest at the end of the procession, though having the strongest inducements to put him at the head, it is but reasonable to conclude that he is observing the rules instead of violating them, as Mr. Curtis alleges. The alternative is that the Prince of Wales's society is not "really good society," which would be begging the question. Whether the good society in which such things can happen is not inferior to other good society in which they cannot, is a separate question; and the democratic view of it being well known, Mr. Curtis had no need to enforce it upon his readers. He misleads them, it seems to us, by assuming that American opinion on this subject enables us to decide what is or what is not in accordance with the rules of English etiquette, and to judge of their agreement in essential points with the rules of good society the world over.

—Any one who has suffered from or attempted to study the taxation laws of some States—Massachusetts, for instance—knows what a great clog they are upon the transactions of much necessary business and the associated movements of capital. To a review of some of the worst of these laws, and an exposition of their absurdity from the point of view of economic science, Mr. David A. Wells devotes an article, "Are Titles and Debts Property?" in the September *Atlantic*. His text is a legal case which may be briefly outlined thus: Mr. Kirtland, a citizen of Woodbury, Connecticut, loans money on a mortgage of real estate in Chicago, this real estate, of course, being taxed in the State of Illinois. The tax-collector of Woodbury, however, assesses Mr. Kirtland on the amount of this mortgage. Payment of this tax being refused, and the delinquent's property in Woodbury being attached and advertised for sale, the matter comes before the courts on a petition for injunction, and the case, having been decided against Mr. Kirtland by the Connecticut courts, has been carried up to the Supreme Court of the United States, where it now awaits decision. In discussing the questions of interest involved in this case Mr. Wells considers thoroughly what is property, what are titles to property, the relation of debts to property, etc., and throws abundant light upon the injurious relations held by some States toward others in consequence of present systems of taxation. We cannot reproduce the main arguments here and should be sorry to injure their effect by abbreviation, but we earnestly advise legislators and taxpayers to read the article with care. The policy of taxing a man for debts owing to him, or of taxing the same piece of property several times over, as is now done in Massachusetts and elsewhere, is a blundering and suicidal one, which can be defended only by those who have never learned to distinguish between actual property, on the one hand, and titles and debts, on the other.

—Mr. Robert P. Porter's article on "The Municipal Debt of the United States" in the September *Galaxy* will be valuable for future reference if, as would appear, his figures are worthy of confidence. He furnishes a "table showing the debt, valuation, taxation, and population of one hundred and thirty cities of the United States for the years 1866 and 1876 respectively." The cities have been selected "so far as possible to represent the entire country"; and show for the ten years an increase of debt amounting to about 200 per cent.; an increase of annual taxation, about 83 per cent.; an increase of valuation, about 75 per cent.; and an increase of population of 33 per cent. For several important deductions from the table we refer to the article itself. The author suggests no remedy for the present recklessness in municipal management, and consequent alarming increase of indebtedness, less radical than that contained in the report of the New York Municipal Commission, which he recommends to the consideration of thoughtful minds. Mr. Grant White begins in the same number a series of articles on "Americanisms," taking his illustrations chiefly from Bartlett's Dictionary; Mr. Henry James, jr., tells of "Three Excursions"—to Epsom on the Derby day, to Hatfield House, and to Oxford at Commemoration; and Mr. Isaac Newton answers the question "Has the Day of Great Navies Passed?" in the affirmative, because of the efficiency of the torpedo.

—The awful feature of the present political situation was held up to us in one of Mr. Blaine's resolutions at Augusta, on August 9, in the following terms: "The Republicans of Maine view with solicitude and alarm the complete consolidation of all political power in the sixteen Southern States in the hands of those who precipitated the rebellion." This had been long foreseen, however, as well as the fact that nothing could prevent such a consolidation except an indefinite prolongation of the war. Thus, in October, 1864, Mr. Wendell Phillips made a speech in Boston in opposition to President Lincoln's re-election. Denouncing him for the proclamation of December 8, 1863, he said:

"Make peace on the basis of that amnesty proclamation, and you increase the evil a thousand-fold. These men, the moment that our army returns, will wield those States against us, and, while they crush the negro at home, will send to Washington the same conspirators to cripple the Union that they did before 1860. *No theory of State government can deny their full right to do so.* Slavery out of the question, I should myself defend their clear right so to use their power."

Reconstruction was in fact immediately begun on the basis laid down in that proclamation; and constituencies composed of at least one-tenth of the number of voters at the Presidential election of 1860 were recog-

nized in each State as the true government, and protected by the Federal forces, in accordance with the Constitutional guaranty of the "republican form," against invasion and domestic violence. Mr. Phillips saw in this procedure, however, not a sincere attempt to resuscitate the lapsed civil order, but a selfish design to secure Mr. Lincoln's own re-election. In the course of the speech from which we have already quoted he said :

"The President manipulates into existence sham military boards in Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana, baptizes them State governments, and it is asserted by a leading Republican Senator that they are to be and ought to be permitted to vote in the Presidential election. . . . If Mr. Lincoln should use such votes and be elected by them, no citizen would be bound to submit to his election ; every lover of constitutional liberty would be bound to resist it in the best way he could."

It is well known that the electoral votes of those States were not counted by Congress, and that Mr. Lincoln gave due notice before the election that he should not interfere with the exclusive powers of that body in the premises. Nevertheless, Mr. Phillips's supposed case is interesting from its analogy to the actual occurrences of the last election, where we had sham canvassing boards in place of sham military boards, "manipulated into existence" not by the President but by the party, for the perpetuation of its power, and which did elect the Republican candidate. But the Radicals were no longer heard exclaiming that "no citizen would be bound to submit to [Mr. Hayes's] election"; and that "every lover of constitutional liberty" had a duty to perform in resisting it.

—The services of the Seventh Regiment to this city and to the country are too well known to need recalling here. The regiment began last year to build a new armory for itself, having a fund of $80,000, three-fourths of which was subscribed by its active and past members. This fund is now in urgent need of increase, and the building committee appeals to the business men of New York to help raise the sum of $200,000 without adding to the debt or taxation of the city. The Committee naturally make use of the late unhappy disorders, which our New York and Brooklyn soldiery had so honorable a part in suppressing, as a powerful argument in favor of this appeal. We hope it will not go unheeded by our moneyed men, and by all who realize the importance of *preventing* mob violence, as every year makes more precious and irreplaceable the accumulations of art, science, and literature in all the great cities of the world. A national police will be useful when we get it, but meantime it is our plain duty to cherish the admirable organizations which we already have for home defence. Subscriptions to the Seventh Regiment New Armory Fund may be sent to the trustees of it, Messrs. Robert Lenox Kennedy, Royal Phelps, and W. W. Astor, or to R. M. Weed, Regimental Treasurer, 184 Front Street.

—We have received from Mr. Christern the first three parts of the Supplement to Littré's monumental 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Française.' The last volume of the main work contained fifty pages of "Additions and Corrections." These have all been embodied in the present Supplement, which embraces still further rectifications, terms of art, science, and agriculture, neologisms, provincialisms, etc., etc. In his chatty preface M. Littré expatiates on each of these classes. He has obtained for many words proof of greater age than is allowed in the Dictionary: thus, *gaieté* is now traced beyond the sixteenth century, and *hospitalité*, which had no genealogy before, has acquired a very respectable one. All words were at some time neologisms, and M. Littré has learned that so indispensable a word as *analogie* was apologetically introduced by Henri Etienne (1460–1521). Among foreign words that have not held their own he points out *goudale* (English "good ale"), used by thirteenth-century writers, now retained only in the derivative *godailler*. Of provincialisms he says that they often complete a derivative series, often rest upon authentic archaisms, and, being "mots d'excellente frappe," offset the tendency to reckless innovations. M. Littré has profited by the recent scientific discussions of the origin of words and by the liberal contributions of friends. He makes a merited acknowledgment of the services of his assistants, MM. Beaujean, Jullien, Baudry, and André. The work will be completed in twelve parts, uniform in all respects with the Dictionary.

—A Supplement like this is almost fit for continuous reading—fully as much so, we think, as 'Men of the Time,' with which from one point of view it might be compared. Thus, among the new words one is rather surprised to find such old (English) acquaintances as *climactère* and *cleptomanie;* but greets as a matter of course *Darwinien, Darwinisme,* and *Darwiniste.* The French word-maker, if allowed full swing, will presently rival the German capacity for polysyllables : thus, a police ordinance of June 14, 1873, coins *désapprovisionnement,* and almost as many letters are employed in *chirographairement, déchristianisation,* and *désharmonieusement.* A new use of *décolletage* is noted, with an example from *Figaro*—"le corsage échancré en pointe selon le décolletage dit *à l'américaine*"—and another from the *Temps* of Jan. 10, 1877, p. 2, col. 5, as we are told with great preciseness. *Doctoresse* has acquired a new signification, as not merely a woman who practises, but one who has received the doctorate in medicine, *e.g.:* "Sur la demande d'une dame médecin, Mme. la doctoresse Anderson" (*Journal Officiel,* Dec. 23, 1871, p. 5205, col. 3). In these last two instances the Supplement gives us contemporary history. Under the very first word, *à,* we have an interesting example of a popular and archaic use of this preposition in a possessive sense : "Joinville disait comme nos paysans: La comtesse Marie qui fut sœur au roi de France"—just as we say, "sister *to* the king." Under *Chat* we get two nice idioms : "Fait comme les quatre chats," *i.e.,* with dress all disordered ; and "Il n'y avait que le chat," there were no witnesses. Proceeding to the proverb, "il ne faut pas éveiller le chat qui dort," Littré remarks that an example of this occurs in the fifteenth century, but in the thirteenth century they said, "le *chien* qui dort." He thinks the substitution of cat for dog the result of a misapprehension, since it is the watch-dog who must not be aroused. We should have supposed that the proverb referred to the ferocity shown by the cat tribe on being suddenly disturbed while sleeping. Under *Czar* we are told that in French the word is spelled in four ways, *czar, csar, tzar, tsar*—the first two forms as if from Cæsar, an etymological blunder which Voltaire exposes in his 'Charles XII.,' although he uses the forms *czar* and *czarafis.* Time was, before Peter the Great, when "czarevitch," or son of the tzar (king), was a proper enough form ; but he is now called, as son of the emperor, "tzezarevitch," *i.e.,* the son of Cæsar.

THREE NOVELS.*

NOT many of Anthony Trollope's readers can recall the rage excited more than fifty years ago in America by his mother's coarse and flippant satire on our national manners, not only in her book of travels but in her forgotten novel of 'Jonathan Jefferson Whitelaw.' Mrs. Trollope regretted these tirades seriously before she died, if we may judge by her kindness to our countrymen at her home in Florence. Her son has in more than one book done his best to make Americans believe, what no one who talks with him ten minutes can doubt, that he is their very good friend. In the true spirit of diplomatic intercourse, even after laying himself out to make fun of us in a novel, he couples the jokes with an assurance of his most distinguished consideration. For instance, 'He Knew He was Right,' a story in parts not merely painful but disgusting, was relieved by the character of an American young lady with whom an English nobleman falls in love. She comes either from Illinois or Providence or Boston—Mr. Trollope does not leave it quite clear which. Her father or uncle—there is a like vagueness here—the United States Minister at Florence, is given to haranguing Europeans rather at length, and her bosom friend, Miss Wallachia Petrie, is a trying type of the advocate for the elevation of her sex. Miss Caroline herself is well enough, and amply consoles Lord Peterborough for the loss of the heroine. Mr. Trollope has worked very hard to make her interesting and her surroundings amusing, without raising a laugh at anything that is not fair game.

And yet she is not likely to satisfy Americans ; and for the same reasons that will make the 'American Senator' unsatisfactory. The Hon. Elias Gotobed, Senator of the United States from the State of Mikewa, has made the acquaintance in Washington of John Morton, one of the heroes of the novel, a rising young diplomatist. On his return to England the Senator accompanies him to study English institutions, and digest his information into a lecture, to be delivered first in London and ultimately in America. The part he plays in the plot is not very important, and the author confesses at the end that the book might as well have been called by some other name. But the senator's part is the most elaborately written, and, fair or unfair in its satire, the pleasantest to read. The rest is chiefly a couple of matrimonial affairs, one with and one without heart, not unamusing, but very conventional, and in parts disagreeable, not to say repulsive. The style of these chapters strongly confirms the hint which has reached us from England, that Mr. Trollope is beginning to "let out" portions of his novels to less renowned assistants.

* 'The American Senator : A Novel. By Anthony Trollope.' New York : Harpers. 1877.
'Samuel Brohl et Cie. Par Victor Cherbuliez.' New York : F. W. Christern.
'Samuel Brohl and Company. Translated from the French of M. Victor Cherbuli New York : D. Appleton & Co.
'Coronation : A Story of Forest and Sea. By E. P. Tenney.' Boston : Noyes, & Co.

Mr. Gotobed tries hard by enquiry and personal inspection to understand English institutions ; and fails. He collects facts painfully, and draws wrong conclusions ; when Englishmen do so in America, we call it English stupidity. He criticises England in a trenchant manner, with no want of truth, but great want of regard for English feeling ; when Englishmen do this in America, we call it English rudeness. He finds English amusements dull and English systems partial, and refuses to admit that their satisfying the people is any argument in their favor. We call a similar trait insular arrogance. He cannot resist the charm of delicacy and softness in English country-houses, but looks on it as a kind of degenerate luxury, fit only for the slaves of tyranny, and unworthy of the armies of progress. We call the like tone in Englishmen towards what we have of comfort and geniality patronizing superciliousness and conceit. He ends by delivering a lecture, consisting chiefly of facts unfortunately put, whereby he succeeds in annoying a well-disposed audience, so that when a riotous crowd threatens to break in no one is anxious to secure him a full hearing, and he is got out as best he may be. Mr. Trollope knows best if this is the fate of American lecturers in England ; it is not that of English lecturers here.

But Mr. Gotobed is most unfortunate in connection with fox-hunting. The author has already taken up the cudgels in defence of this national sport against the historian Freeman ; and a large part of this novel is devoted to its exaltation—not without a very fair exhibition of some of its absurdities. A fox is found dead, and the vulpicide—greatest of English rural crimes—is brought home to a worthless character named Goarly, whom everybody in the localities of the novel has always loathed and now hates as he would an advanced thinker. The Senator, despising fox-hunting, and convinced that in England the heel of the proud is on the neck of the lowly, spends his time and his money to get Goarly fair play, gets thoroughly cheated, annoys everybody by meddling, wears out an originally warm welcome, and somehow has to confess that though by American political philosophy he ought to be all right, by English practical sense he is all wrong.

Opening the novel absolutely at random, we light on this specimen of the Senator's talk :

"That's what provokes me," said the Senator. "You think he's a rascal, mister ?"

"I do."

"And because you take upon yourself to think so, you'd send him to Rufford Jail ! There was one gentleman somewhere about here told me he ought to be hung ; and because I would not agree with him he got up and walked away from me at table, carrying his provisions with him. The clergyman in Dillsborough and the hotel-keepers were just as hard upon me. But you see, mister, what we want to find out is whether Goarly or the lord has the right of it in this particular case."

Quite too like an American, Lord Herbert, is it not ? Only, Lady Edith, it isn't.

'Samuel Brohl and Company' relates the adventures of one Abel Larinski, a Polish count ; Samuel Brohl, a German Jew ; and Mlle. Antoinette Moriaz, a very charming French girl. The plot turns on a sufficiently probable personation of the count (who is really dead) by the living Jew, of his complete deception of the charming heroine, and the final terrible *éclaircissement*, when she discovers her mistake and the real character of the shameless Brohl is revealed. There is, of course, another lover, an honest boy, between whom and the heroine the family and friends are anxious to see a match, but for whom she feels no more than a sisterly attachment, until in the end he succeeds in arousing a deeper interest through his gallant behavior in a duel with Brohl. All the characters are drawn with Cherbuliez's usual delicacy of touch. An adventurer who personates some one else is no very new type in the fiction of any country, but Samuel Brohl is an adventurer *sui generis*. An ordinary novelist would probably have either resorted to the stale device of keeping back the secret of the identity of the Jew scamp with the person who is in possession of the family documents of the late count, to the end of the book, or, if he had chosen to take the reader into his confidence, would have exaggerated the success of the deception. Cherbuliez does neither. The false Larinski, consummate actor as he is, thoroughly deceives no one, any more than he would in real life, except the poor girl, who, more used to the ways of romance than to those of the world, comes so near being his victim. Her father suspects him ; her aunt feels confident that something is wrong, and her lover feels sure of it. They make all the enquiries that persons in their position would naturally make, and are only foiled by the accidental, or rather felonious, possession by the false count of convincing proofs of his assumed identity.

Cherbuliez's young women are always charming, especially so, probably, to English and American readers because they are more like English or American than French girls. It is the fashion of the present day to regard all national or local prejudices as marks of philistinism, but the preference expressed in the old song for the "girls about home," though felt the world over from Borriobhoola-Gha to Far Cathay, is nowhere so well justified (we say it at the risk of forfeiting our reputation for cosmopolitanism) by the facts as it is in America and England. Cherbuliez's young woman continually suggests a half-English or American parentage, and may in truth be called a sort of foreign idealization of an Anglo-Saxon "girl."

Comparing 'Samuel Brohl & Company' with Cherbuliez's other books, we find almost the only common trait to be their cleverness. They are all as different from one another as it is possible for novels to be. In the 'Comte Kostia' we have parental tyranny, true love, and adventure ; in 'Joseph Noirel' we have love and crime ; in 'Samuel Brohl' we have love and crime of a very different sort ; in all we have characters of the most widely opposed types, all equally well done ; in all we are haunted by a faint suspicion that there is a little too much cleverness for complete success. Such a suspicion is, of course, another piece of philistinism. Art exists for the sake of art, and novels are written not to convert the heathen, or to point a moral, but simply to tell a story. Such, at least, is the cosmopolitan view, which looks down with contempt on the narrow notion that all forms of art attain a higher level if they contain an ethical purpose—a delusion which it is only fair to say in passing led in a great measure to the production of almost all the novels of Dickens, and most of those of Thackeray. If Cherbuliez had an ethical aim in his novels it would be difficult to guess what it might be. But he has none ; he is a clever producer of stories, written, to speak musically, in almost every key, but he is, nevertheless, rather more of a moralist than most French writers of fiction, only incidentally so.

The scene of 'Samuel Brohl' is in Switzerland and France, and the time modern, as may be inferred from the closing paragraphs, which show that the author manages to keep "posted" as to what is going on on this side of the Atlantic among the gentry who ply the dangerous trade of the false Abel Larinski :

"We have failed to learn what Samuel Brohl is doing in America. In waiting for something better, has he become an humble teacher ? Has he attempted a new matrimonial enterprise ? Has he become a reporter of the New York *Herald*, or a politician in one of the Northern States, or a carpet-bagger in South Carolina ? Does he dream of being some day President of the glorious republic with the starry banner ?

"Up to the present time, no American journal has devoted the shortest paragraph to him. Adventurers are beings who constantly vanish and reappear ; they belong to the family of divers ; but after many plunges they always end by some catastrophe. The wave supports the drowning man an instant, then bears him away and drags him down to the depths of the briny abyss ; there is heard a splash, a ripple, a hoarse cry, followed by a smothered groan, and Samuel Brohl is no more ! For some days the question is agitated whether his real name was Brohl, Kicks, or Larinski ; soon something else is talked about, and his memory becomes a prey to eternal silence."

The title of 'Coronation' comes under Sir Walter Scott's rule, inasmuch as it gives no clue whatever to its contents. The word is used only on the last page, and then in the sense of fulfilment or completion. The book might rather be called 'Walks and Talks' than a story of any kind, the plot being little less than comic in the reiterated employment of that well-worn character, the English detective, who three times scours the Continent in search of the same person, and yet in his emotional and devotional turn reminds us of him who was "no waiter, but a Knight Templar."

'Coronation' describes the rise and progress of two young men whose intimacy began literally in the cradle, and who roamed the woods and shore of Cape Anne (as Mr. Tenney desires it to be called) in storm and shine, by day and night, talking together and meditating or praying apart, from childhood until the story ends. There is a strongly religious atmosphere in the book, and the tales of spiritual wrestlings and strivings are interwoven with descriptions of the woods and the ocean vivid as the visions that rise before the young enthusiasts. The two are learned in woodcraft, and find food wherever they need it, luring trout out of the brook with a string carried in the pocket, boiling eggs in a birch-bark kettle, brewing tea from spruce tips, and having altogether about them a delightful flavor of the woods. Though the speakers are apparently Calvinists, there is no cropping out of doctrine in the book ; to nourish and build up the inward life and to help his fellow-creatures to the best things are the aims for which the hero (?), Cephas, toils, and though outwardly his efforts meet only failure, the tone of the book recalls the say-

ing that "success is not in the event." Wholesome, hopeful, and faithful the book is, showing an individuality in the author a little like some of the wild fruits on which his wanderers feed. We recommend 'Coronation' to the enforced dwellers in cities. They can skip the descriptions, and will feel while they read as if they too went

"Plod-plod along the featureless sand,"

and caught the blowing surf on their face.

ALGER'S 'LIFE OF FORREST.'*

CARLYLE has said that a well-written life is as rare as a well-spent one. The life of Edwin Forrest was not spent nor has it been written so as to command unqualified approval. The book before us is not a model biography; it is elaborate, painstaking, exact, in general just and pleasantly free from fulsome eulogy of its subject; but it is also diffuse, prolix, lacking in proper chronological proportion, full of repetitions, and crammed with impertinent digressions. Above all, it is too long. The life of Forrest was well worth writing, and worth writing well, but his career did not call for upwards of eight hundred octavo pages, and in point of fact half of these pages are superfluous. Chapter after chapter is cumbered with wholly extraneous matter—the "psychological origin, variety, and personal uses of the dramatic art," the "historic evolution and social uses of the dramatic art," and the "hostility of the church and the theatre."

Although the bulk of the book will deter many readers, the biography is one with which all dramatic critics and students of the stage must needs be familiar. It will do much for the memory of Forrest. It will no longer be possible for any one to think of the actor as a burly ruffian whose legs and lungs were more powerful than his brain. Mr. Alger shows him to us as a lover of his art, a student of Shakspere, a man with a tender heart and an open purse. At the age of twenty-one he was able to command a salary of two hundred dollars a night. Ignorant, conceited, and successful, he educated himself; he worked hard at his profession; he travelled and studied; he neglected no opportunity of self-improvement. As an actor, he aimed at the best; his execution, always direct, became at last more and more refined; the boy at nineteen had dared to play *King Lear;* at sixty there was but little lacking in the awful picture the man then presented of that majestic ruin. Side by side with his good points his biographer shows the bad—his pride, his prejudice, his profanity, his brooking of no contradiction, his brooding over an insult or an injury. In his career there was something characteristically American, and even in the man himself Mr. Alger sees something typical of his nationality: "If occasionally in some things he practised the American vice—self-will, unconscious bigotry entrenched in a shedding conceit—he prevailingly exemplified the American virtue: tolerance, frankness, generosity." Mr. Alger also finds him "American in his exaggerated dislike and contempt for the aristocratic classes and monarchical usages of the Old World." This feeling, now passing away from amongst us, if indeed it has existed at all since the war, was in part the cause of the most melancholy event in Forrest's career—the quarrel with Macready and the resulting riot and bloodshed. With the diary of Macready and this official biography before us, it is possible to consider anew the whole affair.

Macready and Forrest had been friends during the early visits of each to the country of the other. The English actor welcomed the American to London, and when he in turn became a traveller he put up at Forrest's house in this city. In 1844 Macready left America, disappointed with his audiences, although he had made money. A few months later Forrest again visited England. By most of the papers, including the *Times* and the *Athenæum*, he was praised, but in one weekly paper, edited by a firm friend of Macready, Forrest was treated with marked contempt and insult. One night Forrest was hissed under such circumstances as to leave no doubt that the intention was deliberate; he thought that he could trace in this also the influence of Macready. The suspicion, perhaps, was not unnatural for him to have then, but no reader of Macready's 'Diary' will now believe it well founded. Although Macready, who, in America must have seen himself frequently compared with Forrest to his own disadvantage, had, as he records, a great "vanity or avidity for notice or praise," and although, as he again records, he "started at every shadow of an actor, living in constant dread of being ousted from popularity by some new favorite," he was altogether above anything of this sort. But Forrest, believing Macready to have secretly caused him to be hissed, hissed Macready openly. This discourteous and ill-advised act opened a deadly breach. When Macready next came to this country he was indiscreet enough to make restless and uneasy allusions to organized conspiracy against him. In Philadelphia he was hissed, and he then took occasion to refer to Forrest by name. An angry correspondence followed, in which Forrest did not appear to advantage. Mr. Alger, we notice, omits his "card" in answer to Macready's speech. In May, 1849, both actors were engaged in New York. Party feeling ran high here; Forrest was a Democrat, and among many of the rabid Democrats he was held a hero whose wrongs were to be avenged. On May 8 Macready made his first appearance, and was most shamefully treated; he was hissed and hooted, and eggs, copper cents, and even chairs were thrown on the stage. Disinclined to appear again, Macready yielded to the public request of the leading citizens of New York and was announced for Friday. It became at once evident that the brutality of Tuesday would be repeated. For this disorder Forrest was not originally responsible. He had, indeed, advised letting "the superannuated driveller alone." It is, perhaps, too much to say that Forrest might have prevented the disgraceful tumult. It is not too much to say that he made no attempt to do so. What ensued is well known; there was a riot; the Seventh Regiment fired on the mob, and thirty dead fell in the streets. Mr. Alger leaves the matter with the remark that it reflects "deep and lasting discredit both on the Englishman and the American." He has an evident desire to be just to Macready, but he does not see that, although Macready might probably have checked the insolence of the *Examiner* towards Forrest, and although the discredit of the disgraceful squabbling should be evenly divided, yet the neglect of Forrest to interfere in any way when a riot was impending, and when a few words from him might have saved the blood about to be spilt, lays on the American the burden of a responsibility far greater than the Englishman's.

As we have said before, the effect of this biography will be to raise the general opinion of its subject. More than one anecdote in the book brings into relief the actor's manliness. "An old schoolmate of his, who had become a clergyman, met him one day and asked the favor of a ticket to his performance of 'Lear' that evening, but added that he wished his seat to be in a private box where he could see without being seen. 'No, sir,' was the reply by which the player rebuked the preacher; 'when I look at my audience I should feel ashamed to see there one who is ashamed to be seen. Permit me to say, sir, that our acquaintance ends here.'" When a mere youth he played at Albany second parts to Edmund Kean, for whom he had the highest admiration. "After the play a man whom he had always liked said to him, 'Your *Iago* is better than Kean's *Othello*.' Forrest says, 'I never spoke to that man again.'" Two of the other anecdotes scattered through the volumes deserve quotation. On his first visit to Paris Forrest was invited by a French manager to give an opinion on a new actor. "He will never rise beyond mediocrity," said Forrest; "but that Jewish-looking girl, that little bag of bones with the marble face and the flaming eyes—there is demoniacal power in her. If she lives and does not burn out too soon, she will become something wonderful." That little bag of bones was the then unknown Rachel. Sheridan Knowles had seen Mrs. Siddons act, and Forrest asked him what was the mysterious effect she produced in the sleep-walking scene of *Lady Macbeth*, adding that he had read the usual accounts but wanted the impression she had produced on Knowles, who replied with a sort of shudder, as if the mere remembrance terrified him still, "Well, sir, I smelt blood! I swear I smelt blood!"

The book is well printed, the type is distinct, and the margin ample. Although bound in two volumes it is paged as one. There are fourteen steel plates; nine represent the actor in his leading parts; none rise above mediocrity. The index is insufficient, and the book is but poorly furnished with aids to the reader—running dates, catchwords, etc.—the lavish use of which made the biographies of the late John Forster so easy of reference. The life also lacks, what every theatrical biography should have, a chronological list of all the principal parts played by the actor.

* 'The Life of Edwin Forrest, the American Tragedian. By William Rounseville Alger. "All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players."' 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 864. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877. Sold only by subscription. E. R. Pelton, Agent, New York.

MALLERY'S DAKOTA CALENDAR.*

IT is often a source of surprise that the Indian tribes of our continent have so little historical genius. The great mass of the roaming tribes have had no recorded history; the document before us, if it may be

* 'A Calendar of the Dakota Nation. By Bvt. Lieut.-Col. Garrick Mallery, U.S.A.' Bulletin of U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey. Washington.

called such, is certainly the first record of the kind published among white men. Consequently even the traditions of the Indians fade out as the generations move on, leaving their far past an impenetrable blank. This is all the more strange, seeing their common use of pictorial representations for wayside war bulletins and for personal biographies. In the first only a few rude figures are scratched on a piece of fresh bark, but they give a complete record of the war party, its numbers, condition, the enemy it has met, its fights and trophies. In the second case the figures are more carefully, sometimes elaborately, painted in all colors, generally on a robe worn by the subject of the eulogy, who thus becomes a walking advertisement of the horses he has given away, the enemies he has killed, and so on.

But Col. Mallery here presents us with something that is a great advance on anything of this sort. In the 'Calendar of the Dakota Nation,' as he calls it, we have the same kind of picture-writing, but now on a different plan. The picture sign—a man with a lame leg, a spotted horse, a row of heads, a buffalo, an arrow in a wound—represents not only the individual event it records, but it becomes the mnemonic sign of a year. Thus the calendar before us consists of seventy-one such figures, representing a series of so many years. They are drawn in black and red in a spiral line, the first of the series at the centre. There is no question of the genuineness of this calendar. It was discovered by Lieut. H. T. Reed, U.S.A., to whom much credit is due. It has since been verified quite extensively, not only by Messrs. Mallery and Reed, but by others. Altogether it is a unique and valuable document. Nevertheless, too much is claimed for it. It is not a national calendar. It really has to do with events specially affecting that part of the Dakota nation now located about Fort Sully and northward. It is not an "official" calendar. There is no proof that it is, and it would be contrary to the usages of the Dakotas. Nor is it any the worse for that: our most trustworthy historians are not officially appointed such. Neither is this calendar the only one. Among tribes of the nation who know nothing of this particular document it has been recognized at once as "a year record"—a calendar. Such things, it seems, have existed among them, even though the whites have been ignorant of it. A credible Indian witness also informs us that he has seen, near Fort Sully, another calendar, which reaches much further back than this.

Col. Mallery's accompanying notes show considerable research and much acuteness, but he is in some points very wide of the mark. For instance, in regard to the meaning of the word "Dakota," he says that the Dakota Indians whom he met always insisted upon the meaning of their national appellation as being simply "men," or "Indian men as distinct from white men." The fact is, they did not know what he was driving at. Again, as to the origin of the Dakota tribes, he speaks quite confidently of "traditions of the Dakotas that they migrated from the Pacific coast." We make bold to say that no reliable traditions to that effect exist. We do know, from their tribal names and from the earlier white records, that for three hundred years their movement has been *from the northeast.* "Men of the salt water" may refer to those dwelling by any salt lake as well as by the ocean. An important Dakota tribe, the Mdewakantonwan, still bears the name of the cluster of lakes by which they lived in eastern Minnesota two hundred years ago.

Mr. Mallery has unwittingly taken up the too common sentimental twaddle about the rapid decrease of the red man. The Indian seems fated to be misrepresented. He has all kinds of enemies who destroy his character, steal his lands, and forbid him any future. But his fate must now be sealed when even the Geological Survey composes his requiem. Now, as regards the whole Indian population of the country, it is an open question whether they have increased or decreased during the past century. The proofs are accumulating which go to substantiate the former opinion. But as regards this Dakota nation, nothing is surer than that they have been on the steady increase ever since they have been known to white men. The 'Report of the Black Hills Commission of 1876' officially recognizes this fact. True, Mr. Mallery points us to "the Quappas, a mighty horde, which, migrating from west of the Rocky Mountains, led the van of the irruption, and forced its passage through hundreds of miles of hostile territory," and which was "in 1871 reduced to 225 individuals." Now, Lewis and Clark, if we remember right, put down the number of this tribe at that time, which was not long after their first contact with the whites, at about the same figures. Be that as it may, the paragraph is unveracious. Put the word "uninhabited" before "territory," in place of "hostile," and you have the truth of it. Even less than two hundred would be a "horde" mighty enough to force its way through the unoccupied territory which that region was at that time. The occupation of the Upper Missouri River Valley by any Indians of whom we know anything is a comparatively recent event.

We venture to suggest a few probable mistakes in the interpretation of the calendar signs. Thus: Fig. 17 is given as meaning "Buffalo belly plenty." The sign is evidently a piece of dried or "jerked" buffalo meat. It may be that "belly" is simply interpreter's English for "very." Fig. 51 commemorates the superstitious story that on that year an old woman was found in the belly of a buffalo cow. Col. Mallery attempts to give this a mythical explanation; but do myths ever have such a mushroom growth as this? The Indians do not consider it a myth. In the same connection he speaks of the Dakota "Tongo Wakan," which is rather bad spelling for "Taku Wakan" (Tahkoo Wahkan). Elsewhere he spells the Dakota word for friend "coda" or "cota," instead of "koda," as he should. He quotes authority for saying of the "Tongo Wakan" that they regard him as "the source of all good." This is not strictly correct; for this name, which means The-Something-Mysterious, covers all spiritual unseen powers, bad as well as good. "The gods" would be an approximate translation. Fig. 55: Brave Bear is said to be wearing one of the newly-imported Spanish blankets. In reality, it is something more costly and regal—a robe covered with locks of human hair.

The Hon. Thomas Foster, of Washington, contributes to the volume a letter on the meaning of the tribe-names "Oglala" and "Hunkpapa." It is such a wonderful piece of criticism that it demands particular attention. He dissects the language and reconstructs it to suit any theory, with a facility which is admirable in case one pays no regard to the real laws of the language. Thus, in regard to the interpretation of "Hunkpapa," as "Dried-Beef-Eaters," or "Those-who-make-Dried-Beef," he says "it comes from 'päpä,' which means dried or parched meat, and the prefix 'un,' which is the sign of causation or use." But he misses the law of this prefix. It refers to the means or instrument, and not to the agent. So that if we follow his etymology the word would mean That-by-which-dried-beef-is-made, which of course it does not mean. Again, he gives us the interpretation of "The Noisy Band," from "un," causation, and "pa^n pa^n" (both vowels nasal), "to yell." But this, for the same reason given above, could not mean that; but, if "un pa^n pa^n" means anything, it would be a whistle or trumpet, that by which one calls or yells. Even then the true form would not be this, but "unpanpi." But there are two things that explode Mr. Foster's philology still more thoroughly. First, the radical letter *k*, which is always a strong element and cannot be slipped out by legerdemain. Consequently "unkpäpä," if it refers, according to his first explanation, to "dried meat," would be "*our* dried meat." But here a second constituent letter steps in, the *h* he cuts off so easily from the beginning of the word. "Hunkpa" is found in "Hunkpatidan," where it stands unquestioned, so that the word *is* "Hunkpapa." And probably the meaning is "the end men," from "He-inkpa," with reduplication, "inkpapa."

In regard to "Ogalalla" or "Oglala," Mr. Foster is no nearer correct. It is not "glagla," and hence not from "h'dah'da," to ring or rattle, were such a derivation otherwise possible. Its probable derivation is this: If you accept Oglala as the orthography, it comes from "glala," which is equivalent to "hdada" or "kdada," the possessive of "kada," to scatter. If the orthography is Ogalala, it comes directly from "kada," which is in Titon "kala" or "gala," and, with the reduplication for the generic form, "galala." The Dakota story is that, unable to agree in council, the men fell out, and nothing else being ready to hand, one of the vanquished threw a handful of ashes and sand into the face of his opponent.

We have taken up too much space with Mr. Foster's wild guesses, but it is rather important that such rubbish should not pass for scholarship. We advise Col. Mallery to drop that letter.

The Comedy of the Noctes Ambrosianæ. By Christopher North. Selected and arranged by John Skelton, Advocate. (New York: Lovell, Adam, Wesson & Co.)—Mr. Skelton has undertaken to give in a single volume, as he tells us in his introduction, that portion of the 'Noctes' which "deals with, or presents directly and dramatically to the reader, human life and character and passion, as distinguished from that portion of it which is *critical,* and devoted to the discussion of subjects of literary, artistic, or political interest only." The editor has performed his task with judgment and discrimination, and any one who wishes to get an idea of Christopher's North's wit and humor without wading through the voluminous original, can find all that he wants in Mr. Skelton's abridgment. It will, we suppose, always be an increasingly hard piece of work *petere fontes* in this matter. It is surprising in looking over the 'Noctes' in the

cold light of a day in which the wit has ceased to have any contemporary interest to find how little there is in it of permanent value and how much of rubbish. In its own generation the bacchanalian behavior of the characters in the 'Noctes' was made the subject of a good deal of criticism; but the effect of this blemish is much heightened by the lapse of time. A reasonable amount of drunkenness in literature has always been considered pardonable, and, if well managed—on the stage or in fiction—amusing; but the most indulgent reader resents a perpetual literary orgy. It is a blow to one's more delicate feelings to find that the humor of a classical work consists in great part of maudlin accusations of drunkenness, preferred against each other by the principal *dramatis personæ*. Such things are no doubt a never-failing source of amusement in all ages and countries among friends who are in the habit of getting drunk together; but as this habit reduces everybody for the time being to the same level, and that not a high one, it requires a good deal of liberality to find what Timothy Tickler would call the "glorious guffawing" of a hundred years old bacchanalian revels still fresh.

Apart from the odor of Glenlivet which pervades the work, the wit is greatly critical, as opposed to dramatic, and critical humor among Scotchmen is apt to be a trifle heavy. No human being can take much interest in discussions about English poetry in which one interlocutor maintains for a page or two that no poet of his age (except possibly Byron) can be said to have written the English language at all, when put in close comparison with Pope, while the other two play the part of interjectional chorus, and the discussion is closed by a vindication of the private character of Lord Byron. Nobody can read this with interest now merely because it was written by John Wilson. As regards the "dramatic" humor, most of it lies in the conception of the character of the *Shepherd*; but with all the deference to traditional opinion on the subject which we find it possible to give, we must say that the *Shepherd's* character is somewhat nebulous. Fine bursts of eloquence or poetry delivered in a broad Scotch accent there no doubt are; but what, beyond descriptive fluency and blunt frankness, are the characteristics of the *Shepherd*? We cannot apply the test of asking whether we can really imagine him walking about like Scott's characters, on two legs, for during much of the time he is not in a condition to walk about at all; but can we say conscientiously that any test shows him to be of real flesh and blood? The *Shepherd* is not consistent even in his adherence to his native dialect, but, when it serves Wilson's purpose, talks as good English as North himself. In the fine description of the "black thunderstorm" (p. 125) what is the reason for making him, contrary to nature, drop his dialect and lapse into English as he grows more interested, unless, indeed, to sacrifice him to the author, and to give more point to his comparison of the style of one of the sentences to that of Burke?

The English have laughed at the Scotch for many a long year for their want of humor. The Scotch have, since the publication of the 'Noctes,' produced this ponderous work in refutation of the charge; but we cannot help fearing that the refutation will, as time goes on, be held to prove instead of to have weakened the strength of the original accusation. The 'Noctes' cannot be said to be any longer light reading. Leave out the conviviality and the personalities, the *tu quoques*, the *tu mentirises*, and the *vos damneminis*, the jokes at the expense of cockneys and liberals (imagine several pages devoted with humor prepense to showing that, whereas the death of an ordinary human being in a snowdrift is a painful subject to contemplate, the destruction of two London bagmen in the same way furnishes amusing food for thought), and very little is left. The *Shepherd* presents now almost the only claim of the work to immortality—a claim that time alone and the endurance of the public can prove to be well or ill founded.

Properties and Powers in Every-day Matters; illustrated for children. By A. Corey. (Newark, N. J.: Martin R. Dennis & Co.)—The especial difficulty in preparing a book for children consists in arrangement. Adult readers can sometimes catch abstract thoughts even when poorly stated, but to children such thoughts will seem like Greek quotations, unless they are led gradually to them with masterful tact. Arrangement has three sub-divisions, namely, of topics, of sentences, and of words. It is in respect to the second division, the arrangement of sentences among themselves, that we condemn this book as a failure. The order of topics is simple enough, but in treating of each one the author cannot tell middle from end, and writes sentence after sentence somewhat as one might do if required at a university examination to state all that he knew in five minutes. Persons versed in science do not realize that they are to persons unversed as birds to animals, when it regards passing from one level of thought to another. When they expect little boys to accompany them, they forget that little boys have to ascend from the foundation, and that the omission of one step, not to say ten, creates a hopeless chasm. In the second chapter, entitled "Properties of Matter," more than one-half of the words are unintelligible to children, because the author proceeds from abstractions to individuals, instead of proceeding from individual instances up to abstract ideas. The chapters which follow contain much useful information correctly stated, though not always derived from the latest authorities. But the last quarter of the book is composed of culinary recipes, which are as incongruous with what precedes as is the conclusion of an old-fashioned sermon on "the doctrine of election, followed by some remarks on baptism."

A Manual of English History; for the use of schools. By Edward M. Lancaster, Principal of the Stoughton School, Boston, Mass. (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 320.)—With so many good histories of England to choose from, we cannot see that Mr. Lancaster's presents any special claim to attention. The main facts are, of course, correct, and are selected with good judgment, the style is generally good, and the book appears to be well adapted for the use of a school-room; but there are numberless points of detail, most of them trifling in themselves, which betray a lack of a thorough and fundamental acquaintance with the scholarship of the subject. For example, the account given of the origin of trial by jury (p. 51) is wholly incorrect; besides that, it takes notice only of the jury for criminal cases, not of the civil jury, which at this period is far more important. In the account of the Babington plot (p. 162) Queen Mary is stated positively to have been implicated; but the latest investigations have made it almost certain that she was the victim of a conspiracy. Her complicity in the murder of Darnley (p. 161) we suppose to be far better established. The apparatus of the book is very good. A useful feature (pp. vi. and vii.) is "Names of Kings and Leading Topics," giving the chief events of each reign in a few words. Here the repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts (which was in 1828) is assigned to Queen Victoria. Then follows a good genealogical table, in which, however, the third son of Richard, Duke of York, is called Earl of Warwick, instead of Duke of Clarence. A sketch of the extent of the British Empire (p. x.) and of the present Constitution (p. 300) are very good. So are the two Indexes at the end of the book and the map at the beginning. There ought, however, to be at least one historical map of England before the Norman Conquest.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles. *Publishers.—Price.*

Allen (J. H.) and Greenough (J. B.), Latin Grammar, revised ed.....(Ginn & Heath)
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Johnson (Rev. S.), Oriental Religions: China.....(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
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Littré (E.), Supplément au Dictionnaire de la Langue Française. Parts I.-III, swd.....(F. W. Christern)
Sozinskey (Dr. T. S.), The Culture of Beauty.....(Allen, Lane & Scott)
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1877.

The Week.

THE first resolution of the Pennsylvania Democratic Convention was the one which appears to be printed from a stereotype plate at all Democratic gatherings nowadays, and which, after mentioning the great crime perpetrated at "the induction of Rutherford B. Hayes into office," declares that no second offence of the same kind will ever be tolerated. The second and third resolutions assert that the Southern and civil-service policies of the President are tributes to Democratic principles; the fourth, "that capital combined in corporate organization has been too highly favored by both State and Federal legislation"; the fifth opposes any increase of the standing army; the sixth was prepared on account of the late strike, and, although somewhat vague, manages to express sympathy with "thousands of industrious citizens and laborers" now unemployed and in distress, and declares that a wise and frugal government is the hope of the people in adversity and their security in prosperity, and that under such a government any resort to force to redress grievances is needless; the seventh we have elsewhere discussed; and the eighth looks towards State control of railroads. Resolutions in favor of silver and greenbacks as legal tenders, and advocating payment of United States bonds in legal tenders, were presented, but not received. The convention said nothing about resumption, or the currency, or the tariff, and was evidently under very different influences from its fellow convention in Ohio. There is said to be a good prospect of Democratic success in Pennsylvania this year, the Cameron Republicans being willing to allow the State to be carried by the Democrats as a rebuke to Mr. Hayes. The Republican Convention is yet to be held, but we suppose it is useless to expect that any political convention will this year pass straightforward resolutions with regard to the strike and the rioters. Even the lesson of Pittsburgh fails to make Pennsylvania politicians speak plainly.

Mr. Randall is a good politician, and the unanimity with which conventions of both parties are pronouncing against all subsidies is accordingly having an excellent effect upon him. It is now reported, apparently upon authority, "that he has never expressed himself specifically upon the subject of appropriations and subsidies"; and that "he only favors in a general way the building up of the South generally, and the general development of its general resources." This very "general" denial can be converted by the time Congress meets into a very specific one if Northern political conventions continue to express the decided disapproval of subsidy schemes which has thus far been a pleasing feature of their platforms. We should have greater present faith in the defeat of all subsidy projects at the coming session of Congress, however, if there existed throughout the country a firmer disposition to require politicians to abide by the party platforms in which they have pretended to believe at the time of their adoption. Ohio and Pennsylvania have both spoken in opposition to subsidies, and no Democratic politician in either State protested against the adoption of the resolution. If the rank and file of the party now hold their leaders to this professed faith, not only will numerous spoliation schemes be defeated, but, better still, we shall witness the beginning of a new and needed departure in party morality.

Mr. Williams, the Democratic candidate for Governor of Maine, has written a letter of acceptance which should have a wholesome effect, if anything can have, upon the Democratic party. The convention, in nominating him, passed the customary Democratic resolution with regard to the election of the President. Mr. Williams, n his letter, simply remarked that he did not understand this resolution to impeach the validity of Mr. Hayes's title to the Presidency, and that he could *therefore* approve the resolution. "That title," he adds, "though stoutly contested, was recognized and became valid by the decision of the tribunal which acted under authority of law, to which all parties and all the States, through their Senators and Representatives in Congress, had given their deliberate assent." This irrefutable proposition has occasioned a storm of angry comment in some of the Democratic papers, although it receives approval in others. The letter has been the means of showing that, in the opinion of some of its leaders, no possible good can come to the Democratic party from any further prolongation of the cry of "fraud" and "monstrous crime"; and its general effect must be to put an end to a great deal of vague and useless declamation on this subject.

The Ohio campaign was opened by the Democrats at Columbus on Thursday last. Mr. George H. Pendleton and General Thomas Ewing were the speakers, and the currency question their principal theme. They sustained their own characters and that of the Ohio Democracy as the most incorrigible advocates of "soft money" and the most dangerous assailants of the public credit between the two oceans. Mr. Pendleton, indeed, dealt a heavy blow at the Ohio Republicans for their fast-and-loose policy on the labor question, showing that their promise to secure fair returns to capital and fair wages to labor through legislative action is impossible of fulfilment and contrary to the whole spirit and genius of our institutions. He then turned violently against the "money power," and exhausted the dictionary to find words of opprobrium for the bondholders and the Resumption Act. He maintained that the 5-20 bonds were legally payable in greenbacks, and that the policy pursued by the Government of paying them in gold had added eight hundred millions to the burden of the public debt. General Ewing was even more rabid against specie resumption. He was opposed to resumption in 1879 or at any other time. He declared that greenbacks were better than gold, and that the latter was the most unstable of all commodities, and hence the most unfit to be used as money, being nothing better than a cheating device to rob labor of its hard-earned wages. Were not the times better, he asked, between 1865 and 1868, when gold stood at a high premium, than now, when it stands at a low premium? The panic of 1873 he considered a temporary disturbance, the effects of which had long since passed away, all the business depression since then being due to currency contraction. The commercial crisis in Germany he attributed to contraction also, and the depression in England to the impoverishment of her customers who have been ruined by contraction. The only remedy for the hard times, in his judgment, was to banish for ever the thought of specie and to sweep from power all who harbor the idea of resumption. It is with such pernicious folly and knavery as this that the Democrats in Ohio are accustomed to transcend the blunders of their antagonists. The Republicans set out with a platform and a couple of speeches which, standing by themselves, would have deserved heavy punishment at the polls, but candor compels us to say that they have been overmatched by the other side.

The first address of Mr. Stanley Matthews in the Ohio campaign is remarkable chiefly for what it does *not* contain. It omits all reference to the labor question, and unless Mr. Matthews regards the subject as too big to handle in the same speech with other matters, and intends therefore to consider it fully hereafter, the omission must be pronounced a grave dereliction of duty in one who is regarded as the father, or at least the foster-parent, of the National Bureau of Industry. For the rest, Mr. Matthews has the hardihood to discuss at great length the President's title to his office, and incidentally to descant upon the enormity of the attempt to count the vote of Cronin, of Oregon, for Mr. Tilden. He ably defends the President's Southern policy, and also his methods

of civil-service reform, and his address would have been stronger had all but these portions been omitted. The conclusion is an argument in favor of the legal and moral right of the Government to pay bondholders in silver, with an admission of the possible inexpediency of so doing, and a plea for the remonetization of silver, as the demand of "justice, sound public policy, and the indispensable condition and only safe road to resumption."

The Georgia Constitutional Convention has excited a great deal of attention as the first purely "Confederate" body to engage in constitution-making since the civil war. It finished its labors and adjourned last Saturday, after a continuous session of six weeks. A summary of its proceedings shows a curious mixture of good and bad provisions adopted, and an evident lack of any controlling mind or minds strong enough to give unity to the result of its deliberations. The constitution finally proposed by it is an illustration of no theory or system of legislation or government, but a hodge-podge of decisions on practical matters. Among the provisions which may be regarded as good are those affecting the negro, whose civil rights are explicitly secured to him. Other commendable provisions are the abolition of imprisonment for debt; the public-school system, which is limited to the elementary branches of an English education; the tax-paying qualification for voters, which, of course, will practically for a time disfranchise a great many of the negroes; a system of registration for voters; biennial instead of annual sessions of the legislature; and the prohibition of State aid to various enterprises. On the other hand, bad, or at least questionable, provisions were the following: the reduction of salaries of State officers and judges; an increase in the number of elective officers, including judges and solicitors-general, who are now appointed by the governor, but are hereafter to be elected by the assembly, and the choice of all State-house officials by the people; a shortening of the terms of service of State officers; and State regulation of freight and passenger tariffs of all railroads. The refusal of the convention even to allow the legislature to grant permission to the Supreme Court to decide upon the validity of bondholders' claims against the State, we have already mentioned. The new constitution will be voted upon in December.

We trust that there is some chance of this instrument being defeated at the polls. The provisions for repudiating the State debt and those placing the railroads in the power of the legislature are reason enough for opposition to it from independent men, while the Republican vote is likely to be cast against it on party grounds, and it will be opposed by present State officials and members of the Legislature. The newspaper replies to the arguments of the bondholders furnish curious illustrations of the state of mind existing in Georgia as to the public credit. We alluded a short time since to the well-settled principle of public law and morals that for purposes of credit the government of a State is continuous, as showing how preposterous the argument was that the State bonds were invalid because the carpet-bag governments were "usurpations." Now, it seems hardly credible, but the reply to this made by the Georgia press, and made in such a way as to show that in Georgia it is thought a "clincher," is that the United States, in calling upon the rebel States at the close of the war to repudiate their war-debts, violated this same principle of public law and morals; in other words, the United States compelled us by superior force to cheat some of our creditors, therefore we can cheat anybody we choose. It is, of course, apart from this, obvious that the two cases are entirely different. The insurrectionary government in Georgia which contracted a war-debt was never a State government in the proper sense of the word, and was never recognized as such anywhere, and its war-bonds were in rank but little above Cuban or Fenian securities. The carpet-bag government was, on the contrary, to our shame be it said, the legal government of the State, recognized by the United States, and possessed of full powers as such. We have received a private letter from a gentleman in Florida, which he gives us permission to publish, in which he suggests that any attempt to hinder immigration into the repudiating States on the ground of their bad faith would probably fail, because the prospect of light taxes caused by repudiation would attract immigrants of a certain class. So, too, no doubt, the repeal of all laws against larceny would attract immigrants of another class, and the exemption of all property from seizure for debt would attract others. But we very much fear that in the end a community built up by means like this would not have that reputation abroad which would give its bonds a good standing in the money markets of the world.

Senator Christiancy has written to the *Inter-Ocean* a letter on "the dollar of our fathers," in which he exposes several of the fallacies of the silver men very clearly; shows that the dollar of our fathers could not circulate with gold, being of less value; that it would drive gold out of the country, and lead to great dishonesty if made legal tender, because it would enable all debtors to discharge their debts in a depreciated currency. He declares himself in favor of remonetization, however, provided some means can be found for establishing a fixed relation between silver and gold. He does not believe in the proposed international standard, because he does not think, with the constant fluctuations in the market, that any fixed standard could be arrived at in any reasonable time. His own plan is to have free coinage of silver, and to have the metal made legal tender to any amount at the market value, providing a board for the "determination and publication of this value at short intervals." As an alternative plan, he suggests increasing the value of the silver dollar (by the addition of silver) to a point where it should be so nearly equal to gold in actual value that for purposes of circulation they would be equal. Senator Christiancy's exposition of the economic principles that underlie the silver question is very good, but his plan for its solution strikes us as radically wrong. The "board" he suggests would either determine the ratio of the two metals by actual value or it would not. If it did not, it would introduce confusion into the whole financial system of the country; while for a faithful and just performance of its duties it would require a degree of sagacity and integrity which no other "boards" seem to be in these latter days provided with. The members would always be subject to suspicion; and if they did not play into the hands of the silver men, a movement would be at once started to "capture" them. The difficulty with the other plan is that there is and can be nothing fixed about it.

Great speculative activity has prevailed during the week in Wall Street, and resulted in an advance of 1 to 8 per cent. in the prices of railroad shares, stocks having been bought by wealthy speculators, and having been sold to a large extent by the public, which sees in past railroad mismanagement and in the threatened regulation by Congress of railroad affairs little to encourage it to hold this kind of property, even though the tonnage of the roads during the coming winter should be never so large. The enlarged borrowing demand for money with which to carry stocks, together with a fuller mercantile demand, have advanced the rates for loans 1 to 2 per cent., and discounts were increased to about the same extent. The New York banks are not nearly in so good a position as last year to meet the autumn and winter demand for currency from the West and South respectively, and bankers generally expect a full 7 per cent. money market by October. The price of gold (in paper currency) fell during the week to 103⅜—the lowest price since June 5, 1862; or, properly stated, a U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar advanced in gold value to $0.9626, which is the most that it has been worth in the money of the commercial world since a short time after the suspension of specie payments by the Treasury. The bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week would have had a gold value of $0.9049. The fall in the price of gold, as it is called, was influenced by shipments of $2,500,000 "double eagles" from London to New York, which are now on the way. Since they started, the Bank of England has advanced its discount rate to 3 per cent., notwithstanding which, and the fact that our imports are increasing more rapidly than our exports, it is the opinion of

bankers that we shall import a considerable amount of gold from Europe before the close of the year.

The battle which has been raging in the Balkans for the possession of the Shipka Pass, the only important military pass in that section of the range, will undoubtedly rank among the most extraordinary combats not only of our time but of this century. What we know of it now is, of course, fragmentary. Whether the attack was made by the bulk of Suleiman Pasha's army, or only by its left wing, the right having crossed the mountains much further east and reached Bebrova—as communications from London and Vienna have it—it is still impossible to decide; nor is it clear whether the attack was begun on the 20th of August, as the first Russian bulletin seems to imply, or on the 21st, as reported by the excellent correspondent of the London *Daily News* at the Russian headquarters. Yet, however scanty and incomplete our sources of information still are, the more or less strictly official reports from the imperial headquarters at Gorni Studeni and the frequent telegrams of the *News*' correspondent, who was an eye-witness of one of the deadliest contests of the week, present together a vivid war-picture which, though reflecting chiefly the doings of one camp, does not fail to exhibit in brief yet distinct outlines those of the other, and allows us to form a transient opinion of the comparative merits and losses of the combatants. The correspondent also gives us a description of the scene of action, of the ground so obstinately fought for. According to it, the Shipka Pass is merely a track across a section of the ridge lower than the surrounding heights. The highest point of the road is flanked on either side by commanding mountain spurs, which break off abruptly to the north. They afford no access to the northern valleys, but offer positions whence to flank the central ridge, and possibilities of descending to and struggling through the intervening glens, climbing the steep slopes of the Shipka ridge, and attacking the road and fortifications on its summit.

We shall closely and exclusively follow the above-mentioned communications from the Russian side in presenting a brief summary of the events. On the morning of Tuesday, the 21st, Suleiman Pasha made an assault (or "renewed the attack") on the Russian position "with forty battalions." The Russians, then only 3,000 strong, exploded mines in front of their trenches just as the heads of the assaulting parties were massed on heights above them. The fighting continued when darkness had set in. The Russian loss was 200. On Wednesday the Turks erected two batteries of long-range artillery, and approached the Russian position through trenches, but their repeated assaults were repulsed with heavy loss, while the Russians suffered little. On Thursday the Turks opened fire at dawn, and it lasted with great violence till noon. They made desperate assaults from three sides, which were repulsed. In the evening there was a lull. The Russians were "beaten out with heat, fatigue, hunger, and thirst." Many "lay panting on the bare ridge swept by Turkish fire," while "others doggedly fought on down among the rocks, but were forced to give ground." At this juncture heavy reinforcements arrived under General Radetzky, passing under a galling fire; the Turks having worked around on both flanks, especially on the Russian right. Here the struggle was resumed late in the evening, and desperate fighting continued till midnight, when the eclipse of the moon stopped it. The Russian loss was "heavy," but reinforcements continued to arrive, and the defenders of the pass soon numbered 13,000. All their positions were maintained.

On Friday, the 24th, the Russians assumed the offensive with a musketry fire directed against a well-wooded position which flanked those on the road. The attack was here continued all day, but without effect, being answered by a galling fire. At noon a counter flank movement was determined upon. Two battalions advanced under a tremendous fire from Turkish mountain guns. Gradually the Turks removed their batteries, and finally the central peak of their position was carried with the bayonet, General Radetzky personally leading a part of the troops. The Turks in vain attempted to retake the peak. From his front, too, General Radetzky forced them back. No, guns, however, or captives were taken. The Russian loss on this day was estimated at one thousand five hundred killed and wounded. Fresh reinforcements were hurriedly arriving from more or less remote camps north of the Balkans. On Saturday fighting continued with terrible violence from nine o'clock in the morning till ten in the evening. Several powerful Turkish attacks were repulsed. The Russians lost thirty officers and four hundred men killed and wounded. In the night the Turks renewed the assault with fresh troops, and the combat continued to rage all Sunday morning, the commander of the defenders of the pass before Radetzky's arrival being among the killed. The Turks continued the attack throughout the day, and resumed it on Monday morning, holding the heights above the road, and continually relieving each other in fighting. Here the last-received Russian report leaves us. Whether the concurrent announcement by English correspondents from Shumla of a more or less final victory of the Turks on the evening of Monday was true or not our readers will probably have learned before receiving these lines.

Simultaneously with the first attack on the pass, the Turks, as a Russian bulletin announced it, made attempts to break in upon the Russian outposts on the side of Selvi, Rustchuk, Rasgrad, Shumla, and Eski Juma. Near Selvi the troops of Osman Pasha's command were easily repulsed, the Russians report, but in regard to the result of the other engagements the accounts from the same source are silent, while Mehemet Ali's bulletins claim a number of successes. As to the fight near Eski Juma, the Russians concede the victory to their enemies. It was a protracted contest of some magnitude. The Turks seem to have been the assailants on Wednesday, August 22, advancing on Aghaslar, northwest of Osman Bazar, and near the head-waters of the Black Lom, probably with the object of securing their right flank for a possible advance toward Tirnova on the high road running further south. Aghaslar was taken with some guns, etc., and, according to the Russian version, retaken. Skirmishing continued throughout the night, and on the morning of the 23d the Turks, having been reinforced, made new attacks which ended with the retreat of the Russians, in a northwesterly direction, to Sultan Köi. The latter acknowledge a considerable loss. The Turks on Thursday entrenched themselves at Aghaslar. Osman Pasha, previous to the movement near Selvi, obtained some successes over the cavalry which was operating in his rear, one of the fights taking place on the road to Orhanie, the continuation of which leads across the Balkans to Sophia. In the Dobrudja the Russians are fortifying Kustendje and other points, while nothing definite is heard about the Turkish movements in that quarter.

From the neighborhood of Kars, Mukhtar Pasha, on Saturday, Aug. 25, announced a victory obtained on that day over the army of Loris Melikoff, "having carried the heights of Kiziltepe during the night and repulsed three Russian attempts to retake them." The battle lasted till evening, "200 cannon being brought into action," and, according to Mukhtar's report, the Russians were routed on the whole line, losing 4,000 in killed and wounded, while he lost 1,200. Despatches to the London *Daily News* from the Russian camp admit the capture of Kiziltepe and the terrible effect of the Turkish guns from the mountains, but assert the signal defeat of a desperate flank movement to capture Kurukdara. In the contest which raged near this place the Russians, according to the same despatches, lost two generals, eight officers, and 237 men in killed alone. That the battle was provoked by the Turkish commanders, and was fought almost on the very border of the hostile territories, and that the Russians, at Melikoff's central position, "had their tents loaded on wagons, ready to move," as is reported to the *News*—these are features of the newly-begun campaign in Armenia not at all apt to encourage expectations of Russian success. Before Batum, too, the Russians have met with a new, though slight, check. Tergukassoff, at the other extreme of that vast theatre of the war, is said to have received considerable reinforcements, while nothing is heard of the Turks in his front or rear.

A DEMOCRATIC OPINION OF SUBSIDIES.

THE platform of the Democratic State Convention of Pennsylvania is not a model of good English, nor yet a mine of political wisdom, but its seventh resolution embraces an important truth which deserves to be rescued from the verbiage and cant in which it is mainly lost. This resolution recites that many rich men, not content with equal benefits and equal protection under the law, have besought the people to make them richer by acts of Congress. Then comes a great outpouring of froth, in which the phrases "fearful commotion," "exclusive privileges," and "odious monopoly" resound like fog-horns at sea, and are to be understood by the laboring man as terrible assaults upon capital. But the conclusion of the whole matter is that the Democracy of Pennsylvania "protest against subsidies, land-grants, loans of the public credit, and appropriations of the people's money to private corporations, as legalized plunder of the tax-paying industries of the country." It is to be regretted that so fair a beginning and so respectable an end should have been so nearly smothered by the platform-makers. The particular subsidy which the Convention aimed at is sufficiently open to reproof without connecting it impliedly with the recent railway strike, to which it bears no relation whatever.

Nevertheless, the deliverance of the Pennsylvania Democrats must have put a considerable obstacle and an unexpected one in the way of the Texas-and-Pacific subsidy, since we find the immediate friends and supporters of ex-Speaker Randall now disclaiming for him any bias in favor of that scheme, although he had lately been quoted by a New Orleans paper, which had taken pains to "interview" him at his summer residence, as much impressed with the merits of subsidies in general and of Southern subsidies in particular. The Texas-and-Pacific party are understood, likewise, to have abated nearly one-half of their claim upon the consideration of Congress, and to be content with a Government guarantee on fourteen hundred miles of road, from Fort Worth to San Diego, at the rate of $35,000 per mile; their former petition calling for $40,000 per mile on this division, and $35,000 per mile on twelve hundred miles of branches. Their amended petition calls for something less than fifty millions. It is sometimes advantageous for subsidy-hunters to apply for a larger sum than Congress is disposed to grant, for the purpose of compromising on a smaller one, and thus gaining the support of "moderate men." But while the sacrifice of the branches, if it be really intended to drop them, may secure some votes which would otherwise be lost, it will dampen the log-rolling ardor of certain sections upon which the success of the scheme was believed to depend. Representative Schleicher, of Texas, has allowed a Washington newspaper to say for him that the people of his district are indifferent to the Texas-and-Pacific Railway unless a branch should be provided for to the mouth of the Rio Grande. He also betrayed a disheartening lukewarmness toward subsidies in general. His declaration that Texas is not unitedly in favor of the undertaking was perhaps the heaviest blow the scheme had met with until the Pennsylvania Democrats pronounced against it. The chief promoters of the railway are Pennsylvanians, and one of the arguments they advance for a subsidy is that it will infuse new life into the iron trade by creating a market for rails, locomotives, spikes, etc. If Pennsylvania remains deaf to this appeal to her cupidity, it is difficult to see where the votes are to come from to pass the subsidy even in the abbreviated form of fifty million dollars.

In the *Nation* (No. 606) we showed that the very last thing the South stands in need of is a new route to the Pacific Coast, where there is neither a demand for her products nor a supply of anything she wants, and that the chief result and consequence of her support of this project, if successful, will be to give new power and influence to a band of Northern speculators, whose alliance heretofore has been with the oppressors and plunderers of the South, and who are now, with the carpet-baggers, suffering a common eclipse. Congress is to assemble within a few weeks, and the Texas-and-Pacific lobbyists will be in Washington, undismayed by the public disapproval of their scheme, and exasperated no doubt by the long delay that has attended its consummation. It is necessary, therefore, to characterize it again as an unblushing attempt to swindle the whole people, and as fraught with far graver dangers than the loss of fifty million dollars to the Treasury. Not an argument has been advanced in its favor which will stand a moment's analysis. The South does *not* need a Pacific railway—certainly she does not need it sooner than she will get it by private enterprise. The construction of it will not furnish a market for her iron, because she does not make iron; nor for her food, because she produces no surplus of food; nor for her labor, because she has no labor to spare; nor for her cotton, because her cotton does not go that way. The North does not need another Pacific railway, because the existing one is sufficient to do the business. The country does not need it for purposes of competition, because Congress reserved the right to regulate the rates on the existing road. No industry can derive more than a temporary benefit from the disbursement of money to build it, and no argument can be founded on that view of the case that will not justify subsidies to the bottom of the Treasury and the end of the public credit. If the riches of Arizona in the precious metals are half as great as they are alleged to be, private capital, which has lately surmounted the Sangre di Christo pass, at the highest railway elevation on the continent, to reach the San Juan silver-mines, will find its way to Arizona also.

A high degree of effrontery, joined to large experience in handling legislative bodies and thorough disbelief in their honesty, is the mainspring and motive-power of this claim for a subsidy. That there are men of good character in Congress laboring for its passage may be admitted—so much the worse for them; they are in bad company, and must expect to suffer in reputation accordingly. They are contributing, so far as in them lies, to re-establish the reign of adventurers at Washington, whose shamefulness during the past eight years is the one thing the country most desires to hide and bury in oblivion. These scamps have found cold comfort since Mr. Hayes came in, but they are bold enough to claim him as a friend, and to associate his Southern policy with the Texas-and-Pacific policy, as though an act of justice would not be complete unless accompanied by an act of spoliation. There is not the smallest reason to suppose that they have ever received encouragement from that quarter. It must be well understood by all persons in authority that the granting of this subsidy in whole or in part opens the door to innumerable others ranging over the whole field of speculation. That this is no exaggeration is attested by the fact that the Texas-and-Pacific claimants are always pointing to the older Pacific railways for a precedent and justification. These are really no justification, but rather the opposite; for if the Government has spent its money to attain a certain object—to wit, rail communication with the Pacific—and has attained it, that is the best possible reason for not doing it a second time. But the second transaction *would* be a precedent for subsidies generally, since the main thing in view here is not communication with the Pacific coast, but the promotion of local and private interests. With what whip are local and private interests to be scourged out of the lobbies of the Capitol after this principle has been recognized in the Texas-and-Pacific case?

WHY THE REGULAR ARMY SHOULD BE INCREASED.

WE have received more than one communication protesting against the notion that the labor question can be settled with "bayonets," which seems to some minds to be a corollary of our doctrine that the late riots show the necessity of an increase in the standing army. We have never proposed that the labor problem should be settled with "bayonets," and have never said one word which could suggest to anybody (unless perhaps a "silver man" fresh from the advocacy of "cheap money for the poor man") a connection between an increase in the army and the establishment of proper relations between employers and employed; and we are no more responsible for his inferences than for those of any other intoxicated person. What we have said is that the late riots, however they may have originated,

show that our present police force is not large enough or of the right kind at the points where property is accumulated in large masses, and where for that reason the dangerous class is most numerous; and that the most economical and effective addition we can make to this force is an increase say of 25,000 men to the regular army. The militia is not sufficiently well disciplined or organized, and, even if it were better disciplined and organized, cannot act quickly enough, inasmuch as even six hours' delay may enable a mob to take possession of a city, as at Pittsburgh, and destroy millions of property.

We will now explain, too, that in our humble opinion no solution of what is called the "labor problem" that the wit of man can devise, no arrangement of the relations of the employer and employed, however happy or effective, and whether voluntary or brought about by the interference of Government, will do away with the necessity for a powerful and ready police in a country so thoroughly committed as this is to vast manufacturing and commercial enterprises. The labor problem, whenever solved, will be solved only in the interest of the steady and industrious laborer who wishes to do honest work. To him it will bring relief, if it brings relief to anybody. It will do nothing whatever for the malingerer, the drunkard, the spendthrift, the rogue, the lazy and idle and vicious thousands who every year, from one cause or another, lose their places on the ladder of life, and drop into the ditch to grovel in hopeless and often angry and venomous poverty. This class in modern civilization is very large. Education, and sound economical and social arrangements, can doubtless keep down its numbers, but there is hardly a family in the land which does not know from bitter experience that it would be impossible by any instrumentality of which we have as yet even dreamed wholly to extirpate it. There never was an army yet, however holy the cause for which it fought, and however high the spirit of the bulk of the men, which did not have its stragglers and deserters and shirks; and we have no reason to expect to see a society without dregs or "residuum," until we are able to lay our finger on the very springs of character, and shape a child's destiny in its cradle. In the purest and simplest days of New-England theocracy every town had its criminals and loafers and ne'er-do-weels, who had to be hanged, or whipped, or tied by the neck and heels; and yet these were supplied by its own scanty and God-fearing population. In our time, with our vast accumulations of wealth and population at particular points, our great cities have become reservoirs into which there flows from all parts of the country and from all parts of the world a steady stream of miscarriage and misfortune; of blameless men who have failed in everything and are embittered by it; of lazy men who have tried everything but industry, and against that have their faces set like flints; of visionaries who have their hearts set on a social state from which hard work will be banished, and who would wade through torrents of blood to realize it; and of disappointed schemers who, unstable as water, after many failures, have sunk into a dull and pertinacious hatred of the successful and of all the tokens of success. Every class and condition of society furnishes its contribution to this mass of envious discontent, and the laboring class, as might be expected, the largest of any. Preaching does not reach them, because they have a gospel of their own, and the advice even of the well-to-do only exasperates them; and no arbitration or legislation or equitable division of profits, which is based on the obligation of steady labor and of fidelity to engagements, can at all touch them. They naturally congregate most largely in the great cities, because it is there easiest to live by one's wits, and to find auditors for one's plaints; and it is in the great cities only that rioting is most effective for destruction and disorganization—that even half an hour's work by a well-led mob can dissipate a hundred fortunes and suspend great branches of production. To leave society exposed to such risks, through a sentimental horror of "bayonets," is to be simply puerile. With such inflammable materials as these at hand, it is madness to rely on a volunteer fire-department. We have given up the fire militia in nearly all our great cities; what good reason is there for trusting to it as a protection against that other and even more horrible danger—mob violence?

The part the South has been taking in the discussion on this subject is not a little suggestive. The press and public speakers of that region have been all but unanimous in opposing any increase of the army for police purposes, and the reason is obvious. Of course, the South is just now sick of seeing soldiers acting as permanent police in ordinary times. But apart from this, the social organization of the South is still so simple, and the position of the owners of property there is still so masterful, that it has, properly speaking, no labor problem in the sense in which that term is used at the North, and is not likely to have any very soon. It is highly probable that for fifty years to come the laboring class at the South will continue to be black, and will become every year more manageable and efficient. Moreover, the South is not troubled, and is not likely to be very soon, with large cities and their attendant evils. Her manufacturing industry is small, and her population so scanty, and the temptations she offers to adventure so slight, that the shiftless and discontented drift away from her rather than towards her. Under these circumstances Southerners not only feel secure against strikes, but revel in the thought of the swift and summary fashion in which they would put down a riot with their local militia. Governor Wade Hampton, in his speech at the White Sulphur Springs the other day, gave strong expression to his feelings, and added, we have no doubt truly, that if Washington had been in any real danger during the late trouble, from no part of the country could a volunteer police have been poured in more rapidly or in larger numbers than from his own and other Southern States. But the South makes a great, though not unnatural, mistake in supposing that riot and the destruction of property on Northern railroads and in Northern cities are a purely Northern affair, and that there is no good reason why the South should be taxed for their suppression. As the Union now is, whatever deranges traffic, and thus shakes credit and infuses timidity into capitalists anywhere, is the concern of all parts of the country. No geographical or political divisions can possibly affect the commercial unity of a country like this. Men who plant and reap, and weave and spin, and buy and sell, no matter in what part of it they live, are interested in the strongest way in the security of property and the freedom of intercourse in all parts of it. One of the most serious mistakes made by the Republican party at the North during the late Reconstruction process lay in the belief of many of its members that the robberies and frauds of the carpet-baggers affected South Carolina and Louisiana and Georgia only, and that those who disliked the South could afford to smile over them. There are not many men now at the North who do not see that Southern poverty and depression have during the last ten years been a dead-weight on Northern enterprise, and that there was something almost insane in indifference to the fortunes of communities which either were or might become our best customers even if we had no political connection with them whatever.

EFFECT ON RUSSIA OF A DISASTROUS WAR.

PARIS, Aug. 9, 1877.

THE friends of Russia—and they are numerous in this country—have been thrown into a state of consternation by the news of the bloody battle of Plevna. Hitherto the fortune of war seemed to be completely on the side of the armies of the Czar. We had all read with admiration the details of the blowing-up of a Turkish monitor by a Russian torpedo-boat, the arrangements taken for the passage of the Danube, and the cool behavior of the Russian boats under the Turkish fire.

The storming of Nikopolis, the raid of General Gourko in the passes of the Balkans, the rapid movements of the advancing army, formed an extraordinary contrast with the immobility of the Turkish commanders. Few remembered that General von Moltke, in his letters on Turkey written so long ago, maintained that the best strategy for Turkey consisted in throwing her forces into the quadrilateral of Eastern Turkey, in allowing an invading army to cross the Danube, to enter the Balkans, and to advance towards Adrianople, and then to cut all its communications and isolate it in Rumelia. The reports of our military attachés represent the

Turkish commanders as rude and apparently lazy men, who smoke all day under their tents; but the fighting qualities of the Moslems make up for the deficiencies of their commanders, and the ideas suggested by Moltke are so simple that they can be understood by the coarsest minds.

The battle of Plevna has turned the scale; and the dismay of the Russians is probably all the greater because this battle was quite unnecessary. General von Krüdener showed too much contempt for his enemies when he threw his cavalry against the formidable entrenchments of Plevna. We have read with the deepest concern how regiment after regiment was decimated by the fire of the Turks, how the road to the Danube was soon covered with ambulance trains, how a panic spread among the camp-followers, and how, finally, the wounded were left to die on the road. The philanthropic mind of the Czar was certainly much moved by the harrowing incidents of this defeat and of this retreat, and from one end of Russia to the other the general enthusiasm has been changed into indignation and almost into despair. General Gourko has been obliged to retreat hurriedly towards the Balkans, in order not to find himself completely cut away. The tide of invasion which was setting towards Adrianople is retreating towards the Danube. Only a few days ago there were rumors of peace; it was thought that perhaps Russia, after her easy successes, would content herself with a new treaty of Adrianople.

All is changed now, and everybody feels that Russia is bound to avenge the defeat of Plevna, and that she must prepare for a difficult and perhaps a long struggle. Thus far all the efforts of Prince Gortchakoff had been directed to this point: he intended to give the war the character of a duel—to localize it, as the modern phraseology will have it. The war was to be eminently a Russian war; it did not concern either the rising and ambitious nationality of the Rumanians nor the Slavic nationality of the Serbs. Prince Gortchakoff foresaw that if the war altered too much the situation of Rumania, or if it took a Panslavic turn, it would no longer be possible for Austria-Hungary to remain absolutely neutral. It was for this reason that the Russian commanders did not allow Prince Charles of Hohenzollern at first to cross the Danube with his army; for this reason that Prince Milan was not encouraged when he offered the Russians the scattered remnants of his army, which fought alone last year with Montenegro against the Turks. Prince Gortchakoff tried to *far da se*, to borrow the words of Charles Albert in 1842; but the *far da se* of Savoy was followed by the disaster of Novara, and Italy could not conquer her independence without the help of France. Perhaps it will be impossible for Russia to liberate the Christians of the East without the help of these Christians; Austria's neutrality was bought with the promise of keeping a belt on the Austrian frontier untrodden by invading or insurgent armies. This promise can hardly be kept now; and the chief result of the battle of Plevna will be to give ascendency in Russia to the Slav party, to such men as the Grand Duke Nicholas, as Ignatieff, as Prince Tcherkassky.

There are probably serious reasons why Prince Gortchakoff has tried with so much care to localize the war and to furnish no pretext to those who would be inclined to make it a war of nationalities, a revolutionary war. These reasons are twofold; some depend on the foreign relations of Russia, some on her home policy. Once assume that Russia is obliged to take the lead of all the Slavic populations, and Austria will be obliged to withdraw from the alliance of the three emperors and to take measures for her own preservation. Already a mobilization has been decreed, and, though it will not be immediate, the army will soon be placed in readiness to occupy Bosnia, Herzegovina, and the approaches of the Austrian Empire. The Magyars, now so powerful in Trans-Leithania, will not allow Slavic demonstrations at Agram; the fear of Russian influence is so great at Pesth that the Hungarians have taken the side of the Turks, and are not concealing their sympathies with the enemies of the Cross. Once imagine great movements in Austria, and it is very doubtful whether England will long preserve her present attitude. England has heard and applauded magnificent speeches from Mr. Bright in favor of peace; her statesmen have shown great caution—Lord Salisbury has never led the Turks to think that England would recommence the Crimean war without France, and Lord Derby has been quite converted to the views of Lord Salisbury; but who knows if Lord Beaconsfield, who now preserves the silence of a sphinx, cannot by a few words change the whole current of public opinion in England? He knows well that below this current lie deep and strong undercurrents. The old passions of England are only dormant; her neutrality is the offspring of her isolation. She has for the last year been feeling the pulse of France and of Austria; the pulse of France beats no longer, but the pulse of Austria is not quite dead. If Austria thought herself forced to act, all pacific phrases would soon be thrown to the winds in England, and the enthusiasm of the Crimean days would soon revive. This is the first danger of Russia.

I come now to the second, to the interior danger. The Crimean war produced a commotion in the whole Russian Empire, and the result of it was the emancipation of sixty millions of serfs. The Russian nobility had for years opposed this emancipation with as much energy as the slaveholders in America opposed the abolition of slavery. The misfortunes of the Crimean war showed that "something was rotten" in Russia, and the Czar forced emancipation on the nobility. What have been the results of the emancipation? What is really the state of Russia? Few indeed could well answer this question. The Russian peasant is now a free man, but Russia is still subject to absolute government; the Czar lives far away, out of the sight of his subjects, and what is there between him and his people? There is no representative of the people, there is not even any active or powerful representative of the nobility. There are many provincial and even communal institutions, *assemblées de noblesse* and *assemblées de paysans;* but there is nothing like a House of Lords, nothing like a House of Commons, no place where something like the voice of the country can be heard. Between the absolute ruler and the people there is an all-powerful administration, a sort of *mandarinate*, the *tchin*—a regular army of functionaries, uniformed, disciplined, many of them corrupt and much more anxious to obtain promotion than to administer justice or to promote the interests of the country.

The ancients often called the poet *vates;* he is the true prophet, he shows us where the spirit is moving. I have always looked for the *real* truth about Russia not in the *Golos*, or the St. Petersburg *Gazette*, or the conversations of the rich, cultivated Parisian Russians you meet in our drawing-rooms or at our watering-places, but in the works of Pushkin and of Turgeneff. I must confess that the novels of this last writer have always filled me with the most painful feelings. They are alarming; they open lights upon Russia which show us a world almost incomprehensible, a sort of chaos of weakness, of uncertainty—an ocean of feeble, irrational beings, led by instincts, sentimental and absurd, chivalrous and selfish at the same time—an undeveloped, child-like, feminine ideal. Read, for instance, Turgeneff's last book, a masterpiece as extraordinary as 'Smoke' or a 'Nest of Nobles' or 'Fathers and Sons.' How well named is this book—'Virgin Soil'! Here we are indeed in the virgin forest of the Russian soul—a soul that has only aspirations which it not merely cannot realize, but which it cannot even well define and classify. When you begin this book you cannot leave it, so powerful is the charm of the descriptions of nature, so natural the tone of the conversations, so irritating the perverseness of the actors. You cannot hate them; they are sphinxes, and they seem almost unreal. One feeling, however, pervades the whole book. You see clearly that the Russians, as soon as they have the beginning of cultivation, become dissatisfied. Dissatisfied with what? They hardly know themselves; they dare not say. Each individual feels the whole weight of absolute power, of an inquisitive police, of a crushing administration on his shoulders. Your generous, chivalrous, discontented Russian, with his head and his heart full of aspirations, is drawn away from those higher classes which lead a regular and selfish existence. He goes down to the people; he makes an idol of the millions who live in the snow, in the fields, in the dark huts, in the fumes of brandy and tobacco. The long-haired, heavy, pious Russian becomes in his eyes the representative of a better future; but what Turgeneff shows very well is that the idol does not understand the worshipper, nor the worshipper the idol. This religion of the Russian people leads some noble men and women to *simplify* themselves, as they say; they can only wear the people's clothes—they cannot force their own thoughts under the peasant's clothes. They wish to be dirty, to work with their hands, and to lead vulgar and squalid lives; by so doing they think themselves the martyrs of a noble and holy cause. But what good do they do? The people drag them down; they do not drag the people up.

These curious socialistic tendencies which are developing in the Russian universities are perhaps only the symptoms of some deep wishes and desires. The cultivated classes, which are not completely enslaved by the *tchin* and by their own privileges, are probably groping towards representative government. An unsuccessful war, new misfortunes like the fall of Sebastopol, would produce an inner commotion in Russia which would soon have effects on the interior government. On every account, therefore, the development of the Eastern question ought to be watched with the keenest interest.

Correspondence.

THE PREVENTION OF RAILROAD STRIKES.

I.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When discussing the "Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers," in connection with the Boston & Maine strike of last February, the *Nation* in its issue of 22d March last used the following language:

"The Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers is, therefore, as we look at it, now engaged in its last and most useful work. It is driving our larger corporations into creating brotherhoods of their own, turning their present mobs of employees into a regular graded service, with its promotions, its life insurance, and its pensions. The men would then be tied to the corporations by something more than the payment of monthly wages; nor would they lightly sacrifice by joining in strikes what represented the accumulation of years of service. It is no part of our business to work out the details of such a scheme. We can only say that what Mr. Arthur and his associates have done, we believe that Mr. Vanderbilt, or Mr. Scott, or Mr. Chapin can do a great deal better. . . . If a few more strikes are necessary to start them in the work, we sincerely hope that Grand Chief Arthur may, with as little delay as possible, supply the needed incentives."

The "hope" expressed by the *Nation* in March was certainly realized in July; "the needed incentive" has been given, and we may now fairly expect to see the official heads of our great railroad corporations addressing themselves in earnest to the better organization of their corps of employees. It is surely needless to say that the present organization is essentially defective. This has been apparent for a very long time, and the recent troubles have only called public attention to things the existence of which was before perfectly well known to every one. They were discussed and the remedy for them pointed out clearly enough in the *Nation* last spring, and they are now receiving treatment at the hands of the politicians and their candidates. With the labor question as a whole I do not propose to occupy your space or to concern myself now. With that particular phase of it which is connected with the railroad system there are certain points to which it seems to me very desirable that the attention, not only of the railroad officials, but that of the public also should be called. This, too, can better be done now and through the public prints than presently in the formal reports of commissioners, for the obvious reason that people are just at present thinking of the subject, whereas three months hence they will almost certainly be thinking of something else. The politicians and candidates have also started off at such a tremendous gait that something ought to be at once done by some one to satisfy sober-minded people that the whole discussion is not to be another burlesque of every accepted social fact or economical truth.

In view of the recent proposal of the Ohio Republican Convention, endorsed in its full extent by the Secretary of the Treasury, that Congress should by law establish for the railroads *maximum* rates of charges to protect the patrons of the companies, and *minimum* rates to protect their employees; and then, as a necessary consequence, that it should fix the wages and hours of labor of the latter on a reasonable basis,—in view of all this it seems about time to recall the fact that the subject of the relation of railroad corporations to those they employ is not an entirely new one, and that experience has taught some lessons in regard to it which are not wholly unworthy of notice. The *Railroad Gazette*, for instance, has lately published in compact pamphlet form a lecture delivered no less than ten years ago by F. Jacqmin before the *École des Ponts et Chaussées* at Paris, and which is a portion of the third chapter of the first part of that gentleman's work on French railroads. It is short and, read in the light of the discussion now going on, curiously interesting. It describes in detail the organization of the *personnel* on the *Chemin de fer de l'Est* of France, of which M. Jacqmin was the traffic-manager, giving an account of the system of promotion, and of the provident and pension funds through which the interests of the employees of that company are identified with it. In 1869, before the French-German war, and at the time of which M. Jacqmin speaks, the *Chemin de fer de l'Est*, be it remembered, owned over 1,750 miles of track, or only 75 miles less than there are now in the whole State of Massachusetts. It was represented by $220,000,000 of securities, or $50,000,000 more than the entire Massachusetts system at present. It earned $12,000,000 a year, of which $6,200,000 was profit; and it had in its regular employ 24,500 persons, or nearly 6,000 more than all the Massachusetts railroads now report. It certainly, therefore, was what we in this country are accustomed to refer to as "a monster corporation." It had passed through the "mob" phase with its employees, which had proved, as M. Jacqmin assures us, one of the most perplexing problems to which its leading officials had been obliged to address themselves. Having got through it—not, even in paternal France, through having recourse to Government—M. Jacqmin in his lecture proceeds to describe the system which ensued. Though his description is not new, it might now be profitably read by every railroad manager in this country; and even those not connected with railroads, who have, merely as part of the public, felt or been made to realize the peculiar dangers and inconvenience attendant upon railroad strikes, could hardly fail to be interested in seeing how effectually a great foreign company guards itself against them. It does it, also, by actually making its employees, as Mr. Vanderbilt has recently expressed it, a part of itself. In so doing it affords a practical illustration of long standing of what might be expected if our great corporations would carry into effect the *Nation's* suggestion, that they should turn "their present mobs of employees into a regular graded service, with its promotions, its life insurance, and its pensions."

On this point M. Jacqmin's language is peculiarly distinct. He says of the *Chemin de fer de l'Est*, "Let a place with a salary of $480 or $600 fall vacant and it will never enter into the mind of a head of a department to propose to fill it with a person theretofore foreign to the company; that place is assured to an employee of the next lower grade. The certainty that the company reserves for its entire force all advancements in salary and position which are produced yearly, appears to us to be one of the capital conditions of the organization of a great service." Nor does this idea of a service and an identity of interest stop here. A connection with his company becomes to the employee an estate almost; at least a family interest which descends to his offspring. Indeed, the companies regard the admission of the children of their employees into their service as one of the most important means of perfecting it. Accordingly "a family, the heads and children of which are attached to a company, considers its fortune as assured, and is exempt from the uncertainties of the future with regard to providing for the children. Sure of being able to embrace the father's calling, young people acquire a very characteristic, special aptitude. . . . The sons of employees are admitted into a certain number of offices at the age of sixteen. They are granted the uniform, and this favor has a great influence on their conduct."

Here, then, is a regular service, with its apprenticeships, its promotions, its uniform, and its fixed tenure of office. One feature only seems to be wanting, that of a regular increase of pay proportioned to the length of continuous service. This experiment, so far as I am aware, has been tried by a single company only, and by it but partially. It is borrowed from the extra-ration allowance of the United States Army. On the road to which I refer it is confined to engineers and conductors, but each employee of these two classes receives $100 a year extra pay annually for each five years of consecutive service. A conductor, for instance, who has served for twenty-five years is entitled to wear on the sleeve of his uniform-coat five service-chevrons, and his pay is raised $100 a year for each chevron. The influence upon a body of employees of such a regulation as this hardly needs to be enlarged upon; it speaks for itself. Under these circumstances, service which has been performed is in itself an estate—an accumulation which the possessor will no more care to hazard lightly than he would house or land. To engage in a strike takes a man out of the service of the company. If he returns, unless the strikers absolutely succeed in dictating their own terms, he returns as a new man. His service-chevrons are gone, and with them his service-pay. The accumulation of years is swept away. Accordingly, it is easy to imagine with what extreme reluctance all older employees, whose opinions must always be those which among their fellows carry most weight, will listen to a suggestion of a strike the success of which would reduce them to the level of new hands. There is excellent reason to believe that a regular increase by all railroad corporations of ten per cent. in pay for each five years of consecutive service in the same grade would not only put an effectual stop to all strikes among railroad employees, but, by giving increased stability and *esprit de corps*, would prove to the companies themselves a sound measure of economy. In the case of the company I have referred to, the total sum paid out by it annually in extra-service pay amounts to only $5,000 a year. This comparatively trifling sum is, however, sufficient to identify closely two important classes of employees with the service of the corporation. Elsewhere the experiment may have been, and indeed probably has been, tried on a larger scale, and if it has, I should be glad to hear of the result. Meanwhile, as the *Nation* suggested a few weeks ago, it is probable that as soon as the present excitement dies away many of the leading

roads will increase or readjust their wages system. Instead of the usual five or ten per cent. all around, would it not be well, then, for these companies to establish the service principle, giving, we will suppose, to each employee an increase of ten per cent. for each five years of consecutive service already performed in the grade he then may hold, and promising a similar increase to all? It would be a good thing if the directors of some large corporation would have this problem practically worked out, in order to see what, in its own case, the additional annual burden of such an increase of wages would be.

The *personnel* of the company being organized and the pay for active service established, the next thing to be provided against is the sickness, death, or disability of employees. And it is in respect to this, or what he describes as the second period of the employees' connection with the company, that M. Jacqmin's pamphlet becomes more particularly instructive to American readers.*

CHARLES F. ADAMS, JR.

QUINCY, MASS., August 27, 1877.

JUDGE DILLON ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Our attention has been called to an article in your issue of the 23d inst., entitled "The Charges against Judge Dillon." In this you allude to an expression contained in our letter to you on the same subject, published August 9, in which we say: "The statement that he continued for some time to prevent any execution of the decree is absurd"; and contrast that statement with an extract from a letter written by one of us, dated January 19, 1877, adding in language more forcible than courteous that it is clear that either the above-quoted extract was untrue or that the letter of January 19 was false. We are surprised to find you also stating that you had seen the letter of January 19, thus showing that it was in your power to have published it in full. For had you done so it would have at once appeared that the inconsistency charged by you did not exist.

Permit us to make a brief reference to some of the facts of the case referred to—that of the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, Trustee, *vs.* The Central Railroad Company of Iowa.

The decree of foreclosure and sale provided that the trustee should buy in the property for the benefit of the first, second, and third mortgage bondholders, and also for the unsecured creditors and stockholders.

Certain of the first-mortgage bondholders intervened and appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, claiming that, by the terms of the first mortgage, such a purchase could be made for the benefit of the first-mortgage bondholders only, and also seeking a reversal of the decree for other reasons. A *supersedeas* staying the execution of the decree was granted by Mr. Justice Miller of the Supreme Court, February 16, 1876. A previous *supersedeas*, granted conditionally by Judge Dillon, had then expired by its own limitation, the requisite bond not having been filed by the appellants. In November last Mr. R. L. Ashhurst, of Philadelphia, on behalf of a committee of first and second-mortgage bondholders, who desired the execution of the decree, applied to have this *supersedeas* of February 16 vacated, and the appeal dismissed on technical grounds. The Supreme Court decided on December 18, 1876, that the *supersedeas* should be vacated, but that the appeal was regular. No order of that Court in conformity with this opinion was ever served on us until the 26th day of January last. This order left the trustee, the plaintiff in the case, free to exercise its judgment whether it would, as trustee for all the bondholders, execute the decree of the Circuit Court pending the appeal, in view of the complications which might arise should the decree finally be reversed by the Supreme Court.

It should be borne in mind, especially in view of your statement that all the bondholders desired the execution of the decree except those taking part in the appeal, that the holders of first-mortgage bonds to the amount of a million dollars, being more than a quarter of the entire issue, have never been heard from in the litigation, and that their wishes on the subject are unknown.

After the opinion of the Supreme Court had been read, but before any order in accordance with it had been served on us, the letter of January 19, 1877, to which you allude, was written. That letter is as follows:

NEW YORK, January 19, 1877.

R. L. ASHHURST, ESQ., 225 South Sixth Street, Philadelphia:

DEAR SIR: Your letter of yesterday is at hand, enclosing letterpress copy of an order of Judge Dillon, authorizing the notice of sale of the Iowa Central to be published in the *Public*. I do not wish to be captious, but I am sure every lawyer will agree with me that orders involving such large interests, on which we are expected to act, should be served on us certified.

The same remark will apply to the order of the Supreme Court. We have been regularly served with a certified copy of the bond as filed, and an order of Judge Miller that it should operate as a *supersedeas*. Technically our hands are tied. The Clerk of the Court has sent me a printed copy of an opinion of the Court by the Chief-Justice, that the *supersedeas* should be vacated. Whether anything has since been done I do not know. I do not understand that opinion to vacate the *supersedeas*. I take it an order must be entered, and that until it is entered the *supersedeas* operates. Such, certainly, would be the practice in our courts. And it seems to me too plain for argument that such order should be served on us by a certified copy.

I was under the impression that it was not necessary to wait until the mandate was sent down at the end of the term, but that the Court would make an order to the clerk to send to the clerk below the order and a copy of the opinion (see Phillips, p. 207–15; Peters, 119). I would be glad to know your views of the practice, if you disagree with me. However, the clerk can no doubt determine the matter at once.

I was not aware that any exception had been filed by Judge Cole to the allowance to the trustee for compensation and counsel fees. It is so entirely inadequate that I had supposed it could not be looked at in any other light.

I note your final statements in your letter: that you are informed from Des Moines that the Master has, at Judge Grant's suggestion, objected to advertising unless *procedendo* is issued from Supreme Court; that "Judge Grant must know that *procedendo* is not the usual practice of the Court at this stage, and that certificate is the sole paper that should be expected"; that, "as Judge Grant is counsel for trustees, of course they cannot but be responsible for the obstruction of the execution of the decree by him"; that you should be sorry if you write unnecessarily strongly on the matter, but, as it looked to you, "the course of Judge Grant seems to me [you] either merely trifling or as indicating anew the partiality to the parties hostile to the decree which has before been alleged and denied."

Pardon me if I say, with the best feelings towards you personally, that when you know that the course of Judge Grant, which you criticise as the obstructive course of the trustee, was pursued under special directions from Judge Dillon, you may consider your remarks somewhat hasty, and that in this case we shall probably get along better if we fully understand each other before acting.

Judge Grant writes to me that he called on Judge Dillon, and asked him if the Iowa Central could be sold before the mandate was sent to the Court below; that Judge Dillon asked who told the Master to sell; to which he answered, Judge Cole; that Judge Dillon's reply was to tell the Master to take no action until the mandate comes down, and not then except by order of the trustee, the plaintiff; that it was a very grave question for the trustee to sell the property with an appeal from the decree pending. Now, when I wrote the letter of January 8, I was under the impression that the proper course for the trustee would be to sell, if desired by the committee; but, as Judge Dillon has made the above remark, I think it proper to submit the matter to him; and when we receive, in due form, a request from your committee for us to execute the decree, and a due notification that the *supersedeas* is vacated, I will at once present a petition to the judge, and ask advice in the premises.

I presume, of course, that you are prepared to make proper arrangements for placing the trustee in funds, as is usual in such cases.

Very truly, H. B. TURNER.

"The obstructive course of the trustee," then, as appears on the face of this letter, was simply an effort on the part of its counsel to have the record made complete and a refusal to execute the decree until that was done. To have at that time directed a sale before a proper order, decree, or writ had come down from the Supreme Court to the Circuit Court in Iowa would have been to act in contempt of the *supersedeas*.

It also appears on the face of that letter that different opinions were held as to the proper course to be pursued. Judge Dillon seemed to think a mandate from the Supreme Court necessary. Mr. Ashhurst, the prevailing party, whose duty it was to obtain what was requisite, says that "certificate" (whatever that may be) was the sole paper to be expected. Judge Grant, our associate in Iowa, thought a writ of *procedendo* necessary, while we entertained a different opinion, and suggested the course which Mr. Ashhurst subsequently adopted. As we have stated, no copy of the order of the Supreme Court vacating the *supersedeas* was served on us until January 26 last, nor did Mr. Ashhurst or any other person on behalf of any one in interest request the trustee to execute the decree until February 5, 1877. Prior to that date, however, a formal written remonstrance was served on us by which we were requested by a number of first-mortgage bondholders, including others besides the appellants, not to direct the execution of the decree until the determination of the appeal to the Supreme Court.

The trustee then applied to the Court for instructions. Judge Dillon, after hearing arguments, referred all the papers to his associate, Judge Love, who was absent, and who returned his opinion in March last to the

* The Jacqmin pamphlet can be procured (price twenty-five cents) by addressing the *Railroad Gazette*, 73 Broadway, New York.

effect that there seemed to be no occasion for haste, and that he did not think it desirable to instruct the trustee to proceed. In this view Judge Dillon at first concurred, but subsequently, in May last, the matter being again brought before him, he delivered an opinion in which he said: "We would be glad if the trustee could see its way clear to execute that decree, and would be glad if it could get the road out of court and into the hands of parties who could control it to their satisfaction."

On the 2d day of June last the trustee came to the conclusion that it could safely execute the decree, and that it was advisable to do so; and on that day we telegraphed to the Master to proceed and sell. In reference to Judge Dillon's action in the case, we repeat that "the statement that he continued for some time to prevent any execution of the decree is absurd." Our client, the trustee, was the owner and holder of the decree, and, after the Supreme Court untied our hands, as soon as we thought it advisable to execute it we did so.

TURNER, LEE & MCCLURE.

20 NASSAU STREET, NEW YORK, August 24, 1877.

[We print the above at great inconvenience to ourselves, and in the present stage of the controversy cannot surrender any more space to communications on the subject. We do not see that the letter of Messrs. Turner, Lee & McClure at all alters the case. It shows distinctly that before the 19th of January Judge Dillon told Judge Grant (in whose office he holds chambers, and who, nevertheless, is the Iowa counsel for the trustee in this case) that it was "a very grave question for the trustee to sell the property with an appeal from the decree pending"; that in March he warned the trustee off, and only in May hurried on the sale. In the face of such facts, to say that a statement that the judge obstructed the execution of the decree is "absurd," is simply to say that the letter of the 19th of January contained a series of falsehoods. It should be noticed, also, that the case against Judge Dillon does not rest upon his rulings at any one stage of it, but is based on his acts covering a period of nearly two years, and is cumulative in character. It is proper to add, perhaps, for the benefit of a number of newspapers which have seen fit to assume that we have prejudged the case, and have, therefore, called upon us to "retract" and "apologize," that while it is one of the duties of a newspaper to abstain from prejudging charges against public officers, it is also one of their duties not to refuse to discuss them, nor to smuggle them away and hide them from public sight, but to insist on a fair examination and adjudication. This is what we have done in the present instance. It is idle, after all the judicial and legal scandals we have had since the war, to pretend that judges are, from the high character of their office, above suspicion; and when a scandal exists involving the character of a judge of a United States court, and a candidate for the Supreme Bench, not only lawyers but laymen perform a duty to the public in insisting that it be probed to the bottom.—ED. NATION.]

LITERATURE AT YALE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Hartford *Courant*, some weeks since, contained an editorial presumably by Mr. Chas. Dudley Warner, entitled "Yale and Literature." A few sentences, quoted from it here and there, will show its drift:

"Harvard, in its graduates as well as its professors, is conspicuous in literature. Yale is rather conspicuous as an unliterary university. It is less literary than many of the inferior colleges. Its men are distinguished in law, in politics, in business, and the pulpit. But, as a rule, these men have lacked literary accomplishment and literary taste. The reason is that literature is disregarded in the college course. The college has openly proclaimed its contempt for literature, by placing the department in charge of a gentleman who could only give to it a modicum of time while discharging his duty to the Government as collector of customs."

There can be no doubt that the editorial from which I have given the above brief extracts contained truth that will bear reiteration. When one considers how fairly in England the honors of literature have been divided between Oxford and Cambridge, the literary unproductiveness of Yale, as compared with Harvard, is remarkable. Looking through the Yale triennial lately I found only two names in the last fifty years that have attained any eminence in literature proper—the now almost-forgotten poet Percival and Donald G. Mitchell, both of these lights of the third or fourth magnitude. Of her roll of scientists, theologians, and philosophers the old Connecticut university has no reason to be ashamed. Silliman, Dana, Hadley, Woolsey, Porter, are names widely known and honored. But Channing, Gray, Child, and Wright, at Harvard, are names of no less eminence in their respective fields of research, while among the graduates and professors at New Haven there are absolutely no names to match those of Emerson, Lowell, Holmes, Bancroft, Motley, Prescott, and Parkman.

The writer in the *Courant* finds a reason for this singular deficiency in the neglect with which literature has been treated at Yale. Doubtless this notorious and lamentable indifference on the part of the body of government and instruction is one reason why Yale has turned out not a single man really distinguished in literature. But the ultimate cause, or causes, of this deficiency, I think, must be sought further back. How has it come about that one of the two leading colleges of the land should be so obtuse to the value of literary culture? If I mistake not, one great reason is to be found in the general torpor of the State in which the college is situated. At the risk of appearing invidious, I venture to affirm that Connecticut is a long way behind Massachusetts in provision for the literary culture of her children. Illustrations of the disparity between the two States in this regard may be found in such facts as these: In 1875 there were in Massachusetts 164 public libraries, in Connecticut only 8; even Hartford, the wealthy capital of the State, being without a free library. In Connecticut there are but 14 high-schools, in Massachusetts about 170. The prevalence of Copperheadism during the late war in Connecticut was an index of the low state of popular education. If I am not mistaken, there is not a single fully-established Unitarian church in Connecticut, while in Massachusetts there are scores—a fact not without a literary as well as theological significance in New England.

Am I wrong in conjecturing that the unliterary character of Yale College is largely due to the unliterary atmosphere of the State in which the college is situated, and in which most of its more distinguished graduates have been bred? Doubtless this atmosphere has been in part created by the college; but more general influences have, I believe, been chiefly at work to produce the unhappy result we are considering. I do not know what has made the people of Connecticut notably unlike the people of Massachusetts; but it is plain that the Connecticut mind is severely practical. For poetry, fiction, belles-lettres in general it cares little. Education it values chiefly as a means of getting on in the world. A certain stiffness and aridity marks, with few exceptions, even its highest culture, while the popular culture is exceedingly narrow.

It will be well if more attention shall be given in the future to the study of English literature at Yale, but it is of more importance that the public-school system of Connecticut should be greatly improved, and that free libraries should be multiplied tenfold. There would seem to be no reason in the nature of things why Yale should not vie with Harvard in sending forth lights of literature as of philosophy and science, provided only literature is made as honorable in the popular estimation as are philosophy and science. At present the Connecticut boy's great man is either a lawyer, or a scientist, or a minister. Teach him that a poet or an essayist or a novelist may exert as profound an influence as can emanate from the bar or the Senate-chamber, and if he never gets to college he may become a Whittier or an Irving or a Howells; or if he goes to Yale, he may, like Lowell, forsake law, or, like Emerson, theology for literature. In a word, make the *people* fond of literature and there will be no lack of devotion to literature among college graduates. JEMAND.

[We think our correspondent overlooks in his comparison one extenuating fact for Yale, viz., that she has always drawn, relatively, far more students from the West and South than Harvard has. Now, the condition of neither of these sections has been favorable to literary productiveness of a high order—the West, because of its raw state of growth; the South, because of slavery. Moreover, and partly for the same reason, Yale has never held the same intimate relation to New Haven and Connecticut that Harvard holds to Boston and Massachusetts. Emerson, Lowell, and the other writers named, were all born within a radius of forty miles from Boston.

Yale might also ask how it is that the youngest of these lights, Mr. Parkman, was graduated as far back as 1844, and that in the thirty-three succeeding years Harvard can show no other littérateur of sufficient eminence to warrant our correspondent's naming

him. We recently alluded to the barrenness of the period, as far as new men were concerned, not for Harvard alone, but for the entire country. If we were asked to suggest the causes of it, we should point to the anti-slavery agitation, beginning with the annexation of Texas and including the Mexican war; the civil war; the enormous material development of the country, with its temptations to forsake study for money-getting; the increased attractions of scientific pursuits for educated men, and the corresponding decline in the attractiveness of the ministerial calling.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE War Department at Washington has issued a map of the European seat of war in two sheets, including the Black and part of the Caspian Sea. It is a very ordinary production in all respects. Looking solely at the names of places, we have English, French, and German forms jumbled together, and such errors of spelling as Tuturkai (for Turtukai), Bela (for Biela), and even Tchinka for the village of Shipka, the pass itself being spelt Schipka. This shows ignorant compiling and careless draughtsmanship. If, as is presumably the case, this map is put forth to enable our officers to follow the war intelligently, we must say that the same end could have been far better attained by procuring and distributing Handtke's and other German maps, and probably at less expense.——Baron Tauchnitz and Herr Auerbach of Stuttgart have concluded satisfactory arrangements with Mr. John Habberton for the republication in their respective English and German series of his 'Helen's Babies' and 'Other People's Children.'——J. W. Bouton has nearly ready 'Isis Unveiled: a Master-Key to the Mysteries of Ancient and Modern Science and Theology,' by Mme. H. P. Blavetsky, corresponding secretary of the Theosophical Society.——Little, Brown & Co. have in press 'Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.,' by Francis Parkman; 'Memoirs of Daniel Webster,' by the late Peter Harvey; and a fourth edition of Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms.'——Hurd & Houghton will shortly publish the 'Poetic Inspiration of Nature,' by Professor (late Principal) Shairp, Matthew Arnold's successor in the chair of poetry at Oxford.——Two works by Prince Lubomirski, 'The Russians in Samarcand,' and 'Scenes of Military Life in Russia'; and 'Spirite,' by Théophile Gautier, are announced by D. Appleton & Co.——J. R. Osgood & Co. will reprint in their Little Classic edition 'Household Education,' by Harriet Martineau.——The second series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne' follows closely in the footsteps of the first. The eight little one-act plays which it contains are excellently adapted for reading aloud or performance in American parlors. With the exception of "Sa Canne et son Chapeau," and a few lines in "Les Convictions de Papa," there is nothing in the volume which could raise a blush in a Puritan school-room. The admirers of 'M., Mme. et Bébé' will find here a little comedy, 'Les Crises de Monseigneur,' by M. Droz, which has all his lightness and brightness and fineness of observation, although it seems a little deficient in scenic qualities. M. Meilhac's comedy, announced with a most promising title, 'Les Trois Belles-Mères,' does not appear in the volume and is probably reserved for a third series. "Le Mari qui dort" is an almost perfect specimen of that peculiarly French production, the "comédie de salon en vers"; the verse is as dainty and delicate as may be, and the characters are drawn with the firm touch of a real dramatist; it is by M. Edmund Gondinet, a writer far less known among us than he deserves to be.——Carl Wolff's 'Historischer Atlas' (Berlin: D. Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt) is now completed by the issue of the third part, containing six maps, mostly of Europe in the Middle Ages, and text descriptive of the whole series of eighteen.

—When we see an article in an illustrated magazine on a subject which has already been elaborately treated in a lavishly embellished volume, it is a natural inference that the illustrations of the article are a few of the illustrations of the book, and that the letterpress of the article is a condensation of the letterpress of the book. It is pleasant, therefore, to find that the essays on "Fans," by Mr. Maurice Mauris, in the September *Scribner*, is not a mere summary of M. Blondel's 'Histoire des Eventails.' It seems, indeed, to be entirely the result of original research, owing little or nothing to M. Blondel's book, which is nowhere cited by Mr. Mauris and is perhaps not known to him. Nor are the illustrations the same; although in two instances, and possibly in one or two more, the objects engraved are identical. The thirty-two woodcuts in *Scribner* are far finer than the hazy "process" work with which M. Blondel's book was illustrated. No. 17 is a beautiful specimen of vigorous drawing; less successful is No. 30, after a design by the late J. L. Hamon, and apparently the reduction of a larger block. It is not as inspired as the best of Hamon's work in this line. A lady of this city owns one of his fans, than which nothing could be more airily graceful; in the centre, Cupid in his web is waiting and watching a female figure on either side floating in the air and about to fling herself into his toils. The mount of this fan, in several hues of gold and silver, was designed by M. Worth, the man-milliner, who in his leisure is an artist and delights in seeking inspiration and refreshing his invention by the study of the other fine arts. Mr. Mauris's article is entertaining, although, of course, not exhaustive. A recent number of the *Academy* announces that the next exhibition of the Liverpool Art Club will be a loan collection of fans. The first exhibition of this kind was held at South Kensington in 1870. The latest, if we mistake not, took place this year in Dresden. There is no reason why the next should not be held in New York.

—The predominant flavor of *Lippincott's Magazine* for September might be called Italian, seeing that there is an illustrated paper ("A Paduan Holiday") by Charlotte Adams, a translation from Edmondo de Amicis ("A Great Day"), and an interesting account of the dramatist Carlo Gozzi ("A Venetian of the Eighteenth Century") by H. M. Benson. Mr. Howard M. Jenkins bases on a contemporary narrative, presumably by a Quaker eye-witness, a description of the battle of Brandywine, whose centenary occurs next week. The story is well told, but deserved a sketch-map of the field. On some accounts the anonymous biography of Madame Patterson-Bonaparte is the most attractive article in the present number. It is, in fact, almost an autobiography, and when the writer says that "Mme. Bonaparte relates," we are perhaps favored with an extract from her diary, which it is hinted may some day be published. Most of the anecdotes about herself are flattering to her former beauty and *esprit*, as is altogether pardonable in a nonagenarian. Of her husband Jerome she says: "He loved me to the last; he thought me the handsomest woman in the world, and the most charming." Aaron Burr called her "a charming little woman, . . . by some thought too free"; Miss Berry reported to Horace Walpole that she was "exceedingly pretty, without grace, and not at all shy"; Mme. de Staël pronounced her "bien, bien jolie"; and the uncle of Jerome's second wife conceded grace, beauty, and wit to the discarded *Américaine*. Jerome himself, meeting her twenty years after his abandonment of her, was overcome by her loveliness while failing to recognize her. His enquiry who she was, was answered by her successor, who was with him at the time (they were in the Pitti Palace), and for a moment the two wives confronted each other. The princess of Würtemberg "evinced always the utmost interest in her predecessor," and treated "with maternal kindness" Mme. Patterson's son, who had been sent for to come to Rome by Jerome. She "went two leagues to meet him, and taking his face between her hands said tearfully, 'Ah! mon enfant, je suis la cause innocente de tous vos malheurs.'" Jerome ignored his son in his will, which Mme. Bonaparte vainly contested. Her grandson, Captain Bonaparte, received from Napoleon III. an annuity of six thousand dollars, which terminated only with the Empire. Among the interesting characterizations of distinguished personages whom Mme. Bonaparte met while she resided abroad, those of her mother-in-law and sisters-in-law, whom she first saw at Rome, are perhaps the best worth quoting: The former "was not tall; features like her great son; fine mournful eyes; a manner touching and majestic. She was then very *dévote*. Pauline was empty-headed, selfish, and vain, cared only for luxury, but in every line exquisite as Canova's statue represents her. Hortense was not really handsome—irregular features, a wide mouth exposing the gums and defective teeth, a blemish in her mother, whose faultless figure, kindly nature, and caressing manner she also inherited. She was lovely at the harp, and sang her own *romances* in a sweet voice."

—The *Nineteenth Century* for August is remarkable for contrasted articles on Egypt, as related to British "interests," by Mr. Edward Dicey and Mr. Gladstone, the latter having had the privilege of reading the former's article before writing his own. Mr. Dicey's article is, in fact, but a supplement to his previous contribution, entitled "Our Route to India," which appeared in the June number, and the gist of which he sums up thus: "The impending dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire, as a result of the Turco-Russian war, must inevitably expose our right of way to India through the Suez Canal to new and increased risks of interruption. Under the altered conditions of the

East the absolute control of the Suez Canal is essential to our hold on India. Such a control can, from the nature of the case, be only exercised by the power which is dominant in the Delta. Therefore the virtual occupation of Lower Egypt has become a matter of necessity for England." His article was, therefore, a plea for the immediate occupation of the Isthmus by England, and from the responses to it he believes that the ultimate possession of Egypt by England is generally regarded by his countrymen as a foregone conclusion, even if they do not recognize an urgent necessity for immediate action. To the objection that the proposed action of England would help Russia and hasten the downfall of Turkey, he answers that England in this matter has a right to consult her own interests irrespective of the effect of her actions upon either Turkey or Russia, and, moreover, he believes that Turkey, in her present straitened financial condition, would gladly cede to England, for a comparatively small sum—perhaps £6,000,000—the suzerainty of Egypt. In this, or in some other way if necessary, he thinks that Egypt might be secured without violence and without giving offence to France, and that it could be easily governed by making use of the machinery of the Khedive now in operation. Mr. Gladstone, in his reply, takes the unusual position for an Englishman that a retention of India is not essential to the national importance of England—that India, in fact, is held, as a matter of solemn duty, for India's good rather than England's ; and that the question of the continuance of England's power in India must be decided (he does not fix a day for taking a vote) by "the will of the two hundred and forty millions of people who inhabit India." He would not, again, regard British interests in the Suez Canal as necessarily endangered even if Russia took possession of Constantinople, and, at the worst, if England should lose the Suez Canal, is disposed to believe that she may get to India comfortably as in former days, by a voyage around the Cape. He argues, further, that the administration of Egyptian affairs would be a difficult matter, and would probably involve the extension of British rule over a large part of Northern Africa. In conclusion, he regards any scheme of this kind as of doubtful aspect "before the high tribunal of international law and right," and thinks it would be well to await the actual death of Turkey before beginning a division of its inheritance.

—The *American Naturalist* for August contains the address delivered by Mr. Clarence King at the Sheffield Scientific School on the 26th of June last, which demands attention of a different kind from that claimed by most oratorical productions. Mr. King is the head of the great National Survey on the line of the 40th parallel. After some twelve years of labor in the field he has nearly completed his work, and is prepared to give what is for practical purposes a complete geological section of the whole country between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean, a distance of nearly two thousand miles, of which the actual field-work covers nine hundred miles of mountainous country where geological forces have worked on a tremendous scale and under very favorable conditions. When it is remembered that the longest possible European section of continuous mountain elevations is not only far shorter than this, but far inferior for purposes of generalization, it will be seen that the Americans have a great advantage in the breadth of their view. This address of Mr. King's is, we believe, his first expression of opinion as to the bearings of his survey on the theory of his science, and the result is certainly calculated to rouse curiosity. It will be remembered even by unscientific readers that Sir Charles Lyell stamped on geology, and even upon ontology, as an axiom the principle that all changes, whether in the earth's crust or in the nature of species, have been the result of still existing forces acting through indefinite time by continuous but not violent modifications. Where geology or paleontology seems to show a violent interruption of continuity, the effect is really due to the imperfection of the geological record, of which we possess only small and unconnected fragments. This principle is also accepted by Mr. Darwin, although it forms no necessary part of the theory of evolution. It is therefore a matter of some consequence that Mr. King, whose field experience is greater than that of any European, and whose abilities are certainly entitled to high respect, should now assure us that the facts of our Western geology show the clearest proof of violent catastrophes recurring at intervals between periods of permanence, and in each case accompanied by a complete change in existing species. He maintains that in the face of the facts of our geology the uniformitarian theory breaks down and must be abandoned ; that the existence of geological catastrophes must be accepted as part of the science, and must be allowed to have had a considerable, if not a principal, effect on the evolution of species. His theory is that in these cataclysms only the most plastic species could survive. "When catastrophic change burst in upon the ages of uniformity and sounded in the ear of every living thing the words, 'Change or die,' plasticity became the sole principle of salvation." In other words, nature under this extreme exigency actually did proceed by what amounted to leaps, and this is the reason, not the defects in the geological record, why the leaps of biology correspond with the gaps of geology. Mr. King occupies a position which may be called one of "modified catastrophism," half-way between the extreme catastrophists and the extreme uniformitarians. In this address he has not ventured to speculate on the future nor to prophesy cataclysms to come, but he certainly leaves them to be inferred. Nor does he as yet suggest any theory as to the law or laws which may govern these recurring phenomena, without which he will have simply succeeded in depriving us of Lyell's system without offering us a system of his own. Probably his forthcoming report will deal at full length with all these questions, and at least sketch the outlines of a geological system which will correspond with the facts of the geological record. As a literary performance addressed to a general audience the only unfavorable criticisms suggested by the address are that its English is unnecessarily disfigured by what, as a matter of style, can only be called the jargon of science, and that the speaker has hardly taken care enough to guard against misconstruction.

—Prof. Budinszky, of the University of Czernowitz, has enlarged and published in book-form the thesis which he presented as a student in the *École des Chartes*, upon the history of the University of Paris ; it is in German and published at Berlin. The historical sketch is brief, and presents nothing essentially new ; but more than half the book is made up of a list of the most prominent of the teachers and students of the University, arranged according to nations—a compendious and very valuable list. The history of the University is traced back to various educational experiments in earlier times ; but its formal organization belongs to the reign of Philip Augustus, towards the close of the twelfth century. The organization in four nations and four faculties are clearly described—the same four faculties which the German Universities have at the present day, except that the faculty of Philosophy was called that of Arts, and ranked as somewhat lower than those of Theology, Medicine, and Law. The University of Paris, it is well known, ranked with that of Bologna as a chief seat of learning in the Middle Ages, being distinguished for theology as Bologna was for law : the instruction here, however, was censured, even at the time, for its leaning towards hair-splitting dialectics—a natural fault in an institution which made theology its principal aim.

—The contents of Steinmeyer's *Zeitschrift für deutsches Alterthum*, however valuable to the professional student, are usually of too special or technical a nature to interest the general reader. No. 3, for this year, however, has a long and valuable article upon a recent "find" which we judge worthy of note. The city librarian of Trier has succeeded in detaching the parchment covers from some *incunabula* in his custody, and Steinmeyer and Roediger have deciphered and edited the fragments. These fragments formed evidently part of a large manuscript of the XIIth century, and exhibit portions of German versions of the Ægidius and Sylvester legend, and of the well-known romance of 'Flore and Blancheflore.' The conclusions reached by Steinmeyer are very significant, and are briefly as follow : 1. The monkish legend being in High German and the romance in Low German, we have two distinct dialects side by side in the same document. 2. These remains of the romance are the earliest known in German, and afford additional evidence to the theory that the Lower Rhine was the intermediary between Mediæval French literature and the so-called classic High German of the South. 3. This close juxtaposition of monkish legend and worldly romance goes to show that the lives of the saints had ceased to be works of edification, and were becoming what we should now call "light literature."

—The territory to the south of Abyssinia, now known by the name of Harrar, but which formerly constituted the ancient Empire of Adel—a country equal in extent to the New England and Middle States—was in 1875 annexed to the dominions of the Khedive of Egypt. The recall of this land to civilization, after the lapse of many centuries, is an event of no slight historical interest. Having been for some time the theatre of the civilizing operations of the Pharaohs, afterwards overrun and held by the savages of Central Africa, the country was at length subjugated by the Arabs towards the close of the seventh century. The Arab chiefs founded and built up gradually the Empire of Adel—an empire which, by the energy of successive rulers, soon became a menace to, and finally conquered, the Kingdom of Ethiopia, and in the fourteenth century was strong enough to struggle on equal terms with the Kingdom of Abyssinia.

For two centuries wars were incessantly waged between Adel and Abyssinia. In the sixteenth century these wars were rendered more important by the participation of European nations. The Turks, having conquered Egypt and Arabia, and having taken possession of the city of Zeylah, provided their co-religionists in Adel with fire-arms, cannon, and a corps of artillerymen. On the other hand, the Portuguese, coming from India, furnished the Abyssinians with officers, soldiers, and arms. The history of these wars—a study of which, by the way, would amply repay the labor—is enriched by the daring exploits and feats of arms of Stephen and Christopher da Gama—brothers of the Da Gama who made himself so prominent in the Western hemisphere. Since the sixteenth century the principal seaports, Zeylah, Tajurra, Berbera, and Bulbar, have continued subject to the authority of the Turks, but the fortified city of Harrar was chosen as the seat of government of the Emir of Adel, or, as he was subsequently called, the Emir of Harrar. The emir was very powerful, and ruled with a strong hand the various tribes of Gallas and the Somāli who live between the city of Harrar and the coast, until the end of the seventeenth century. But as the tribes increased and became more powerful they refused any longer to pay to the emir the blackmail which was levied upon the caravans *en route* to and from the Central African lakes, and at last the entire country outside of the walls of Harrar became independent of his authority. The caravans, deprived of the protection which they had formerly been obliged to purchase from the emir, diminished in numbers, and thus the seaports suffered greatly from the loss of the wonted importation of slaves, ivory, ostrich-feathers, coffee, cattle, etc.

—Such was the state of affairs when, in 1871, the Porte conceded to the Khedive of Egypt the country bordering upon the coast between Zeylah and the Indian Ocean. The seaports were at once proclaimed by the Egyptian Government open to trade, with the exception of the exportation of slaves, which was prohibited under severe penalties. At Berbera a lighthouse, pier, hospital, and post-office were constructed, and the neighboring country surveyed, and an Egyptian vessel of war is always stationed in the harbor ; and this city, which five years ago was the scene of most sanguinary annual battles between native tribes, to settle which one should have the right to gather the harvest, now affords the securest protection to life and property. In the face of such a state of things on the coast, it was impossible that the country of Harrar could long remain in a state of utter barbarism, preventing free communication between the interior of the continent and the seaports. At the instance of traders who had been plundered, the Khedive in 1875 despatched a military expedition, under the command of General Raouf-Pasha, to Harrar, and the country was easily subdued and annexed to Egypt. To-day the ancient city of Harrar is the capital of an Egyptian province. Schools and a regular administration in all branches have been established, an accurate map of the city and its environs made, and a wagon road to the coast—about two hundred miles distance—is in course of construction. Harrar is of importance not only on account of its position commanding the communication with the interior, but also on account of the grain-producing capacity of the environs and the excellent pasturage for cattle. Coffee is also produced on the hills near Harrar of a quality equal if not superior to the celebrated Yemen coffee. The last Emir of Harrar had restricted the culture of coffee, assigning as his reason a fear "lest the production might be too large for the demand." The Egyptian Governor-General, however, is of course ordered to stimulate coffee-raising as much as possible, and it is very probable, if not certain, that the production will be enormously increased, and, when the wagon road is finished, can be transported to the seaports at a comparatively trifling cost. The tribes of Gallas in the neighboring country are large cattle-raisers, and in course of time this industry also will become a source of considerable revenue.

STEPHEN'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH THOUGHT IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.*

"WHO, born within the last forty years, has read one word of Collins, and Toland, and Tindal, and Chubb, and Morgan, and that whole race who called themselves Freethinkers ? Who now reads Bolingbroke ? Who ever read him through ? Ask the booksellers of London what is become of all these lights of the world. In a few years their few successors will go to the family vault of 'all the Capulets.'"

Mr. Leslie Stephen's admirable account of the course of English thought during the last century might fitly be described as an historical comment on the text supplied by Burke's insolent invective. What renders the text specially impressive is, that while literally true to the year, the inferences which it suggests have been falsified by later experience. Burke's language accurately describes the English sentiment in 1791. The term freethinker had become a term of contemptuous dislike. Men of common sense had given a distinct verdict in favor of conservatism in theology and in politics. The contests of a century had terminated in what the political slang of to-day calls the triumph of moral order. The triumph, moreover, was not short-lived. For at least forty years the predominant tone of society in England remained unchanged. Radicalism and scepticism were, till at least 1830, associated in the minds of respectable Englishmen with the horrors of the Reign of Terror and the vulgarity of Tom Paine. But the inference that scepticism in theology and the revolutionary spirit in politics had been not only checked but permanently defeated was, we now know, delusive. If Chubb and Morgan were dead and buried, the influence of Gibbon and Hume was only beginning to tell on English thought. The aristocratic constitution which Burke worshipped has kept its form, but has lost half the characteristics which excited his admiration ; and the most respectable writers of the nineteenth century do not hesitate to discuss topics which the older freethinkers only hesitatingly approached; while such publications, for example, as the *Contemporary Review* or the *Fortnightly* express month by month sentiments which in the time of Burke might have roused the interference of the attorney-general.

With the course of speculation in the nineteenth century Mr. Stephen is not directly concerned. But the first requisite for understanding the thoughts of the present time and for forming some conjecture as to the current of opinion in the future, is to know the direction taken by speculation in the last century and to understand the nature and significance of its results. To enable his readers to see both why English thought at the end of the last century resulted in what may be called, according to one's sympathies, either repose or stagnation ; and what is the just value to be attached to the conservatism with which the century ended in England, is, as we understand it, the task which Mr. Stephen has undertaken to perform. Of his qualifications for his performance it is scarcely possible to speak too highly. It were almost impertinence for any critic who did not, like Mr. Pattison, possess a knowledge of eighteenth-century literature equalling Mr. Stephen's own, to commend the extent of Mr. Stephen's knowledge. The thoroughness of his work, his studious intention and fairness, his keen sense of humor, which, combined with his keen perception of personal characteristics, enables him to give interest to the dry details of past controversies, are characteristics of Mr. Stephen which cannot escape the notice of intelligent readers. To this must be added that he sympathizes with that belief in reason and reasoning which constitutes the noblest trait of the authors of the eighteenth century. One may not think Mr. Stephen's arguments always conclusive, but he always does argue and never attempts to make ingenious insinuation fill the place of argument ; and, as we have already noticed, he has the merit, not always found in argumentative writers, of never forgetting that propounders of systems are, after all, human beings, and influenced, like other human beings, by the peculiarities of their situation or character. His fondness, indeed, for thinkers, who, like Johnson, Law, Tucker, or Godwin, have a marked personality, is almost excessive. It leads him, for example, considerably to overrate the importance of the speculations in which the author of 'Political Justice' displays his dogmatism and his speculative incapacity. It leads Mr. Stephen to dwell, perhaps, too long on the theories of Warburton, who, if hateful as a bully, certainly conciliates his critic by his outrageous crochetiness. The tendency, further, to dwell on personal characteristics, though it adds to the interest of Mr. Stephen's writing, increases the difficulty of following the course of his argument. There is no summary of the inferences which the author thinks flow from his narrative. The facts of the case are stated with great ability, and important conclusions are suggested ; but Mr. Stephen never definitely sums them up. Every one is left to return such a verdict on the thought of the eighteenth century as the facts suggest to his own mind. The general impression left upon us by Mr. Stephen's historical statement is distinct enough to be laid before our readers, but fairness requires the caution that, in attempting to give in bare outline the results of his narrative, we may be attributing to him inferences which are, after all, not his but our own.

The eighteenth century may, in England at least, be described as an age of which the natural development was arrested. Old institutions in church and state, old ideas in the sphere both of politics and of theology, were in England, no less than on the Continent, gradually crumbling

* 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century.' By Leslie Stephen. 2 vols. London : Smith, Elder & Co.; New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

away under the influence of a spirit which, according to the eyes with which you regard it, may be described either as the spirit of enlightenment or the spirit of scepticism. The influence of this spirit is, as Mr. Stephen is careful to point out, traceable in the writings as well of the orthodox as of sceptics. But the progress of opinion which in France led to the outbreak of democratic violence and irreligious fanaticism, conducted Englishmen to the firm though prosaic conservatism in church and state which professes to be based on the dictates of plain common sense. To account for these facts is the problem set before the critic of English thought. Mr. Stephen suggests, as we read him, several considerations which, if they do not solve, certainly point towards a solution of the enigma.

It should, in the first place, be noted that in all the great controversies which have divided the world men have never really proceeded from the explicit recognition of a general principle to an acceptance of all which that principle involves. What really happens is that some portion of an existing belief is questioned. From controversies about a detail men ultimately come to disputes about an extensive principle. "A new opinion emerges, as a rule, in regard to some particular fragment of a creed. An acute thinker detects an error of logic or a want of correspondence between theory and fact. Whilst correcting the error he does not appreciate the importance of the principles involved. . . . The normal attitude of thought is to be heterogeneous and therefore unstable. When the key of the position is won a battle must still be fought over every subordinate position. Philosophers, however," as Mr. Stephen characteristically adds, "may congratulate themselves upon the inconsistency of mankind, for if it were generally admitted that a principle which is true in one case must be true in all similar cases, philosophy would be crushed in the shell by the antipathies aroused." Whatever the value of the consolation tendered to philosophers, the importance of the principle expounded with great originality by Mr. Stephen is past question. It explains the fragmentary character of the controversies with which he deals. It further suggests a cause of weakness on the part of sceptics on isolated points even when they were in the right: they could not push their success far because they themselves admitted principles which were really inconsistent with the only position from which their sceptical criticism was defensible. No one, for example, whatever his theological views, would now rest his faith on the kind of argument used by Sherlock in his 'Trial of the Witnesses.' Yet the train of reasoning was one used by men of great honesty and ability, and one to which opponents found it hard to make a successful reply. Assume that the burden of proof lay on those who denied, and not on those who affirmed, the fact of miracles. Assume, further, that a religious creed must, if the facts which it asserted did not actually take place, have been the product of conscious imposture, and Sherlock's argument becomes unanswerable. Yet these assumptions were, it seems, granted by the great mass of Sherlock's opponents.

A second point curiously illustrated by the polemical literature of which the 'Trial of the Witnesses' is a type is that, during the eighteenth century, innovators were hampered by their own ignorance of what is called the historical method, or (as we should prefer to say) by want of knowledge of the facts of history. The existing institutions (to confine ourselves to the political sphere) were open enough to criticism; but the theories prevalent, based on the "rights of man," or the "social contract," could not hold water for a moment when questioned by any acute reasoner. This defect was felt, probably, by the advocates of change themselves. It was certainly felt by the public to whom their arguments were addressed. Men who attacked the English Constitution on the ground that it violated natural rights were easily shown to occupy an untenable position. When democrats assailed king, lords, and commons in the name of the social contract, it did not want the genius of Burke to rout the assailants and to suggest to men of common sense that exposure of Rousseau's fallacies was equivalent to a justification of the existence of rotten boroughs. The intellectual causes, in short, which hindered the success of innovation were, first, that revolutionary thinkers had not fully grasped the bearings of their own principles, and, secondly, that their historical ignorance rendered their speculative views erroneous. Even the acuteness of Hume was, as Mr. Stephen again and again points out, foiled by the latter cause. He tried to open a lock for which he did not possess the right key.

But the progress of speculation depends as much on social or political as on merely intellectual causes. "The logical strength and weakness of the various creeds which were struggling for the mastery during the eighteenth century go some way to explain the course of the intellectual history; but no explanation can be complete which does not take into account the social conditions which determined their reception." Nothing is more remarkable in Mr. Stephen's whole book than the tenacity with which this position is kept in mind, and the vigor with which it is enforced. Every speculative objection to the creed of Voltaire or Rousseau which checked its influence in England was of equal weight in France. It is vain to suppose that hundreds of Frenchmen could not have detected the fallacies which were equally patent to Bentham and to Burke. Godwin's 'Political Justice' would, if Godwin had been a Frenchman, have qualified its author, first, for the National Assembly, and, next, for the guillotine. In England it did not earn him even the honor of a prosecution, and brought down upon him the crushing refutation of Malthus.

Of the external influences which checked the spread of revolutionary scepticism in England several lie on the surface of English history. The social and political grievances which excited Frenchmen to hatred of all the institutions of their country were unknown to the prosperous and self-complacent middle-classes of England. Active persecution was unknown, and the abhorrence of priests wanted the irritation which keeps it alive. The fervor of Wesleyanism had, as Mr. Stephen points out, a political effect which has often been unnoticed. It turned the enthusiasm of the poor towards religious reformation, and thus diverted it from the sphere of politics. The eloquence and fervor of Whitefield might have aroused the revolutionary spirit, had it been applied to the exposition, not of the Gospel, but of Rousseau's social contract. The general political habits of Englishmen, tending, as such habits always must, to produce a spirit of compromise and moderation, was further adverse to extreme views, either in theology or in politics. When the great Revolution broke out, its horrors soon quenched the little revolutionary fervor to be found in English society, and other minor causes might be mentioned which promoted the growth of conservative sentiment. But while the obvious influences which favored conservatism in England ought not to be overlooked, a more general cause of reaction towards religious and political orthodoxy deserves observation. The different classes of society do not progress at the same rate. The poorer and less educated long retain prejudices or principles which have been rejected by the wealthier and therefore more educated classes. Even among the wealthy there are immense differences in the rate at which men's speculative opinions progress. Scientific notions which impress a few thinkers are scattered among their disciples and mould the thought of a small body; but beyond the sphere of a limited clique, sceptical or enlightened thought may have no influence. Wesley founded Methodism in the age of Hume and Gibbon. The men to whom he preached were, it may safely be assumed, uninfluenced by the speculations or the sneers contained in the 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.' But this unequal progression implies of itself constant reaction. Thinkers are compelled to stop their advance till the crowd catches up with them, and even the most ardent of sceptics must admit that this necessary delay often compels daring theorists to revise and get rid of crude speculations. What is the exception is for a whole nation apparently to move forward together. The revolutionary rush of France towards a new era represents not the normal but the exceptional course of progress. The usual and probably the most beneficial kind of advance is, as in England, marked by constant delays and occasional retrogression. The return towards conservative ideas which marks the close of the last century has more than a transitory importance. It exhibits to a certain extent the natural ebb and flow of feeling which in a peaceful society will always characterize the development of opinion. If France seemed in the space of a few years to effect alterations which in other countries have been carried out only in the course of centuries, the last seventy years have been spent in a hardly successful effort to bring the mass of Frenchmen up to the level of what was true and sound in the ideas of '89.

But though the influences, either internal or external, which arrested the vigor of English speculation may be analyzed, Mr. Leslie Stephen never forgets, or suffers his readers to forget, that the triumph of so-called common sense and of conservative sentiment over daring speculation and the spirit of change is always accompanied by great intellectual and moral evils. An age in which Warburton passed for a great theologian had, somehow or other, wandered very far from the path which must be pursued by men inspired either by keen religious fervor or by enthusiasm for truth. The intellectual and religious problems which occupy men's minds in the great eras of history cannot ultimately be set aside by any scheme of judicious compromise. "Many of our men of speculation," writes Burke, "instead of exploding general prejudices, employ their sagacity to discover the latent wisdom which prevails in them." In church, in state, in the sphere of theology and the sphere of politics, the century terminated in England as an age of apologists. The temporary answers to

inadequate criticism had a real value, but their worth could at best be only temporary. From Burke's language of triumph intelligent critics might infer, what Mr. Stephen's history conclusively shows, that the triumph could, from its nature, last but for a time. To contemn Tindal and Chubb and Morgan will not enable us to overlook the questions raised by writers whose works are forgotten. The failure of the eighteenth century to solve problems of infinite difficulty and infinite importance has not removed the necessity of attempting their solution.

BEYOND THE JORDAN.*

THE American Palestine Exploration Society has issued its Fourth Statement. As the explorations of the society seem now to be practically suspended, there being no surveying party in the field and the archæologist having returned to this country, this number may be considered as for the present concluding the society's reports. Colonel James C. Lane was the commander of the last party of exploration for survey, and he seems to have been allowed only to make a reconnoissance. His report treats of the character of the country east of the Jordan and the methods of survey which may be feasible. Of the eight thousand square miles in the territory, he finds nearly half to be either mountainous or almost impracticable for travel or residence from the prevalence of ragged volcanic rocks and boulders. The yearly cost of carrying on the survey for three years he calculates at $27,000. This seemed to the managers of the society quite an impracticable amount to raise in these times, and the company of surveyors was recalled.

The bulk of this 'Statement,' however, is taken up with two reports of the archæologist, Selah Merrill, D.D. The first covers the trip made with Colonel Lane, and the second another trip made in the spring of 1876. We wish we could speak of it with more hearty praise, but we have been able to find in it very little that is fresh or valuable. In the first trip Dr. Merrill follows the lead of Burckhardt, Wetzstein, and especially Porter, and simply accepts without much critical examination their conclusions; and few things call for comment. Dr. Merrill follows Porter in making Salchad the Biblical Salcah, but the fact that the Arabic writers call it Sarchad throws some doubt on this identification. Bozrah is spoken of as "the seat of an archbishop." He was rather a metropolitan or "primate," as Porter calls him in his guide-book. Of the view from Siaghah, which Dr. Merrill's predecessor, Professor J. A. Paine, has identified with Pisgah, he says very depreciatingly: "The view of the Dead Sea from this peak is poor and disappointing compared with the magnificent view one has of it from Jebel Osha. From 'Siaghah' only a section of the western part is visible." This is an extremely strange statement on the face of it. Siaghah stands over the end of the Dead Sea and takes in the greater part of the northern portion as far south as Masada. Jebel Osha, or Ausha, overhangs the middle Jordan valley, against the Damieh ford, in the range of Nablous, twenty-five miles from the Dead Sea, and there is visible from it only a comparatively small portion of the northern end under Ras Feshkhah, and only as a dim water surface blending in the haze over the sea, and extremely indistinct in the distance. If Dr. Merrill had ever visited Jebel Osha we do not see how he could have fallen into such an error. The "Wady Sur" (p. 15) of Dr. Merrill has nothing, as he imagines, to do with the castle of Sur near it, built by Hyrcanus, but is a quite different Arabic word, and should be written Wady Seir, or Saïr.

Dr. Merrill's second trip was made a year later, and more might properly be expected from it. But we are disappointed at the lack of discovery, and pained to notice the omission of credit which should be given to previous writers. On p. 75 he identifies Fik with Hippos. But no reason is given why the ordinary identification of Fik with Aphek and Husn with Hippos, as first made by Burckhardt, should not hold. Dr. Merrill's most successful study is of the hot springs of the Jordan valley. That at Mkaibeh appears to be new, as well as the beautiful lake Birket-el-Araies near it. The hot spring found near Fah'l seems to be also new, and the remarks about Herod's visit to the springs of Livias are sound. The most probable identification made is that of Miryamin with Jabesh Gilead. It is of the right distance from Pella, if Fah'l be Pella. Less happy seems to be the identification of Kurkama with Karkor; but Kurkama is only two miles from the Jordan, quite too near to account for the "security" of the remnant of the Midianite host. Josephus represents it as "a great way off" from the scene of Gideon's victory. We do not remember the statement which Dr. Merrill forgets the authority for, (but says, "I think it is from Ptolemy"), that "the springs at Callirrhoë were often confounded with those at Libias." Ptolemy is an accessible writer, and only gives lists of towns with longitudes and latitudes. He gives these as distinct places ten miles apart. Dr. Merrill's geology is sadly at fault in what he has to say about the tells or mounds of the Jordan valley. "Some of these," he declares, "are artificial, beyond dispute." They are, however, mere littoral mounds, too abundant to furnish any temptation to make artificial ones. Warren found that to be the character of those which he opened near Jericho. The stones "which crop out of the ground here and there" upon them are generally mere burial-stones of the Arabs. The statement that there are no such mounds at the south end of the Dead Sea is without authority. Dr. Merrill's most valued identification appears to be that of Tell Ektanu with Zoar. Just where Tell Ektanu is we are not accurately told, only that it is "nearer the mountains of Moab than any of the others" of four *Tells*. This lack of exactness is a prevailing feature. The only reasons given for the identification are that it is almost one of the foot-hills, and that the word *Ektanu*, which "has no meaning in Arabic," "appears to be the Hebrew word *Katan*, which means *little* or *the little one*"—the well-known meaning of Zoar. We have examples of a translation of a name out of one language into another, as of Mahanaim into Parembole, and Capitolias into Er-Ras, but the exchange of one Hebrew name for another is not likely to have occurred, and no example of it is known. Besides, *Ektanu* and the Hebrew *Katan* have the same radical letters only in their English transcription, the *t* of *Ektanu* being *tav* and the *t* of *Katan* being *teth*—two letters which never interchange. The line of singular pits which Dr. Merrill hesitates about identifying with the "slime-pits" of Gen. xiv. 10, are doubtless modern, and it would take scarcely a century to fill them up. Geology is not one of the accomplishments of Dr. Merrill, otherwise he might have told us that the dolmens near Tell Ektanu are of a hard, ferruginous sandstone. His provoking inexactness of description is illustrated by his account of these dolmens, in which not one dimension or distance is given:

"Between Tell Ektanu and Tell-el-Hammam, and close to the foot of the mountains, there are some of the largest and finest dolmens that I have ever seen. The slabs of unhewn stone which cover them are in some cases of immense size. I counted upwards of fifteen of these, and where they were nearly perfect, the roof or cover slanted on two sides, so far as this could be with the materials used, and it appeared to me quite evident that the dolmens were the original of the sarcophagi with which the country abounds."

The conjecture as to the origin of the sarcophagi is new to us, but these dolmens do not appear to have been used for burial purposes, but for protection against sun and rain. They are rude shelters, consisting of two parallel slabs from eight to twelve feet long and four and a half high, and as far apart, closed at one end by a third stone, and covered by a fourth which projects considerably over the other three. They are generally open to the east, and they have a low, flat stone seat near the end furthest from the opening. They are found in clusters of a half-dozen or so in the Jordan valley, while on the eastern highlands they are sometimes found as many as a hundred and fifty together. They were first described by Irby and Mangles, and De Saulcy has described and figured perhaps these very ones of which Dr. Merrill speaks—certainly some within a mile or two; while the English Consul Finn and Mrs. Beke have described others quite as fine on Jebel Ajlun. Dr. Merrill's heedlessness of geology appears in the next paragraph, in which he describes "an immense circular stone," such as Professor Paine has called "solar disks," and has conjectured to have been used in the worship of Baal. "The kind of stone," says Dr. Merrill, "is unlike any in the hills about, and I judge it must have been brought from the north." If he had told what kind of stone it is, we could have better judged of that point, for the hills about offer a very large assortment of rocks. On the hills within a mile or two of Tell Ektanu may be found limestone, both ordinary and silicious, chalk, gypsum, and alabaster, sandstone, ironstone, and black basalt, besides tufa on the plain, and calcareous conglomerate in the valleys. Those found by Professor Paine were of the silicious limestone of the region (in one case of sandstone), and this was doubtless hewn from the stone of the neighborhood.

This same tantalizing indefiniteness is found in Dr. Merrill's promised identifications, for which no evidence is offered, and no indication how far they are original. Thus, he merely says: "Ramoth Gilead, I think, can be identified beyond dispute with Jerash." It was so identified by Parchi, a Jewish writer of the fourteenth century. Ewald says it was in this vicinity, and Howard Crosby has put it here. But not one reason is

* 'Palestine Exploration Society. Fourth Statement. East of the Jordan. The Jordan Valley. The Cities of the Plain.' New York. 1877.

given by Dr. Merrill for his identification, and no intimation that anybody else has done the same. Perhaps he did not know of it. Beeshterah, he adds, is the modern village of Bisherah, or Bish'rah. Now, Dr. Merrill mistakes the present name, which is not Bisherah, but Bethira, as Seetzen correctly calls it; and this was identified by Kruse, and afterwards by Ritter, with the Bathyra of Josephus, which it certainly is. But of their identification we have not a word, and no evidence is given to show that Beeshterah was in this vicinity. Where authorities are cited there seems to be very little added of value as the fruit of the hasty trip through the country. A considerable number of Greek and Latin inscriptions not in Waddington appear to have been collected, but these have not yet been published.

Altogether, the chief fruit of this expedition thus far appears to be the beautiful collection of large photographs taken at "Bozrah," Amman, Jerash, Kunawat, Um-el-Jemal (Beth-gamul ?), Heshbon, Arak-el-Emir, and especially Meshita, the photographs of which are extremely fine, and show us the highly ornamented façade which Fergusson and Tristram call Persian, but which is more probably Byzantine. The titles accompanying the photographs are, we notice, in two or three cases disarranged. The archæologist's report strangely omits all account of Meshita, a place of which we are very anxious to know more. The work undertaken by the American Palestine Exploration Society is an extremely important one; the field is rich beyond description in archæological interest, and sure to yield abundant fruit to capable explorers. When the work of the society is resumed, it would be well to give almost exclusive attention to the making of a map of the country, which is an acquisition very much to be desired.

Notes on the Settlement and Indian Wars of the Western Parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania, from 1763 to 1783, inclusive. Together with a view of the state of society and manners of the first settlers of the Western country. By Joseph Doddridge. With a memoir of the author by his Daughter. Edited by Alfred Williams. (Albany, N. Y.: Joel Munsell. 1876. 12mo, pp. 331.)—Dr. Doddridge, the author of these notes, was born in Pennsylvania in 1769, and died in 1826; the reminiscences of the Indian wars between 1763 and 1783, therefore, rank as first-hand authority, not as being the narrative of an eye-witness, but as taken down by the author from the mouths of persons who themselves participated in them. The book is in every sense a valuable addition to Mr. Munsell's republications. There is, however, little incident except in the closing chapters (fifteen in number, with an appendix), which treat of the Indian wars; in the other chapters the author puts down his recollections chiefly in the form of observations, describing in general terms the manners and customs of the time, the climate and productions of the country, and such other matters as impressed themselves upon his memory. Dr. Doddridge, an Episcopal clergyman, possessed considerable learning and a rather discursive turn of mind. The book contains, therefore, as is natural, considerable matter which was interesting enough at the time but is devoid of permanent value; for example, quite a long discussion upon the origin of the Indians, valuable to us only for such incidental bits of information as it imparts. For the rest, along with the detailed recital of Indian atrocities, the book contains enough examples of injustice and aggression on the part of the whites to show that we have but inherited our policy towards the Indians from our fathers. Testimony is given also to the savage punishments inflicted upon slaves in Maryland and Virginia.

The memoir by Miss Narcissa Doddridge gives an interesting sketch of the life of a pioneer clergyman in Western Virginia and Eastern Ohio.

A Practical Treatise on Water-Supply Engineering. By J. T. Fanning, C.E. (New York: D. Van Nostrand. 8vo, pp. 619.)—This book is, as all practical hand-books must be, a compilation of scientific and practical discovery and experience in matters relating to its subject. Its range covers the whole field, and the treatment is classified under the following divisions: 1. Collection and storage of water, and its impurities; 2. Flow of water through sluices, pipes, and channels; 3. Practical construction of water-works. Each of these divisions of the subject is treated in an exhaustive manner, and the whole work is so fully illustrated, and so replete with tables and formulæ, that it constitutes a valuable addition to the professional library. Indeed, it contains what one was hitherto obliged to seek through a mass of local reports, and to classify (and to qualify) with a judgment which beginners often lack. Its chief value is for those for whom it was especially written, namely, "those who have already had a task assigned them, and who, as commissioner, engineer, or assistant, are to proceed at once upon their reconnoissance and surveys, and the preparation of plans for a public water supply."

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Continued from page iv.

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CLASSICAL AND COMMERCIAL HIGH School. H. & S. M. HAMILL. Next school year begins 11th of Sept., 1877.

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NEW JERSEY, Morristown.
*MISS E. ELIZABETH DANA having re*moved her French and English Boarding-school for young ladies from Dobb's Ferry, on the Hudson, to Morristown, N. J., will reopen on Wednesday, Sept. 19.
Terms, for board and tuition in English, French, and Latin, $360 per annum.

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MORRISTOWN BOARDING-SCHOOL for Boys (30 miles from N. Y.) Rev. S. N. HOWELL, A.M.

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MRS. M. S. PARK'S FAMILY AND DAY School for Young Ladies and Little Girls reopens Sept. 19.

NEW JERSEY, New Brunswick.
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LOCKWOOD'S ACADEMY, for both sexes —Reopens September 11, 1877.

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PACKER COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.— The thirty-first year will begin Sept. 12, 1877. The institution is furnished with complete and extensive apparatus in every department, as well for instruction in Music, Painting, and the Languages as in the regular course. Pupils from abroad will find a pleasant home in the family connected with the Institute. For circulars apply to A. CRITTENDEN, Principal.

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DWIGHT SEMINARY, for Young Ladies. —Send for circular to BENJAMIN W. DWIGHT.

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COOK ACADEMY.—Certificate of Principal admits to Vassar College without examination. Expenses, $200 per year. Fall term begins Sept. 3. Address A. C. WINTERS, A.M., Principal.

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NEW YORK, Mt. Morris.

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NEW YORK, North Granville.

GRANVILLE MILITARY ACADEMY— Successor to Stamford Institute. Healthiest climate, elegant building, steam heat, cheerful home, no temptations. Earnest work for boys fitting for college, science or business. Twenty-eighth year begins Sept. 11. Send for Catalogue to WALLACE C. WILLCOX, A.M., President.

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NEW YORK, Peekskill.

PEEKSKILL MILITARY ACADEMY.— Opens September 12. Send for circular.

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NEW YORK, Port Chester, Westchester Co.

A BOARDING-SCHOOL for 25 Boys.— O. WINTHROP STARR, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.

POUGHKEEPSIE FEMALE ACADEMY. Rev. D. G. WRIGHT, Rector.

A first-class school in every respect. The teachers in the several departments are accomplished and experienced. The facilities for a thorough and finished education are second to none, while no effort is spared to make this a refined, Christian, and happy home for pupils.

For circulars containing terms, references, etc., please address the Rector, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.

VASSAR COLLEGE — Fall Session opens September 19, 1877.

Entrance examinations September 19, 20, and 21.

Catalogues, with full particulars, may be had of the undersigned.

The Department of Music, Drawing, and Painting will be open hereafter as a school for special instruction in those arts.

For circular containing full information apply to

W. L. DEAN, Registrar.

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PARK INSTITUTE.—For Boys. Reopens Sept. 11. HENRY TATLOCK, A.M., Principal.

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NEW YORK, Rye, Westchester Co.

RYE SEMINARY for YOUNG LADIES. —Address Mrs. S. J. LIFE

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KEARSARGE SCHOOL FOR BOYS. FREDERICK THOMPSON, Principal.

NEW YORK, Sing Sing.

OSSINING INSTITUTE for Young Ladies will reopen Sept. 18.

Regular collegiate course. Languages, Music, and Painting. Terms moderate.

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NEW YORK, Syracuse.

KEBLE SCHOOL, for Girls, under the supervision of the Rt. Rev. F. D. Huntington, S.T.D., Bishop of Central New York. The first term of the seventh year will begin September 12, 1877. For circulars address MARY J. JACKSON.

NEW YORK, Syracuse, Olive, cor. Wallace Streets.

SYRACUSE CLASSICAL SCHOOL.— Classics, modern languages, and English thoroughly taught to both sexes. W. C. GINN, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown, Main Street, next door to the National Bank.

MISS McDONALD, of 788 Broadway, New York, will teach Drawing and Water-Colors from Nature in Tarrytown during the summer. Terms $40 for twenty lessons of one hour each at the pupil's residence; $20 for twenty lessons at Miss McDonald's rooms. Payable in advance. A reduction will be made for classes.

NEW YORK, Tivoli-on-the-Hudson.

TRINITY SCHOOL.—Healthful location; home comforts; thorough training; assiduous care of health, manners, and morals; bad boys excluded. For catalogue address the Rev. JAMES STARR CLARK, D.D., Rector.

NEW YORK, Troy.

RENSSELAER POLYTECHNIC INSTI- tute. A School of Civil Engineering.

NEW YORK, Unionville, Orange Co.

FAMILY SCHOOL for BOYS.—Offers a safe and pleasant home and thorough preparation for any college or for business. S. S. HARTWELL, A.M.

NEW YORK, Utica.

MRS. PLATT'S SCHOOL for Young Ladies. —Fall term begins Sept. 17.

NEW YORK, Utica.

UTICA'S SCHOOL for Young Ladies.—Fall term begins September 18. Mrs. PIATT, late of Norwich, Conn., Principal.

NEW YORK, White Plains, Westchester Co.

ALEXANDER INSTITUTE. — Military Boarding-School. Principal, O. R. WILLIS, Ph.D.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

COLLEGIATE SCHOOL fits thoroughly for Yale and Harvard. Modern languages. Home comforts combined with school discipline.

E. F. BLISS, A.M., Rev. J. BABIN, A.B., } Principals.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

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Rev. DAVID H. MOORE, D.D., President.

OHIO, Yellow Springs, Greene Co.

ANTIOCH COLLEGE, embracing College, High School, and Free Normal School. Opens the fall term September 12, 1877. Address S. C. DERBY, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Andalusia, Bucks Co.

POTTER HALL.—A Home Boarding School for Little Boys, on New York Division of Pennsylvania Railroad, two and a half hours from New York.

Location delightful and healthful.

Doctor's bill, only two dollars for entire school for the year ending June, '77.

Charges moderate.

Next terms begins September 10.

A. N. ARMS, jr., Principal.

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LEHIGH UNIVERSITY. — Tuition free. Civil, Mechanical, and Mining Engineering; Chemistry and Metallurgy; full Classical Instruction; French and German; English Literature; International and Constitutional Law; Psychology and Christian Evidences.

For registers address

The Rev. JOHN M. LEAVITT, D.D., President.

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PENNSYLVANIA MILITARY ACA- demy opens September 12.

Location healthful; grounds ample; buildings commodious.

Thorough instruction in Civil Engineering, the Classics, and English.

Careful supervision of Cadets.

For circulars apply to Col. THEO. HYATT, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Downingtown, Chester Co.

MB. THOMAS'S SISTERS' formerly Mary B. Thomas & Sisters', School. The fall term will begin 17th, ninth mo. (Sept.), 1877.

PENNSYLVANIA, Germantown.

GERMANTOWN ACADEMY will commence its 117th school year Sept. 10, 1877, under entirely new management, the following officers having been elected by the Board of Trustees:

WM. KERSHAW, A.M., Principal;
M. C. KIMBER, Vice-Principal.

Every exertion will be made to restore the former high standard and reputation of the Academy, and to render it in all respects a thorough training school for our best colleges and universities.

Applications to be addressed to WM. KERSHAW, Principal, Apsley Street, Germantown.

PENNSYLVANIA, Germantown.

MADAME CLEMENT'S SCHOOL for Young Ladies and Children.—Established in 1857. The Fall Session will begin on Wednesday, Sept. 19. For circulars apply to the Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Germantown, West Chelten Avenue, below Wayne Street.

MISS MARY E. STEVENS'S, formerly Miss Mary E. Aertsen and Miss Mary E. Stevens's, School for Young Ladies, will reopen Sept. 19, 1877. Scholars prepared for the Harvard Examinations for Women.

PENNSYLVANIA, Haverford College P. O.

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PENNSYLVANIA, Media, Delaware Co., thirteen miles from Philadelphia.

BROOKE HALL Female Seminary opens Sep- tember 17.

For catalogues apply to M. L. EASTMAN, Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Media.

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PENNSYLVANIA, Nazareth, Northampton Co.

NAZARETH HALL.—Boarding-School for Boys.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1527 and 1529 Spruce Street.

CHEGARAY INSTITUTE (Founded 1814), for Young Ladies and Misses, reopens September 20. Board and tuition in Latin, English, and French, per annum, $400. French is the language of the family. Madame D'HERVILLY Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1350 Pine Street.

MISS ANABLE'S BOARDING and DAY School will reopen Sept. 19

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1327 Spruce Street.

SCHOOL OF VOCAL ART, under the direc- tion of Madam E. SEILER, author of 'The Voice in Singing' and 'The Voice in Speaking,' will be reopened for the season of 1877 and 1878 on the 24th of September. For circulars apply or address as above.

PENNSYLVANIA, Pottstown, Montgomery Co.

COTTAGE SEMINARY for Young Ladies. —The twenty-eighth annual session begins on the 13th Sept., 1877. For catalogues, apply to GEO. G. BUTLER, A.M., Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Pottstown, Montgomery Co.

"THE HILL" SCHOOL—Preparatory to Col- lege and University.—Twenty-seventh year begins Sept. 12. Superior location, equipment, library, gymnasium. Careful supervision and home culture. Designed to give thorough and critical preparation for college. References: President Porter, Yale College; President Cattell, Lafayette; President McCosh, Princeton; Justice Strong, U. S. Supreme Court.

JOHN MEIGS, Ph.D., Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Swarthmore, Delaware Co., 10 miles from Philadelphia.

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, under care of Friends, gives a thorough collegiate education to both sexes, who pursue the same courses of study and receive the same degrees. Total expenses, including tuition, board, washing, use of books, etc., $350 a year. No extra charges. For catalogue giving full particulars as to courses of study, etc., address

EDWARD H. MAGILL, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, West Chester.

MISS SMITH'S SCHOOL for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 19. Eight young ladies will be received into the family. Address P. FRAZER SMITH.

TEXAS, Henderson.

HENDERSON COLLEGE.—Gentlemen in the Southwest who desire to have their sons thoroughly educated, or prepared for any of the Eastern universities, should address OSCAR H. COOPER, B.A. (Yale), Principal.

VERMONT, Bellows Falls.

ST. AGNES'S HALL—A Church School for Girls. Miss JANE HAPGOOD, Principal. See *Nation*, No. 632.

VIRGINIA, Botetourt Springs.

HOLLINS INSTITUTE, in the mountains of Southwest Virginia, is the most extensively equipped School for Girls and Young Ladies in the State. Its Faculty is able and numerous. The ensuing session will open on the 19th of September. Apply for catalogues to CHAS. L. COCKE, Sup't.

VIRGINIA, Lexington.

WASHINGTON & LEE UNIVERSITY. Gen. G. W. C. LEE, President.—Full courses of instruction in Classical, Literary, and Scientific studies, and in the Professional departments of Law and of Civil Engineering.

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For full information by catalogue or circular, address

WALTER BOWIE, Clerk of Faculty.

VIRGINIA, Salem, Roanoke Co. (in the Mountains).

ROANOKE COLLEGE. — Expenses for 9½ mos., $160 to $240. College prosperous. For catalogue address Secretary of Faculty.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 6, 1877.

The Week.

THE neglect or refusal of Mr. A. B. Cornell either to retire from his several political positions or to resign his office as naval officer of this port, in pursuance of the President's order respecting the civil service, has become, within the past week, almost a national scandal. Some of the Washington correspondents tell us that his obstinacy is owing to his desire to offer himself as a "test case" of the right of all American citizens to exercise political leadership, and that he intends to appeal to the Senate, under the Tenure-of-office Act, if any attempt is made to remove him. Since somebody must make the fight for the privilege of all American citizens to be leaders in politics he can serve as well as anybody, and certainly better than any obscure weigher of sugar or gauger of distilled spirits who presides over his humble ward association. Mr. Cornell represents a principle, or thinks he does, and Mr. Hayes represents a different one. The two are in antagonism and must come in violent collision with each other soon. It will be understood, of course, that when the "test case" is made it will be between Senators representing the spoils system in politics and the President representing civil-service reform. It is desirable, however, that the office-holder selected for the test should be one of sufficient prominence to fix the attention of the country, and if Mr. Cornell has selected himself for that distinction no friend of civil-service reform ought to object. If he persists, therefore, in retaining his political leadership, the President must consider him as the representative of the consolidated opposition to his civil-service policy, and must remove him from office be the consequences what they may. To order his removal and then to see him reinstated or retained by the non-concurrence of the Senate would be an excellent way to clear the field for a more decisive action, in which the whole people should participate. If the people do not want civil-service reform this would be the right way to find it out. On the other hand, to allow Mr. Cornell to defy the order with impunity would break down the Administration in respect of this particular policy and weaken it in every other.

There can be little doubt that the President's order is the "particular measure" of civil-service reform which will receive the combined attacks of the machine politicians in both Houses. That Mr. Conkling will not be found deserting his friend Mr. Cornell on this issue is not only a matter of reasonable conjecture, but may be regarded as confirmed by the noble Senator's remarks at Oswego the other day. He was addressing the "veterans, soldiers of the Army and Navy now living in Oswego County," and after mentioning the need of "earnestness of purpose in public and private affairs," and other needs more or less vague or trite, said, not obscurely:

"The way to ensure some of these things is for every man, whatever may be his occupation or position, to give some thought and action to public affairs; this is the bounden duty of every citizen whatsoever, and it is the only mode under our system of government in which that system can be made effectual and just. It was to ensure this right to every man to be heard in the public counsels, and to be counted in the majority whose judgment is the final decision in a republic, that these veterans fought and suffered. On this veterans' day it cannot be amiss to remind you how high is the obligation to discharge the duty and to assert and exercise the right for which they did and endured so much."

Brigham Young died on the 29th of last month, after a short and violent illness, at the age of seventy-six, leaving the Mormon church without a head. His death has led to some discussion of his character and of speculation as to the future of Mormonism. As to the former, there does not seem to be much doubt that he belonged to a well-known type frequently found in other churches, and only singular to us because of the singularity of the growth of any new religion in a country like the United States. He was a man of strong will and cool intellect, ignorant enough to be near the level of the ignorant dupes whom he governed, and wise enough to know how to make their ignorance contribute to his own advantage. Joseph Smith, who founded the Mormon religion, was a very different man, with something of the mingled fanaticism and love of imposture that we expect to find in Asiatic religions. Brigham Young was, on the contrary, a bold, practical, and unscrupulous man, a ready speaker and good leader. It is difficult, however, to select language which shall adequately describe him, because the extreme lowness of the level of Mormon civilization puts it almost beyond the pale of criticism. The cold-blooded Mountain Meadows massacre, for which Lee was shot a short time ago, was traced almost directly to Young, and it is impossible to read the sickening details of it without feeling that it was natural that a community responsible for such crimes should be at first regarded more as an organized band of criminals hostile to society at large than as a constituent part of even a semi-civilized state. But from another point of view the Mormons and Brigham Young may almost be regarded as public benefactors. Their settlement at Salt Lake, and their systematic colonization from Europe, have peopled Utah, while their development of the resources of the Territory has been thorough and intelligent. Mormonism has not been in existence long enough to modify essentially the characteristics of the followers of the new faith, and with the cessation of polygamy (which is said already to be gradually dying out), and the introduction of railroads, the difference between Mormon and Gentile will gradually fade away, and Utah become like other Western communities, with the exception that it will possess a peculiar religion no more dangerous to society than that of the Shakers.

The Investigating Committee of the South Carolina Legislature, which, as we announced several weeks ago, had succeeded in procuring warrants for the arrest of Moses, Cardozo, and others, has steadily pursued its task of unearthing the rascalities of carpet-bag government, and the first fruits of its labors can be seen in the large number of indictments, just issued by the Grand Jury of the Court of General Sessions, against most of the notorious members of the mob of plunderers who for nearly eight years ruled the State. The indictments (the Grand Jury having thus far found a true bill in every case) are chiefly for bribery, conspiracy to cheat the State, and forgery, and over twenty different indictments have sometimes been brought against one man, as L. Cass Carpenter, for instance, who was concerned with Jones and Woodruff in the printing frauds. Thus far bench-warrants have been issued for the arrest of Gleaves (Lieutenant-Governor and President of the Senate), for the issue of fraudulent pay certificates; Montgomery (President *pro tem.* of the Senate), for the same offence; Jones (Clerk of the House) and Woodruff (Clerk of the Senate), for the same and for forgery; Moses (Speaker and Governor), for the same and for bribery; Parker (Treasurer), for paying money on forged warrants and for breach of trust; Jacobs (Teller of the South Carolina Banking Co.), for forgery; Patterson (United States Senator), for bribery; Scott (Governor), for conspiracy to cheat the State; and Kimpton (New York Agent for South Carolina bonds), Dunn (Comptroller-General), and Cardozo (Treasurer), for various offences. In addition, Lee (Speaker), Dennis, Rivers, Leslie, Owens, Whittemore, Swails, Hayne, Beverly Nash, Hoge, and Davidson, former members of the Legislature, have been indicted for bribery or other crimes; and it is said that a large number of indictments against other persons will be presented at the next session of the Court.

The general nature of the charges against many of the above is matter of notoriety. Jones and Woodruff, for instance, were not only clerks of the House and Senate respectively, but at the same time co-partners in business as the Republican Printing Company. As men of business, they brought in bills against the State for printing, and, as State officers, directed the bills to be paid, etc. The precise nature of the evidence against all the indicted is not yet known, as the meetings of the Investigating Committee have been secret, but that it is probably sufficient for conviction is shown by the finding of true bills in each case by a jury composed of nine white and eight colored men, twelve being necessary to find a bill. Moses, Lee, and Jones, and perhaps one or two others, appear to have turned state's evidence, and Lee, Rivers, and Dennis will testify in nearly all cases of bribery. Concerning Moses the story is told that when Speaker, and afterwards when Governor, he made a collection of papers implicating prominent politicians of both parties, and that this collection, having been remarkably preserved in the unused drawer of a hat-rack, is now in possession of the Committee. The greater number of those indicted have fled the State, and their capture is highly problematical.

City politics are this autumn more than usually confused; and the probabilities are that the honest citizen will consequently be less than usually able to vote conscientiously without a careful revision and reconstruction of the various tickets put in the field. In the Republican camp there is much discontent. There is apparently an open breach between the Administration and Mr. Conkling; many able and efficient "workers" have been thrown out of employment or have "struck" since the Custom-House report, and many more, who lately ran primaries and fixed conventions, have had their political activity paralyzed by the civil-service order. On the other hand, the same causes which have created this dissatisfaction among the politicians have caused much rejoicing among the better class of Republicans, who see in Senator Conkling's mystic utterances on the subject of rapid transit in London and New York renewed evidence that the party is not to be led by him in the future, and in the reforms instituted a promise that the "machine" is to be finally disestablished.

Among the Democrats there is by no means that harmony which ought to prevail, or which, last fall, when the Presidency was at stake, could be made at least to seem to prevail by careful leaders. Tammany Hall, led by Kelly, has not proved at all what from the "boss's" frequent announcement of the excellence of his intention, we were led to expect. It is still threatened by anti-Tammany, and the behavior of Kelly during the past six months in trying to fill all the departments with his own creatures has not been at all satisfactory to independent men. The intestine difficulties of Tammany have been heightened by the struggle over the police commissionership, into which Kelly tried a short time since to get his friend Purroy. Had he succeeded, Purroy would have been there at the time of the strike, and it is not too much to say that a great city cannot afford to have Purroy and a strike at the same time. What would have happened had the police force, instead of being presided over by a trained and faithful army officer, had at its head a common ward politician, a natural friend of the dangerous classes, it is impossible to say. But the termination of the struggle over this office has not, as we say, tended to allay the jealousies which are rife among the Democrats. The Germans are dissatisfied and indignant, while the city debt does not show that steady process of reduction which warrants any hope of speedy alleviation of the burdens of taxation. Kelly has just produced a budget in which he shows that he is reducing it, but as his main reliance seems to be the old one of a sinking fund, consisting of the public squares and buildings (the sale of which, it may be observed, would be a rather novel experiment in municipal government), we cannot say that the workingman has any strong grounds for hope.

This condition of affairs is favorable only to one thing, and that is an independent movement to secure good candidates for the various local and State offices to be filled. A little active pressure would force on either party the nomination of such men, and would give us some chance of securing from the Legislature proper action on the constitutional amendments proposed by Governor Tilden's commission. These were passed by the last Legislature, but they cannot be voted upon by the people until they have been favorably acted upon by two successive legislatures. At present the only chance of their passage this year seems to be the election of a Republican legislature, as the Democrats have not only shown no interest in the matter, but have voted almost unanimously at every stage to prevent their going to the people at all. The importance of their passage now can hardly be exaggerated. Their incorporation into the constitution would put an end, at least in a great measure, to the "boss" government under which we have suffered so long, and would give the tax-payers at least a veto on the maladministration of the public funds which they themselves contribute. The reforms which they would introduce are reforms longed for by nearly everybody in this city who has any property, and is not subject to the loathsome disease which causes professional politicians to see in every attempt to make government pure and its burdens easy an "aristocratic" tendency; and yet they are reforms which, unless some organized effort is made to pass them, will almost certainly be killed by the sinister interests which dictate a continuance of our present wasteful and wicked system of communism.

We failed last week to find room for an account of the important proceedings of the National Board of Trade, which began its annual meeting at Milwaukee on the 21st of August. The first subject brought up was the navigation laws, and a series of resolutions offered by a Boston delegate called for their repeal, and for the admission of foreign-built ships to American registration. The debate upon this question, which occupied nearly the whole of one day, showed that the navigation laws, originally enacted in the interest of seamanship, have ceased to have any value or importance in that regard, and are now maintained wholly for the protection of shipbuilders, serving as a prohibitory tariff for that interest. A Philadelphia delegate asserted that iron ships could be built more cheaply on the Delaware than on the Clyde (which we believe is the fact), and urged that as a reason for continuing the prohibition. The Board considered it a better reason for dropping it, for although the Protectionists did most of the talking they mustered only nine votes against twenty-six. An amendment subjecting imported ships to a tariff duty was voted down. A resolution was then passed calling for a thorough revision of the tariff, without indicating any particular policy to be followed, except that *ad-valorem* duties should be changed to specific as far as possible. Reciprocity with Canada was debated at considerable length, having been introduced by an able report from a committee appointed last year. Resolutions were passed by 26 to 6 requesting the President to institute negotiations for a new treaty of reciprocal trade between the two countries. The unanimity of the meeting on the subject of specie resumption was very gratifying, and a resolution was passed, with only three or four negative votes, recommending the funding of greenbacks in 4-per-cent. forty-year bonds, at the rate of $10,000,000 per month, as auxiliary to the existing Resumption Act. A resolution offered by a Chicago delegate, looking to the continued circulation of greenbacks after resumption, was rejected by 6 to 27. The last day was given to the silver question, which came up in two sets of resolutions, one from the Chicago Board of Trade, recommending Congress to take steps for inviting an international convention to establish, if possible, the unrestricted coinage of silver and gold on a common ratio; and the other from the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, calling for the recoinage of the old silver dollar by the United States and the making of it legal tender to any amount. The Chicago resolution was adopted with only one dissenting vote. The Cincinnati resolution was first amended by limiting the recoinage of the silver dollar to fifty mil-

lions and striking out the words "legal tender to any amount," after which it failed to receive the requisite two-thirds majority, the vote standing 16 to 11.

The advance to 3 per cent. in the Bank of England discount rate was sufficient to arrest temporarily the declining tendency of the rates for sterling bills and the price of gold in New York. Exchange advanced above the point at which gold can be profitably imported from London, for the reason that bills were wanted to pay for U. S. bonds which could be bought in London and sold here at a profit. Gold advanced because of the advance in sterling bills. Before the week closed U. S. bonds had so advanced in London as to check this movement, and accordingly sterling bills fell, and the price of gold gave a lurch to 103§—the lowest price since May 20, 1862, when it sold at 103¼. Without doubt the country has this year the largest crops ever produced. Not over-sanguine estimates put the cotton crop at nearly if not quite 5,000,000 bales. It is equally clear that there will be an excellent foreign market for our food products. That cotton will be wanted, although perhaps at a low price, is evident. It follows, therefore, that exclusive of the movement of securities, the condition of trade with Europe ought to be such as to enable the Treasury to get all the gold it needs for resumption purposes and several months before the day named by the law of January, 1875, for resumption. That the large crops, with the assurance of a market for the exportable surplus, will have a quickening effect on general trade and will go far to help the country out of the slough of despond, is becoming apparent to all. From every side come reports of improving trade. The tonnage of the transportation companies is increasing, there is a larger demand for money, and rates of interest are higher. At the close of the week the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar was worth in gold $0.9673; at the same time the "dollar of the fathers" (412½ grains silver) would have had a gold value of $0.9126.

The Russians have maintained their positions at the Shipka Pass, at least the most important portion of them, which includes "Fort Nicholas," and have been little molested there throughout the week. A lull began on Monday, August 27, and since that date only occasional cannonading has been reported, neither party feeling strong enough to resume the bloody assaults of the preceding days. The Turks continue to hold heights flanking the road, and on one of them a strongly-fortified redoubt; but a portion of the irtroops seems to have been withdrawn, possibly towards minor passes, both east and west of Shipka, through which small fragments of Suleiman Pasha's command are reported to have forced their way. A part of the Russian reinforcements is correspondingly stated to have been sent back. This may have been the consequence of the new aggressive movement by which the Turks, on August 30, followed up their late success at Aghaslar. On the morning of that day two Turkish divisions of Mehemet Ali's army advanced simultaneously from Adaköi, near Rasgrad, and from a position near Aghaslar, the one moving by Sadana on Karahassan, near the east bank of the Kara Lom, and the other on Haidarköi, further up that river, on its west bank. The Russians for a time contested the advance of the first column behind Sadana, and very stubbornly defended their position at Karahassan, though vastly inferior in numbers, but toward evening were compelled to retire in a westerly direction, Haidarköi being also forced by the assailants. Though the losses were severe on both sides, the successive abandonment of important positions by the forces of the Crown Prince seems to have been keenly felt at the Russian headquarters. No Russian official bulletin of the affair has yet been received.

On the following day, Friday, the 31st, the Turks also assumed the offensive in front of Plevna. Osman Pasha, with the object, as he says, of making a reconnoissance in force, attacked the Russian entrenched positions at and near the village of Pelishat, about seven miles southeast of the town. A hard-fought contest ensued, the result of which both sides officially claim as a victory, though neither seems to have achieved a decisive success. The forces engaged, in the aggregate about forty or fifty thousand, and the losses sustained appear to have been nearly equal, the Russians officially admitting a loss of one thousand and fifty killed and wounded. The Russians ultimately kept the field, but made no captures, the Turks carrying off their wounded. More decisive operations are expected in the same quarter, and Prince Charles of Rumania, now commanding Russian as well as Rumanian troops south of the Danube, between the Vid and the Isker, has been assigned an active part in the movements contemplated by the invaders. These are said to be maturing, or to have been begun, on a vast field, and the capture of Lovatz, on Sept. 3, by assault, which is officially announced from the Russian headquarters, though without details, may be the opening of a general conflict. The reinforcements received on the Danube from Russia are stated still to be scanty. The armies in Asia are evidently still more in need of reinforcements, as the Russians continue to announce operations in their own portion of Armenia, where the Erivan column, which was to succor Tergukassoff, is reported to have repulsed, near Igdyr, two distinct attacks by the Turks. The central army between Alexandropol and Kars too, seems to be executing a change of base dictated by prudence rather than by boldness. Sukhum Kaleh has been evacuated by the Turks.

The death, just announced, of ex-President Thiers, a statesman who, whatever his sins of commission or omission may have been in years long gone by, has certainly shown himself an incomparably more successful political leader than all the Frenchmen with whom he ever co-operated or contended—a host including Guizot, Molé, Berryer, Tocqueville, Montalembert, Lamartine, Cavaignac, Louis Blanc, Victor Hugo, Jules Favre, and, we may add, Napoleon III.—would have been an event in French history at any time, but it is an event of melancholy interest, perhaps of calamitous import, occurring, as it does, at so critical a moment in the development of the French Republic. The rash *coup* executed by Marshal MacMahon on May 16, when Jules Simon was dismissed with his Cabinet, followed by the formation of "the combat ministry" of the Duc de Broglie and the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies, the necessary assent to which by the Senate was extorted from the perplexities of a timid majority, has been productive of a struggle preliminary to the election for a new Chamber apparently surpassing in intensity and acrimony all the election contests of France since the time of Polignac, against whom, nearly sixty years ago, Thiers began his political activity. The present efforts for the preservation of the Republic were begun under the banner of the octogenarian statesman, under whose auspices it was consolidated, his name being substituted for that of the virtual leader, Gambetta, in order to win the support of the moderate and prudent adherents of the present institutions, to whom Thiers appeared the embodiment of consummate and long disillusioned political wisdom, while Gambetta, with all his real or assumed love of legality and order, has never ceased to speak the language of passionate republican partisanship. To the constantly-repeated, piteous cry of MacMahon: "Choose between me and Gambetta, between conservatism and radicalism," the answer has been: "Our guide is Thiers, the conservative defender of the conservative Republic, which you and your Ultramontane advisers are unconsciously or treacherously bent on overthrowing by a revolution." And such is the declivity down which the Marshal has been advancing with his anti-republican allies, that, whatever his intentions may have been or may still be, the worst *dénouement* by force may justly be apprehended. The means resorted to in working for the elections by his Legitimist, Bonapartist, and Orleanist supporters surpass in petty meanness, and sometimes in the audacious use of power, almost anything attempted on similar occasions by Morny, Persigny, or Magnan. The Republicans have still the advantage of harmony among themselves, having united on the re-election of the 363 anti-Government members of the dissolved Chamber, and amicably concerted the remaining candidatures, while their opponents of the three monarchical camps are everywhere wrangling in advance for the spoils; but the former have now lost their most trusted guide, their shield.

REPUDIATION AND RESUMPTION.

THE "record" of the United States during the past six months on the subject of repudiation cannot be said to be an enviable one; but it is instructive. It has embraced four important States, representing both political parties and widely-separated geographical sections of the country. In all these the cause of repudiation has either been thus far completely triumphant or has been so successful as to put its opponents entirely on the defensive. In Virginia there is no doubt that the debt is a heavy one. At the close of the war it was $41,000,000; but in 1866 the auditor of the State reported that the interest on this sum—in round numbers, $2,460,000—could be "met and paid promptly as it falls due." In 1870–1, after the State had passed through the reconstruction period, the debt had increased only some $4,000,000, amounting now to $45,000,000, and the legislature, to make sure of being able to meet their engagements, "funded" it, leaving the total sum $30,000,000. The complaint being made that this funding scheme was too advantageous to the creditor, inasmuch as it made the coupons of the new bonds receivable for all dues to the State, the next legislature repealed this provision, and, as the courts failed to sustain the repealing act, imposed a tax of a half per cent. on the funded bonds. In 1874–5 these measures had reduced the interest account from $2,460,000 to $1,417,000; but the taste for repudiation, or "adjustment," as it is called in Virginia, had set in and was growing, so that to-day, after several years of cheating, the question is still a prominent one in the politics of the State, and it was only after a vigorous and excited canvass that the nomination of an open repudiator for governor was prevented. His successful opponent is now obliged to treat the subject with great caution, and there is every prospect that in the end "readjustment" will carry the day.

In Tennessee the course of events has been somewhat different. At the close of the war the debt was about $43,000,000, but this was reduced by sales of railroad property to about $23,000,000. The interest on this was felt by the Tennesseans to be more than they could pay, and attempts have been recently made to compromise. In March last an arbitration committee of bank presidents held a joint meeting with a committee of five from the Tennessee legislature at the American Exchange Bank in this city, and a conference took place. The extreme caution of the Tennessee representatives led them at the outset to announce that they had no power to make any terms, but merely to report what was proposed to the State. A long discussion ensued, in which it appeared (and this is true also of Virginia) that the repudiationists regarded the abolition of slavery as destroying so much taxable property, but wholly ignored the continued existence of the negroes and their production as making part of the resources of the State. After a prolonged discussion the committee (which, it should be noticed, was entirely disinterested in the matter) reported that after adding the arrears of interest, and interest to accrue to July 1, 1877, the aggregate amount of the State debt should be readjusted by the issue of new bonds at the rate of 60 per cent. of the whole amount, the new bonds to bear interest at the rate of six per cent. To this proposed compromise the State has paid no sort of attention, and the sentiment in favor of total repudiation is reported to be growing.

In Georgia the facts are, again, somewhat different. Here the State at the end of the war fell into the hands of Bullock and his confederates, who embarked it upon a course of extravagant internal improvements, in the course of which many frauds were no doubt committed. There is no doubt, either, that the State derived great benefit from many of the railroads that were built. When the carpet-baggers were turned out, the "Conservatives" ordered a legislative investigation, which was conducted very much as such investigations usually are—that is, with a good deal of party feeling and a determination to rule out all claims that could be ruled out. Toombs, we believe, assisted in it, and witnesses were bullied and browbeaten, and every device was resorted to to cut down the total amount of debt to be assumed. The committee reported some $6,000,000 bonds invalid, and they were formally repudiated by the legislature on the ground of fraud in their issue. The legislative report was then put in the form of a constitutional amendment wiping out the bonds altogether, and now the repudiating clause has been finally incorporated into the new constitution just drawn up. The bondholders in this case claim, not payment in full, but a judicial investigation and decision of their rights. They offered, in the late constitutional convention, to submit their claims to the Supreme Court of the State, but the proposition was voted down by 166 to 15.

In Minnesota the State repudiated a railroad debt of about 20 years standing. As in the case of Georgia, it was done by constitutional amendment; and as in the case of Georgia, there was no excuse for it. After twenty years of agitation, denunciation, and negotiation, the State officials agreed to compromise at 50 cents on the dollar. The measure, however, had to be ratified by a popular vote, and the people, on being consulted, voted against it.

We wish we could satisfy ourselves, as the Democrats do, that Minnesota repudiation is due to "radical rascality," or, as the Republicans do, that Southern repudiation is due to Democratic wickedness; but we cannot. Such acts as these States have been committing, and threatening to commit, bring disgrace not upon either party but upon the whole country, and establish a precedent of the most dangerous character. It is a lamentable fact that State repudiation cannot be stopped, for a State cannot be sued; and hence the moral is very obvious that the constitutional power of States to contract debts should be curtailed in every possible way. From most of the new constitutions adopted within the past twenty or thirty years this lesson, which the history of the Pennsylvania and Mississippi repudiations of the last generation first taught, seems to be gradually making itself felt. There is another moral, however, which persons who discuss the movements of public opinion in financial matters should not fail to draw. The States we have enumerated (and we might have included North Carolina, but the facts are not fully accessible), though one is Northern and the rest Southern, one Republican and the rest Democratic, all resemble each other in one point, and that is the character of the population. They are all agricultural communities, in which the diversification of industry has made but little progress, in which the standard of education is not high, and which are peopled by the "bone and sinew" of the country. One may be taken as a representative Western State, and the others as representative Southern States. The facts about their management of their debts show that in all of them alike the sentiment that we know as "commercial honor" has little or no existence. That is to say, they will not pay their debts unless they are compelled to do so. Now, it is in these same parts of the country that we should expect to find most unsoundness on the currency and silver questions, and such is indeed the fact. It is absurd to suppose that a Western farmer or a Southern planter who has discovered and applied the simple method of paying local debts by repudiating them should be any great stickler for the punctual payment of the national debt, or for resumption, or for the adoption of a single standard when two will make debt-paying easier. In communities of this kind, where there is little but land, and where the loss of credit consequently does not immediately paralyze industry, the escape of taxation by such means seems an obvious remedy. We may be sure that the longer the questions connected with the national debt and with the currency are allowed to remain open, the more impossible it will be to prevent the dishonest arguments and shameless practices of the Western and Southern repudiators from making their appearance in new and more alarming shapes at Washington.

EFFECT ON THE NEGRO OF A DIVIDED WHITE VOTE.

THE division of sentiment among the "Conservatives" (that is, the white men) in Virginia over the public debt has caused more or less chuckling among Republicans at the North, because they think they see in it an indication that the state of things in which the negro will exert a positive influence of his own in Southern

politics is now at hand. Since the war, there has been but one political problem present to the minds of white voters in every Southern State, and that is how to keep the government out of the negro's hands without wounding the susceptibilities of his friends at the North; and the fear of the negro as a legislator at the present moment keeps the whites of every State banded together in a solid mass, on which no question of national politics seems to have the slightest power of disintegration. The union of sentiment on this one topic has, of course, other effects than the production of a united white vote. It leads to the exertion, as a duty of the highest order to the State, of a constant and severe pressure on the negro, through his employers and white neighbors, to induce him to vote the Conservative ticket; and this pressure consists, of course, mainly of threats of social disfavor or disadvantage. He is promised nothing but a quiet life and steady employment. No attempt is made to dazzle him with the prospect of offices, or flatter him with arguments on public questions. He is simply told that he must either abstain from voting or vote with the Conservatives, and that under no circumstances must he vote with the Radicals; and as the Radicals have nothing whatever to offer him now, he finds little difficulty in abandoning them. The consequence is that there is only one party at the South, and the negro ballots are virtually cast by white hands and go to swell the Southern basis of representation and Democratic majorities, or rather the Democratic totals, for the minorities have either disappeared or are disappearing.

Of course this is a very disappointing state of things to those who looked forward to seeing the negroes form a solid political organization at the South, stretching out its hand to the Republican party at the North, and controlling at least some States, and making a respectable contribution to the Republican side of the House and Senate. Since the failure of the attempt to uphold the negro as a politician with "troops" and custom-houses, such a consummation has become almost hopeless. At all events a change which will give the negro a chance of exercising a free choice in casting his vote, and will give candidates a reason for conciliating or courting him, is now expected by his political friends at the North only as the result of a division among the whites; and the split of the whites into two parties is, perhaps, what many of the friends of the President's "policy" are eagerly looking for as a substitute for carpet-bag governments upheld by military force.

If such a split should occur, no matter on what question of State or of Federal politics, it would undoubtedly be a sign that the South had made one more step in the process of recovery, for the melancholy truth is that a total lack of interest in and familiarity with the leading political topics of the day—taxation, the currency, the tariff, the reform of the civil service, the railroads, the labor problem—is one of the most painful features of the Southern malady. The old men do not care about these things, and the young do not know about them. But to those who consider a moment what the history of the last twenty years at the South has been, there is nothing wonderful in this state of things. The war found the whole mind of the South absorbed in the question of the rightfulness of slavery and the lawfulness of secession. During the four years of war the whole hearts and souls of the people went into the struggle, and their one subject was strategy and soldiers their only heroes. Since the war they have been occupied with almost equal intensity with the problem of keeping the negro out of the government without exasperating the North, and though last, not least, with the struggle for subsistence. The consequence is that at this moment, as all recent Northern visitors to the South can testify, it is rare to meet with a Southern man who talks upon any question of national politics, except the President's "policy," with much interest or with the firmness of tone which comes from thought and conviction. He will converse on them with a Northern man, it is true, pleasantly and intelligently, but somewhat with the interrogative air of a foreigner who likes to hear what you think about your own politics, but to whom they have simply a speculative attraction. This, it must be remembered, too, occurs in a region which was once given up to the widest and most varied political discussion, and in which opinions on all subjects were apt to be very vehemently and confidently expressed. But the painful truth is that a Southern man must to-day have reached middle life to remember much of the healthy public life of a constitutional state. If under forty, the political education he has received from events is not unlike that of a Frenchman—the education of great political convulsions, of fierce and implacable controversy over the very foundations of society, of tremendous and desolating wars, and of that bitterest of all experiences—fallen and powerless pride.

In what way a healthful remedy will come it would be hard as yet to say. Much will depend—more, indeed, than on anything else—on the social progress of the negro, for it is a hideous mistake to suppose that anything but social progress can give him political value. But how he will turn out either socially or politically is something on which nobody's opinion is as yet worth much. Thus far he has disappointed both his friends and his enemies. The old Southerners who used to expound his character so confidently in the slavery controversy, have either passed away or been reduced to mournful silence. The Northern anti-slavery men who thought he had only to be released from bondage to take his place without hitch or inconvenience among the foremost races of the world, have been full as wofully mistaken. He is still a very puzzling problem, though a much more hopeful one than he was ten years ago. But his initiation into civilized life has been, as we have often said in these columns, one of the greatest misfortunes which has ever befallen a downtrodden race. Of all the crimes which have been committed against him, we think one of the most heinous was committed by our Government, when at the very threshold of freedom it committed his education to thieving carpet-baggers and rascally office-holders, and allowed him to suppose when he got his first glimpse of the *arcana imperii* that government was the game of thimbleriggers and "confidence men." We are sorry to say that it looks as if a division among the whites, far from helping him, would exert on him an influence almost as demoralizing in the long run as that of the carpet-baggers, for if this division were deep enough to cause him to be courted at all it would cause the two parties to bid against each other for his vote. When we consider what his political education and material condition are, and are likely to be for many years to come, we have no difficulty in guessing at the nature of the temptations which would be offered him. Even if we had had no experience to guide us in such a calculation a flood of light would have been thrown on the subject, and has been thrown on it during the last two months, by the course of the two parties at the North with regard to the late strikes and riots. When we find that attacks of the most outrageous kind on property, based on the most dangerous delusions, whose practical working has been abundantly exemplified in other countries, have simply set both Republicans and Democrats to work in their platforms and speeches to outdo each other in fanning the flame of discontent, and raising among poor white men the most absurd expectations from Government interference, we may readily conjecture what the nature of the appeals addressed by rival Southern politicians to the negro voters would be. We may be sure of one thing—that their result would be to drag him down to a lower level of ignorance and cupidity. They would, like their Northern confrères, seek out carefully what was wildest, most irrational, and most debased in his passions and ideals, and that they would foster and play upon, and thus, we venture to say, treat us to a species of demagogy for which political history has yet supplied no parallel, and the coarseness of which would make even Raoul Rigault smile if he could rise from his grave.

THE INDIAN SYSTEMS OF CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

IT was recently reported that the President, being much impressed by the statements of a gentleman representing the Dominion of Canada (in regard to the Sitting-Bull imbroglio) in praise of the Indian system of that Government, had resolved to adopt it for our own. Doubtless the truth is that President Hayes listened to the patriotic discourse of his official visitor with his usual blandness, but without jumping to the hasty conclusion of the daily press, which went so far as to enumerate

the particulars in which we were to imitate the northern policy. The three points generally mentioned—that the Indian system of the Dominion is not managed by officials connected with the political administration, is superintended by army officers, and does not include a plan of reservations—all happen to be absolutely mistaken. It may, therefore, be useful to consider in what respects the Canadian policy, past and present, is actually distinguished from that of the United States, and what are the real causes of the very diverse results shown in the conduct and condition of the Indians in the two countries.

The official form of the Indian administration of the Dominion is obviously copied from ours, being a branch of their Department of the Interior, with a Deputy Superintendent-General of Indian Affairs corresponding to our Commissioner, and several territorial superintendencies, each embracing local agencies; special commissions being also, as with us, appointed on important occasions. The military arm is nowhere apparent in the comprehensive annual report of the past year, which should dispel any popular delusion that the success of the Indian policy of our neighbors is due to the employment of army officers. On the other hand, the report of the United States Commissioner for the corresponding period shows that the officers of our army were used in matters of supervision and inspection, wholly without reference to hostilities, in a manner unknown in Canada. A little study of the parliamentary blue-books will correct another general but erroneous impression that the Indian problem beyond our frontier is thoroughly solved and the outlook entirely assured. On the contrary, just the same difficulties and complaints crop out there as here—to wit, disputes about boundaries; tribal discontent with past treaty-bargains and compromises to patch up misunderstandings; threats and fears of insurrection, with official warnings and appeals and urgent recommendations of a new "policy," as if that existing were confessedly unsatisfactory. The Minister of the Interior in 1876 characterizes the Indian legislation of the Dominion in almost the exact words used by President Grant in his first message (December, 1869) to explain his policy then instituted, and proceeds with statements of new treaties made and old ones supplemented, gratuities and annuities given and needed, reservations established and changed, the stopping by Assiniboins of telegraph-construction and road-making after the manner of our Dakotas in the Black Hills, contests between settlers and native claimants of Cowhichan Valley—recalling Joseph and his dear Wallowa—and the like familiar topics. With proper alteration of some titles and nouns of number and magnitude, page after page of the Canadian report on Indian affairs could be interchanged with those from our Commissioner's volume without the reader of either noticing any break in the continuity.

It is nevertheless a fact that in the Dominion the difficulties are somehow smoothed away with sufficient promptness to avert actual collision, and that the British Government in America has not since our separation from it expended treasure in Indian wars, lost its subjects by massacre, or mourned desolated settlements. As the general form and professed objects of the two systems are almost identical, can the explanation of the discordant results be found in any details of their execution?

Without at this time entering upon the serious past blundering and remaining imperfections of our own Indian service, we may notice the fact that the Canadian has two marked administrative advantages. First, the Minister of the Interior is actually the Superintendent-General of Indian Affairs, and directly responsible for them as the most considerable, if not the most important, part of his official duties. He makes the report in his own name, his deputy bearing much the same relation to him in fact, though not in form, as our Commissioner's chief clerk does to his immediate superior; and the result is that some of the work is actually done by a Cabinet officer and not all by a chain of subordinates. To allow of this the Minister is not, in the arrangement of governmental functions, burdened with the pension, patent, and educational branches, which, being so disposed with us in addition to the Indian and land offices, are apt to render our Secretary of the Interior a Jack-of-all-trades and master of none, affording him some excuse for transmitting the reports of his several chiefs of bureaux with mere perfunctory notices instead of an intelligent and original presentation of facts and plans.

The second marked characteristic is that, while the higher officers change with party politics, the minor superintendents and agents in the Dominion hold their places for life or good behavior, with the obvious benefits, in matters requiring special skill and experience, produced by a civil service well established on a correct principle of selection, which with us has only recently been attempted. A third notable fact of greater import than either of those just mentioned—though not properly a part of the formal Indian system, but rather relating to the general administration of government—is that the plighted faith of Great Britain and its present American colonies, once made to the Indian tribes, has never been violated. The red men can trust the Crown and the promise of any of its authorized agents, knowing that whatever is seriously wrong will be amended without insufferable delay, and are therefore as loyal as any other British subjects.

It is not true that there has ever been on the part of the Government or people of the United States any intention to be unjust or oppressive to their aboriginal wards, but Congress has sometimes been inconsistent and dilatory, resorting to temporary expedients and diluted equity. An elective legislature has temptations to postpone the claims of those within its power who have neither votes nor a lobby in their special interest, for constituents who have both; of this the late non-action upon Army as well as Indian appropriations is sufficient proof. Moreover, the promptness and decision so essential in the management of uncivilized people were hardly possible under the divided responsibilities and weak central powers which have been lauded in our Constitution as the sources of national greatness and prosperity. We need not, however, accuse our republican form of government as being the sole or the chief reason why our embarrassments with the Indians have far exceeded those of our monarchical rival, whose Government, indeed, has of late approached in many points the freedom and complication of our own. The physical, historical, and social circumstances are and have been so wholly different as fully to explain, without loss of patriotic pride, why the same problem, until lately so easy to the Canadian, has long been so much harder for us.

The superficial area of the British possessions is three and a half millions of square miles, being nearly equal to the whole of Europe and considerably greater than that of the United States, exclusive of Alaska, which, from its recent acquisition, need not be regarded in a historical summary. The settlements of any consequence are still confined to a border on the gulf and river of St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, a narrow strip on the Red River, and another on the Pacific coast. The part unsettled is about as large as the whole of the United States, the Hudson's Bay and Northwest territories by themselves containing nearly two and a half millions of square miles and only 2,500 white inhabitants, who are at the various posts of the Hudson's Bay Company or employed by it, and 5,000 half-breeds also so employed. The larger part of this vast region is still the property of the general Government, obtained by purchase from the Hudson's Bay Company in 1869, and may consequently be considered for all practical purposes as a great free territory still open (besides the numerous reservations specially set aside in other provinces) to the Indians for hunting and fishing. The facilities for fishing in the numberless lakes and rivers are alone sufficient to subsist all the Indians in the Dominion. These number but 91,910 souls, and less than one-third of them are in, or inconveniently near to, the settled districts. The whole population of British America is only four and a half millions, with which we must compare the United States and its forty millions, about three hundred thousand Indians still remaining, and practically no land left open. Wherever there is a tract worth the homesteading, pre-emption, or purchase, there is the white settler or explorer, and the last of the game is vanishing for ever. The rush of settlement has been so eager that the very ground on which it was necessary to erect the buildings for one of the Indian agencies in California was lately rented by the Government from citizen owners.

Here, then, is the contrast—Canada, with her unsettled tract, equal to the whole United States, on which to provide for less than one-third the number of Indians inhabiting this country, which has no land uninvaded by squatters. All this has naturally resulted from the difference in the civilization, and its advance, of the two countries. The history of British America, so far as regards the Indian tribes, has mainly, until of late years, been that of the Hudson's Bay Company. The one object of that company was to procure a vast quantity of furs at a low rate, and therefore settlement was repressed. In this design the laws of climate assisted, since the country is good for hunting but bad for agriculture. The Indians were not only undisturbed but stimulated to continue in their old life and habits, because it was cheaper to trade arms, beads, and trinkets with them for the desired peltries than to drive them off and hire white hunters. Of course the company treated them well, from selfish motives if from no other, and, with its efficient semi-military organization of commissioners, factors, and traders, ruled wisely at its one hundred and twenty posts. Of course, also, the tribes were satisfied, not being asked to sacrifice any of their habits, not being crowded by any aggres-

sive inroad of civilization, and obtaining from its amiable representatives all of its products which they valued.

The most serious Indian wars of our last decade—those with the Modocs, Sioux, and Nez-Percés—arose from the confusion occasioned by gold discoveries and the sudden influx upon and around tribal lands of lawless miners in bodies not repressible by a feeble national Government, when no statesmanlike provision had been made in advance for such emergencies. Similar unpremeditated injustice with the same sad results had occurred before in California and Oregon after the gold excitement of 1849. The only serious fever of that kind which ever disturbed the composure of Canada (that in the Fraser River district), short-lived and limited as it was, severely tried its authorities. The Minister's report of 1876 is very melancholy in respect to that region, and he explains the discontent and threats of its Indians by the pregnant sentence, "They for the first time feel practically the inconvenience of being hemmed in by white settlers"—*i.e.*, the settlers left from the sudden immigration. If this "hemming-in" had been more common, and agriculture, mining, and manufacture had been more generally possible, there would perhaps have been also in the Dominion some victims of the struggle for existence.

In the early settlement of the parts of Canada now most populous, where the influence of the Hudson's Bay Company was less felt, the colonies enjoyed a singular good-fortune in the character of their pioneers long before any modern "Indian policy" was discussed. The French immigrants from the first formed a peculiar, and in one sense happy, intimacy of relation with the natives. Their plastic and easy disposition met the red warriors more than half way, and their imitation of the new-found customs was carried even to an excess of fraternization. Count Frontenac set the example, blithely adorned himself with paints and plumes in the latest American mode, and danced and sang to the delight of his wild allies. Hundreds of the debonair adventurers took kindly to the forest and to dusky wives, never returning to civilization, and the neighboring tribes soon became infused with Gallic blood: Charlevoix sadly wrote that the savages did not become French, but the French became savages. But however undesirable in other respects, the assimilation at once furnished a wide belt of safety around the infant settlements, and afterwards, as the meagre civilization crept on with no disturbing haste, secured easy treaties and genial intercourse. This never has or could have taken place where the main body of the early settlers were English, German, or Irish.

If, without any improvement in our statesmanship, our civilization had been lowered or retarded and our climate rendered inhospitable, we should have had no worse Indian troubles than Canada, but we should not now hold our prominent place among the nations. So, also, in any present imitation of all the Canadian expedients, we must set back the dial of time more than a century, retain only the littoral settlements of the old thirteen colonies, bend down the isothermal lines some twenty degrees, organize a *crédit mobilier* fur company to take charge of half a continent, and import a few thousand gay Frenchmen to dance and make love on the debatable border. In short, while our statecraft is by no means so perfect that it cannot learn something from our friendly rival, we cannot safely copy any system that has been successful elsewhere, unless it be applicable to our conditions and environment.

THE LATE ERUPTION OF COTOPAXI.

Quito, July 4, 1877.

HISTORY has recorded ten great eruptions of Cotopaxi—I might say with more truth that they have graven themselves in characters of fire and blood in the sad annals which they fill with misery and ruin, with desolation, mourning, and tears. The first two eruptions were of no great consequence. Of the third we have detailed accounts in the 'Historical Narrative' of Don Jorge Juan and Don Antonio de Ulloa. They tell of its having submerged the spacious valley from Callo to Latacunga, filling it with turbid waves, in which great numbers perished. The eruption that followed in the succeeding year, the fourth, was still more disastrous. According to the Jesuit Father Velasco, in his history of Quito, it carried ruin to a distance of 600 miles. Humboldt relates, in his 'Cosmos,' that in Honda, 436 miles from the volcano, explosions like the sound of cannon were heard. In the seventh eruption, April 4, 1768, the shocks and the rain of earth extended from Popayan to Guayaquil—distance 456 miles. Quito and other towns were plunged in complete darkness from 9 A.M. to 1 P.M., the horror of the situation being aggravated by frequent earthquakes and by the frightful roaring of the infuriated giant. The head of the Government sent to the Court of Madrid a curious report on this catastrophe, beginning: "The President of Quito informs your Majesty of what took place on the 4th day of April, in consequence of the *bursting* of the great volcano and mountain of Cotopaxi, situated in the bosom of Tacunga, 13 leagues from this city."

Villavicencio, in his 'Geography of Ecuador,' calls the eruption of 1768 the eighth, whereas the historian Cevallos denominates it the seventh. Villavicencio adds that it was reputed the most horrible of all. Cotopaxi was not responsible for the great earthquake of 1797, which destroyed Riobamba, Latacunga, and Ambato, and cost so many lives. From 30,000 to 40,000 perished by it. Humboldt ascribes that cataclysm to another volcano, the Galera, and says it was one of the most terrific phenomena in the physical history of our globe. The same thing happened with the Galera as with Vesuvius at the time of the earthquake at Lisbon. Both volcanoes ceased to pour out the clouds of steam and smoke which they had thrown off before the convulsion. The Galera, nevertheless, is 92 miles from Quito, which was the nearest point affected. Humboldt mentions another phenomenon. The centre of the explosion was Riobamba, and yet at Latacunga and Ambato, the places nearest to it, the great subterranean noise was not heard. At Quito it sounded only eighteen or twenty minutes after the catastrophe. Walls changed places without falling. Crops made a sort of *chassé-croisé*, one assuming the position of the other. Edifices of stone and mortar flew through the air, some of them falling upside down on their roofs, and *vice versa*, while others were carried off uninjured, with the lands and planted fields around them, to distant places, thus giving rise to disputes which came before the courts. Roads changed their position and appearance; a lake burst into flames (Lake Quirotoa), mountains were levelled, and valleys filled up. In short, the day of judgment seemed to have dawned for the wretched inhabitants of those fated districts.

According to the German traveller, Dr. W. Reiss, no recent eruption of Cotopaxi has ejected more lava than that of 1854, the eighth. The ninth took place in 1855, but this was a mere suggestion of power on the part of the volcano—a grand pyrotechnic show—for although it poured out torrents of fire, water, and stones in a state of incandescence, no great harm resulted from the display. There occurred another eruption in 1856, the only beneficial one, and it is a matter of regret that similar eruptions have not followed it. It caused the mighty gold-bearing Napo, a tributary of the Amazon, to overflow its banks, leaving them covered with grains and sands of gold. In vain has the population sighed for a repetition of this phenomenon. For my part, I do not think this eruption deserves to be classed among the eruptions properly so called. Since then Cotopaxi has maintained a comparative repose, although it does not cease to give evidence of a volcanic activity which makes of it a Proteus for the variety of shapes it assumes, and a chameleon for the diversity of colors in which it robes itself. Nothing is more sublime at all times, and on occasion more appalling, than the truncated cone of this snow-capped mountain. It was a view on one of its flanks that inspired your great artist, Church, when he painted his celebrated picture, "The Heart of the Andes." The crater of Cotopaxi is 500 feet in depth. It is not rare to see a pillar of fire rise from this abyss and lose itself in the blue vault of heaven, as if the colossus would fain be a light-house to the mariners of both oceans, but only consented to illuminate their path with the tokens of his ire.

The last eruption of Cotopaxi, which is the tenth according to my computation, took place on the 26th of June last. The day before the city of Quito was placed under an interdiction in consequence of a disagreement between the civil and the ecclesiastical authorities, which it is not to the purpose to relate here. It was the first time that the population of Quito had been subjected to such a penalty, and one can imagine the consternation that reigned among them on seeing their churches closed, all divine service suspended, even the august ceremonies for the interment of the dead. Shortly after a rain of earth and other phenomena which herald an eruption began to appear, and, as Dr. Wolf says, these signs are always more reliable than those that precede an earthquake. In fact, the eruption took place on the 26th, with every circumstance that could increase its horror—utter darkness in the broad day, thunder and lightning, fearful explosions that made the earth tremble, subterranean noises and wild gusts of wind accompanied by a rain of ashes. An eye-witness told me that the volcano poured out a cataract ten times the bulk of Niagara, which carried all before it in its headlong course, and submerged the whole surrounding country. The torrent divided itself in two opposite directions, as if to give greater scope to its devastation and to make the confusion still more dire. One branch took a southerly course towards the city of Latacunga, situated twelve miles

from Cotopaxi (Villavicencio makes the distance double in his 'Geography of Ecuador,' but this is an error). On its way the torrent converted the plain of Callo into an immense lake, covering up the hill of the same name, which is thought to be the work of man, although Reiss discards this opinion and regards the eminence merely as the result of some internal convulsion of nature such as produced the "Panecillo of Quito." There is but faint hope that the ruins of the palace of the Incas, described by Humboldt and all other travellers through the central valley of the Equatorial Andes, have escaped the ravages of the flood. In the vicinity of Latacunga the furious current tore up from its very foundations the cotton-factory of Don José Villagomez, whose value was estimated at $300,000; crops, cattle, buildings were swept away; the massive bridges of Cutuche and Pansalvo were destroyed, as well as a part of the fine carriage-road (scarce equalled even in Europe) which connects Quito with the towns in the south of the Republic. On hearing the report of the subterranean explosion and seeing the infuriated waters approach, the distracted and appalled inhabitants of Latacunga thought themselves doomed to inevitable destruction. But the catastrophe was averted—the onward-rolling torrent met the beds of three rivers, and, pouring itself into these channels, rescued the city from a situation of the most imminent peril.

The branch that headed towards the south of Cotopaxi devastated the prosperous and enchanting valley of Chillo, and in particular the estate of the Señores Aguirre, noted for having been the residence of Humboldt. There, too, as in Latacunga, arose the buildings of a thriving factory which, only the year before, had been destroyed by fire, and had just been repaired at great expense. The torrent rooted it from the ground, and bore it away in a thousand fragments—harbingers and tokens of woe to the provinces of Imbabura and Esmeraldas, which they passed in their course towards the Pacific Ocean. It is asserted that a mill of Don Manuel Palacios floated on the water like a ship at sea until shattered by the current. The loss in the valley of Chillo alone is estimated at over two millions of dollars, and the loss in other sections is equally great. It is likewise calculated that the number of the dead exceeds one thousand.

A third cataract took an easterly direction, destroying the bridge of Patate, and doing grievous injury to the estates in that neighborhood, of which the most important is celebrated for its fine wine, well known as "Vino de Patate," made by Don Vicente Alvarez. We have as yet no detailed accounts of the ravages caused by the eruption in the east, and are still in ignorance as to whether they have extended to the equatorial territory of the Amazon.

Although the surroundings of Quito have been laid waste, the city itself only suffered from a rain of ashes and a complete darkness, which began on the 26th of June, at three in the afternoon. At Machache and other places the night lasted for thirty consecutive hours. In the midst of this opaque gloom one could hear the bellowing of the cattle and the cries of other animals, who, deprived of their usual food by the shower of ashes, sought in a species of frenzy for the means of satisfying their hunger. Other beasts, frantic with terror, careered hither and thither as if in despair, and the piteous howling of the dogs pierced the air with its ominous sound. In Quito the darkness was not as that of night; it was like that described by the younger Pliny in a letter to Tacitus, in which he relates the eruption of Vesuvius and the destruction of Pompeii. "It was," he says, "as if the lights in a room had been extinguished." At Quito the shower at first was of coarse, heavy sand, which subsequently turned into ashes so fine and impalpable that they penetrated not only into apartments, but into the most carefully-closed receptacles. In the depth of the darkness, men and women, braving the rain of ashes, sallied forth into the streets, screening themselves with umbrellas and lighting their way with lanterns, and all the while these strange apparitions rent the air with their cries and prayers for mercy. The umbrellas, as well as the green eye-glasses used here on journeys, were no superfluous precaution, although they afforded but scant protection against the subtle powder, which it was remembered had in many cases produced blindness during the eruption of 1843 and the rain of ashes of thirty hours which attended it.

From the outset the people had unanimously ascribed the disaster to a chastisement of heaven, brought down by the irreligion of the Government, which had arbitrarily closed the churches and deprived the people of those spiritual consolations that were made doubly necessary by the sad condition of things in general. The idea of a divine punishment spread like wild-fire, and as the tempest raged more wildly this conviction gathered intensity, until at last groups of men, without a leader, without any concerted plan, and without arms, threw themselves upon the guard at the Military Hospital, while others attacked the guard stationed at the powder magazine on the hill of Javirá. There were but few troops in the garrison, the greater part having been sent to suppress the insurrection in Imbabura; but the assailants, lacking arms and direction, were promptly overpowered, with no further loss than that of two soldiers and two citizens. On the day following, before the city had recovered from its consternation, and while clouds of ashes still hovered in the air and pervaded the streets, five of the unhappy prisoners who had been taken during the tumult suffered the barbarous punishment of five hundred lashes. Some have died in consequence. The fact needs no comment. A number of respectable citizens have been arrested, and are to be subjected to a court-martial.

In the present wretched condition of Ecuador, ruined as it is by a series of disasters, the recent eruption is the culmination of its woes. Ten years of peace and prosperity, of which there is faint prospect now, will not suffice to repair the evils which a few hours have wrought in this unfortunate land.

ANTONIO FLORES.

Correspondence.

THE PREVENTION OF RAILROAD STRIKES.

II.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: President Scott of the Pennsylvania Railroad, in an article in the last *North American Review*, takes the ground that the railways of the country having become the great channels of inter-State commerce, it is the constitutional duty of the National Government to protect them in the performance of their functions. In this case the demand for Government interference, with all that the name implies, comes from one representing the railroad corporations. As respects any general interference with the national mails it is apparent that the existing law is sufficient. The late strikers begin to realize that to their cost. So far as strikes by railroad employees in particular are concerned, it seems to me that President Scott is one of the very last persons in the country whose prayer for protection should be listened to by Congress or any one else. Let him protect himself. Others have done it; he and his company can do it in the same way. He can draw a lesson in this matter well worth his careful study from that Jacqmin pamphlet to which I referred in my letter of a week ago. But I do not know that I can better preface a short description of the way in which the great French railroad company, which M. Jacqmin speaks for, secures itself against trade-unionism and consequent strikes among its employees than by quoting the language used by the *Nation* in its issue of March 22 last. Col. Scott's *North American* paper gives to it even additional point. Speaking then of the demand for legislation bearing on railroad strikes, the *Nation* remarked:

"This is a question which ought to be settled by the railroad corporations and not by State legislatures. Indeed it never can be settled on a basis of penal legislation; it must be made a matter of kindly and friendly adjustment between the employers and employed. The proper course to pursue is also a very simple one, and one which we wonder some of our rich and powerful corporations have not already adopted. They should constitute their own benevolent and life-assurance associations for the benefit of their employees. They should not leave this work to trade-unions; to do so, and thus invite outside influence, is neither sound policy nor good economy. . . . All occupations connected with running a railroad are hazardous. Both life and limb are in continual danger. Our railroad corporations are now old enough, large enough, and rich enough to take this into consideration and systematically provide for it. . . . And these enormous corporations let trade-unions steal their men away from them! The thing seems hardly credible, and yet it is so. Plainly, therefore, it is wholly their own fault if the officers of these corporations stand in terror of Mr. Arthur and his brotherhood. It is not legislation but wisdom that they need. They have no business to call for penal statutes, or to look to the Government for protection. Let them protect themselves."

In spite of the resolutions of the late Ohio Republican Convention, and notwithstanding the advocacy of a more direct and incessant Government intervention by men like Secretary Sherman and Senator Stanley Matthews on the one side and President Scott on the other, this seems to me to be not only sound common sense, but also sound American sense. It both places the responsibility where it belongs and demands a remedy from the one power competent to supply it. The French Government in practice most of all, and our Government in theory

least of all, are given to interference with industrial details. Yet, curiously enough, the thoroughly American doctrine I have just quoted from the *Nation* finds its strongest confirmation not in theory but in experience, and that also the experience of France. As respects interference in the details of railroad management, therefore, the Ohio politicians and their Pennsylvania Railroad ally have this time fairly tried to out-Herod Herod—to be more French than France.

The modern Frenchman is naturally communistic. He must be dealt with accordingly. Bearing this fact probably in mind, M. Jacqmin tells us that the French company *de l'Est*, wiser in its day than are our railroad companies, had no idea of allowing trade-unions and brotherhoods to step in and make provision for its employees against every unforeseen contingency of lives passed upon the rail. The connection of the employee with the corporation was, therefore, divided into two distinct periods—first, that of active service, and, secondly, that of disability or death. Of the organization of the active service I spoke in my previous letters. For the details of what the company does to identify its employees with it during that period of their lives I must refer to the Jacqmin pamphlet. They are well worthy of study, but much more in accordance with the French paternal system than with American individuality. It is with the second period—that of disability or death—that I am now dealing. It is against this that, in the utter absence of all other provision, the American employee has recourse to his union or his brotherhood. Pursuing a wholly different and a far wiser as well as more humane policy, the company *de l'Est* established at an early day two separate funds, known the one as the Provident and the other as the Pension fund. In endowing these funds, however, it took the ground that "if it regarded itself as bound to come to the assistance of its employees, the latter ought to consider themselves bound to lay up something." Accordingly, the provident fund was composed of assessments upon employees, contributions of the company, and fines. The assessment was variable in amount, being fixed at one per cent. per annum on all salaries, which amount might be increased to a sum not exceeding two per cent. The object of this fund is "to remedy as far as possible the sufferings occasioned by sickness; to secure the full income during the time of the sickness, and, in case of death, the payment of the funeral expenses; and to grant to the widow or children assistance equal to the amount of four months' pay." In 1867 it amounted to over $100,000, although during the previous year it had paid out nearly $50,000 in aid to its contributors.

The pension fund was made up of an endowment by the company; of an annual assessment equal to two per cent. of the amount of salaries, obligatory for all employees of the company; of an appropriation by the company of an equal amount; and, finally, of gifts. The minimum period of service which entitles an employee to a pension is twenty years; the minimum retiring age is fifty years. "The pension fund becomes a tontine company, whose funds were the property of the whole body of employees." The principle under which this fund is distributed is stated by M. Jacqmin, but it is unnecessary to describe it here. It is sufficient to say that it secures to retiring employees, of the required age and length of service, pensions amounting to from 50 to 75 per cent. of the highest salaries ever enjoyed by them. Employees who are dismissed because their services are no longer required are entitled to an equitable adjustment of their claims on the fund, based on a restoration of the sums which they have paid. Employees discharged for cause, or who discharge themselves, "shall have no claim to such repayment."

Finally, M. Jacqmin closes his summary with these remarks, which cannot at this time be too strongly commended to the thoughtful consideration of all railroad men:

> "There is a way, we will not say an infallible one, but almost certain, of ascertaining if an organization answers the great mass of the requirements to be satisfied—this is, the stability of its employees, the permanency of their voluntary engagements. When an employee, free to look in all occupations for a career which suits his taste or at least answers sufficiently his necessities—when such a man holds his situation during many years and declares even that he is not willing to leave it, we may grant that the organization which answers to this situation includes elements of stability and success, and that it works to the reciprocal satisfaction of officers and subordinates. No organization has reached perfection; every year the realization of certain improvements may be and ought to be attempted; but the permanency of the staff proves that nothing requires changing in the basis of the organization."

It was President Vanderbilt, of the New York Central road, who uttered the one really significant word elicited by the strike, which has already been quoted, when he said, speaking of the employees of the Central, that they were "part of us." It is very much to be regretted that when he subsequently made a largess among them, in view of their good conduct during the recent crisis, he did not put it in a shape which would bear lasting fruit. The $100,000 which he ordered to be divided among them will, as a mere gratuity, amount to nothing at all—hardly more than a shilling thrown to a tramp. It may make good the ten per cent. reduction in pay for a month or two. Had it been given, however, as the endowment of a New York Central provident or pension fund the case would have been wholly different. It would then have been a magnificent gift, bearing permanent fruit in the creation of a lasting barrier against all future railroad strikes. The employees of the Central road would have been made to feel hereafter that a provision for their own future existed which it would be well for them and theirs not to sacrifice by any hasty action. Other companies would have followed the example thus set, and the great strike would not have been, as indeed it probably will not now be, without its compensating side.

The subject, however, is one of which we have not yet heard the end. The question of strikes in general, and the division of profits between labor, capital, and intelligence, is one with which no sane man, who is neither a politician nor a sentimentalist, would now care to deal. Railroad strikes, however, are wholly different things. The corporations exposed to them are so large and wealthy, their business is so steady, their employees are so numerous, and their service is so regular that the problem presented is comparatively simple. They need only a system. Curiously enough, it happened that the State Railroad Commissioners of Massachusetts had intended on the very day upon which the recent strike broke out to issue a private invitation to the managers of the railroad companies having termini in Boston to meet them for the purpose of taking the whole subject into consideration. They were not satisfied with the position in which the Boston & Maine strike in February had left it. In view of the events which then followed, the meeting was postponed, but will probably soon be held. The object will be to see if some readjustment of the relations of railroad companies and their employees cannot be arrived at which will be mutually satisfactory, securing to one side permanence of employment, and to the other security of service. Of course, in advance of such a meeting, which will be absolutely resultless unless the whole subject is freshly and thoroughly gone over, nothing has been proposed, much less matured. Nevertheless, the following general principles have been suggested, the consideration of which at this time by all those interested in the subject can do no harm:

1. The establishment of a service having all the elements of permanence, including apprenticeships, regular promotion, and, finally, retiring pensions.

2. A gradual and reasonable increase of wages during active employment, based on the length of continuous service in any one grade.

3. The organization of a provident fund, to supply the place on fixed principles of that charity which is now doled out by all the companies in perpetually recurring hard cases, in amounts which vary according to the fluctuations of business or the good nature of superintendents. This fund to be endowed and guaranteed by the corporations interested in it, and to constitute a regular organized Railroad Employees Mutual Life Assurance Company. The eight companies, for instance, which operate roads terminating in Boston represent a permanent investment of $100,000,000, their annual net income is $5,500,000, and they number 12,500 employees. If these companies would unite and organize their present charities and the contributions of their employees on some such basis as M. Jacqmin describes, they would almost necessarily bring all trade-unions among those employees to a speedy end.

4. The practicability of having recourse to arbitration as a means of adjusting those differences of a general character which from time to time arise between corporations and their employees.

It certainly seems very desirable for the railroad corporations that those entrusted with their interests should devise some more practical and satisfactory solution for the difficulties that have lately confronted them than seems likely to be evolved out of mere Government meddling, or even the creation of a National Bureau of Industry. That solution, however, certainly will not come either from the politicians or their candidates, or even a large increase of the regular army. A better, a more thorough and charitable organization is necessary, and I know no surer way of arriving at it than through the study of what others not more favorably situated have already done in that direction.

CHARLES F. ADAMS, JR.

QUINCY, MASS., September 3, 1877.

NORTHERN TEACHERS IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have done an injustice to the Southern people by adding the weight of the *Nation* to the belief that Northern teachers are not tolerated in the South. I am sure that the injustice was not intended, and I hope that you will publish the following facts:

Within the past two years, three Northern professors have been elected to fill chairs in the University of North Carolina. They are Messrs. Albert R. Ledoux and F. W. Simonds of New York, and Mr. W. H. Smith of Michigan. Prof. John J. Ladd of Vermont was also elected Superintendent of the State Normal School during its recent session. No enquiries were made concerning the politics of these gentlemen. Although associated with them, I know the politics of only two, both Republicans. There is no animosity in this State against Northern teachers, *per se*, be they Democrats or Republicans. Most of our successful teachers in the past, both in the colleges and schools, came from the North; and the Yankee "school-marm's" slipper has always ranked amongst our strongest and most honored institutions. And yet the history of our University since the "reconstruction" of the State is much the same as that of the South Carolina University. On the readmission of our State into the Union, the trustees and faculty of the University were summarily turned out. The trustees had been elected for life, and some of them had held the position for more than forty years. They represented all parties in the State. Of the faculty, all had taught here longer than ten, and some more than thirty years; three were from the North, another from the North adopted from England, and another was the son of the last named. New trustees were appointed and a new faculty was chosen. It is sufficient to say that the faculty had not one idea in common with the people of the State who educate their children. The result was, no patronage. A few boys came from the country around the village, most of them being too small to wear suspenders and having their breeches buttoned to their jackets. But the faculty did not despair. The State paid the salaries. Soon the political robbers refused to make further appropriation, and of course that closed the University. It could go on without students but not without money.

The University lay in the dust five years, being five years older than the century, and having weathered the storms of civil war. In 1875 its friends and alumni made generous contributions which repaired the damages made by decay and plunder. It is now in a fair condition. The South Carolina University held on longer solely because it had a better hold on the State Treasury. Its faculty, *as a body*, had the same interest in South Carolina as Chamberlain & Co., to wit, public plunder. One or two genuine scholars and honest educators could not leaven that mass.

The death-blow given to the higher institutions of learning in the South is the darkest page in the history of "Reconstruction." Mr. Editor, you recognize and hold up to public scorn the carpet-bagger in politics. Do you not also recognize the carpet-bagger in education, especially in institutions supported entirely by the State Treasury?

Yours, very respectfully,

George T. Winston.

Chapel Hill, N. C., August 25, 1877.

[We shall recognize him as often as we get sight of him. In the case of the East Tennessee University we have no evidence and do not believe that he was the cause of the late wholesale dismissals.—Ed. Nation.]

WHALLEY THE REGICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a notice of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* which appeared in the *Nation* of August 9, special stress is laid upon certain points which were there noted bearing on the Maryland theories with regard to Edward Whalley the regicide. Both the *Nation* and those who commented on the evidence which was produced in the first number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine* appear to have overlooked one fact to which I wished to draw special attention, as being of importance in preserving the continuity of the evidence; this fact was a record of a journey to Virginia made by one of the regicides in the latter part of the year 1680.

1. We had been able to show how scanty was the evidence that Whalley died before 1680, or that he was buried either at New Haven or Hadley; we had also shown that an individual whose general appearance and bearing were suspiciously like that of the regicide had appeared first in Virginia and then in Maryland; and all that remained to be proved was the *journey*, which was, perhaps, not emphasized sufficiently in the first paper. This expedition was current tradition in New England at the time when Governor Hutchinson first published his History (1764), and up to that time no one pretended to designate which judge it was who had made the journey. Taking it for granted that Whalley was "superannuated" at that time, Governor Hutchinson fixes the fact on Goffe, and in this he is followed by President Stiles and all the other writers on this point. In fact, Governor Hutchinson conjectured that Theophilus Whale, of Narragansett, might be Goffe returned from Virginia, but this was shown to be impossible by President Stiles. Notwithstanding all the vagueness, the fact of the journey remains incontrovertible and is important evidence for the Maryland theory. The renewed persecutions in New England incident upon the arrival of Randolph would give the motive for such a journey, and it would be exceedingly improbable that, when once in safety, the regicide would have the temerity to return to New England. We have no means of deciding which judge it was, except by the Robins narrative of 1769 (see *Pennsylvania Magazine*, No. 1, p. 60), which fixes the fact on Whalley, and which is as deserving of belief as any evidence which has been yet brought to the front. In regard to Whalley's life before his appearance in Virginia, it is decidedly misty, but its assertions of facts after that time are supported by voluminous traditionary evidence.

2. With regard to Elizabeth Middleton, the wife of the regicide, Mr. Whitmore has had a word to say. He quotes Noble's account, which long ago was shown to be unreliable on many points. In point of fact, Dr. Neill's communication (which follows Mr. Whitmore's) shows that Noble is not an authority on this point; for Noble makes Elizabeth Middleton the only wife of Whalley, whereas recent investigations show that he was married before, and had four children by his first wife (see also *Notes and Queries*, 4th series, III., No. 78, p. 591).

3. With regard to Whalley's age almost all the critics have had a word to say. Granting the fact that centenarians are *rare* does not by any means disprove the Maryland claim. Theophilus Whale, of Narragansett, was 103 years of age at his death, yet Dr. Stiles did not consider that fact as detrimental to the Narragansett theory. And, moreover, although Dr. Stiles was quick to acknowledge the effect on Edward Whalley of his "stormy and harassed life," he does not regard the "extreme vigor" of Theophilus Whale as standing in the way of the Narragansett theory. On the other hand, Edward Wale, of Maryland, *did* show the effects of the hardships he had undergone, being blind for twenty years before his death, and latterly being sick or weak of body. Indeed, both the New England judges had a reputation for exceeding hardihood, although, during the last years of their residence, Whalley is said to have suffered exceedingly from the hardships he had encountered.

In conclusion, I may add that I had anticipated the recommendations of Mr. Whitmore and the *Nation*, and have been in communication with the clerks of Somerset and Worcester counties (Maryland) for some time, and hope in a short time to place on record more satisfactory documentary evidence.

Very truly yours,

R. P. Robins.

Philadelphia, August 17, 1877.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation 'Egypt,' by J. C. McCoan, a companion volume in interest with Wallace's 'Russia' and Baker's 'Turkey,' published by the same house.——John Wiley & Sons will publish the following scientific text-books: 'New Descriptive Geometry—Shades, Shadows, and Perspective,' by Prof. S. Edwards Warren; 'Principles of Mechanics,' a manual for high-schools, by Prof. De Volson Wood; and 'Differential Calculus,' by Prof. J. M. Rice.——Lawrence B. Thomas, 54 McCulloch St., Baltimore, invites subscriptions to a limited edition of his 'Genealogical Notes,' containing the pedigree of the Thomas Family of Maryland, and of Snowden, Buckley, Lawrence, Chew, Ellicott, and other connected families.——The Boston Public Library has issued a fifth edition of its Handbook for Readers. Under Chronology one sees how the institution *crescit eundo*, thus: 1877, February, Hunt bequest of books relating to the West Indies; May, 18,000 volumes from Mercantile Library Association; July, bequests of a $10,000 fund and a private library from Charlotte Harris, and of 800 valuable volumes from Miss Eliza Mary Thayer.——A Free-Trade Convention at Saratoga on the 8th inst. takes the place of the conference formerly announced for Chi-

cago. "Its object is a permanent organization for immediate work."——Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations' would still appear to be regarded in England as an "American" book of reference, of chiefly local value. Otherwise we should hardly find the *Athenæum* announcing (Aug. 18) its discovery of the earliest use of *Fiat justitia ruat cælum* in the 'Simple Cobbler of Aggawam in America.' Bartlett (fifth ed., 1868, p. 589) had already discovered it.——Two foreign *brochures* relating to the United States are symptomatic of the attention this country is receiving abroad: 'La Présidence aux Etats-Unis: Rutherford B. Hayes, les partis, et la constitution,' dedicated by the author, A. Jouault, to Mr. Tilden (Paris: Hachette); and 'De la representacion e influencia de los Estados-Unidos de America en el derecho internacional,' by Raphael-M. de Labra (Madrid).——The first edition of Bellows's French and English Pocket Dictionary, already noticed in these columns, was soon exhausted, and copies began to bring exorbitant prices. The second edition, enlarged and modified in several particulars, is now in the market and deserves the attention of book-collectors, students, and dictionary-makers. The last will find in it, besides new facts concerning the equivalence of French and English—as, for instance, that the French skipper calls "Starboard!" to the man at the wheel just when the English skipper would say "Port!" one referring to the bow of the vessel and the other to the helm—numerous contrivances worth adopting in writing a dictionary of any language.——A French translation of Baron Goltz's 'Léon Gambetta' is announced.

—The *North American* for September-October contains as its leading article a reply by Mr. Stoughton to Judge Black's contribution in the previous number on the "Electoral Conspiracy." It is Mr. Stoughton's object to "explode" the conspiracy "bubble," and, as might be expected, there is not much left of the bubble when he gets through with it, and we say this without implying a high compliment to either the bubble or its destroyer. In discussions of this sort that have been raging in the pages of the *Review* over the Electoral Commission, the difficulty is that the person who has the floor for the time being has it all his own way, and there being no one to decide the merits of the dispute, it is not decided at all. An attempt to obviate this inconvenience was made a short time since in the *Nineteenth Century* by publishing a learned dispute between eminent men, allowing each disputant to examine and comment only on the arguments that preceded his; thus making the discussion, as far as possible, a real one, and keeping all engaged in it well "up to their work." The magazine in question, however, failed in the execution of its idea, for though it secured "live" men for the discussion, whose names were well known, such as Huxley, James Martineau, Fitzjames Stephen, it omitted to select a "live" subject, and instead of taking one from contemporary politics, or Darwinism, or the "Music of the Future," set its men at work on a topic no more inviting than the connection between morality and religion. The public not being just now deeply interested in this question failed to observe what was going on, and thus lost the benefit of a really wise and interesting piece of disputation. The opportunity thus lost the *North American* might seize, and get some very entertaining contributions on matters of public interest. Something approaching this we have in the current number, in the two articles suggested by the recent strikes, one by Thomas A. Scott and the other by a "Striker," who by the way has occupied his self-imposed leisure to such good purpose that his style almost suggests an habitual contributor to the periodical press rather than the unlettered workingman. Mr. Scott makes an argument in favor of policing the inter-State lines by the national Government, without the preliminary farce of calling out the posse (often identical with the strikers themselves) and an unreliable State militia. He urges the passage of a law giving the owners of every such highway of commerce the right to appear by petition before the courts of the United States, and upon showing that inter-State traffic or the transportation of the mails is interfered with, by unlawful combinations, by threats or violence, to be furnished assistance by the United States to enforce the Court's process.

—Mr. Dion Boucicault contributes an article on that fertile subject, the "decline of the drama," in the guise of a letter to Charles Reade, in which he shows that the drama has always been declining; that Cæsar regarded Terence as poor stuff; that Addison ridiculed the grotesque realism of the stage in his day; that Goldsmith fifty years later mourned over the decadence which had set in since Queen Anne's time. Mr. Boucicault seems to think that the explanation of this is that mankind as a dramatic animal has deteriorated; and if we were to consider simply the English for the last three hundred years we should be inclined to agree with him; but that the whole world has been running down hill for two thousand years is more than the most comprehensive pessimism will allow us to believe. There is, we are inclined to think, a more simple explanation. The stage is almost the only art of which we have no lasting memorials. The pictures, buildings, or poems of different ages we can compare and test by constant æsthetic standards; but though we can compare the plays of one period with those of another, the acting we cannot. The standard is here a living one and perishes with the actors who from age to age fix it. But all the older part of each generation of playgoers have the advantage of having known two or three different standards, and are able to compare the style of the day with that of a day that is departed and of whose merits they are themselves the only surviving witnesses and judges. With them the past is of course tinged with a rosy hue, and the stage, as they first knew it, what no other stage can ever be. Hence any comparison they may make is sure to be to the disadvantage of the drama as it actually exists; and as they are the only persons capable of making comparisons, the prevailing opinion always is that "the drama is declining." It is needless to say that Mr. Boucicault has a word to say to the newspapers, to which he seems inclined to attribute all of the evil in the world that cannot be traced to original sin. He speaks of the press, as we notice most of the gentlemen who deal in "creative" work do, as if it were no mere product of human ingenuity and combined labor, but as a sort of devil having a personal existence and directing the course of events of its own will.

—Mr. David A. Wells's second instalment of "How shall the Nation regain Prosperity?" contains a very valuable collection of facts showing the effect of our complicated tariff on our foreign trade, particularly with our natural customers, Canada, the West Indies, and South America:

"But the commercial relations between the United States and the British North American Provinces are by no means peculiar or exceptional. They are, in fact, the type of the commercial relations which the United States has established with most or all other countries; and it matters little at what point one begins to investigate it. For he will find everywhere evidence, amounting to demonstration, that the development of the industry and commerce of the United States has been most disastrously checked, and the present state of business depression in a great degree occasioned, by the persistent refusal to recognize, in our commercial and fiscal legislation, the simplest principles of political economy. In further proof of this, attention is next asked to the character of our commercial relations with Chili—one of the most prosperous of the South American states. The manufactures of Chili being few and rudimentary in the extreme, its people import from other countries nearly all that they require of cottons, woollens, hardware, agricultural implements, and other machinery, paints, oils, gunpowder, earthen and glass ware, boots and shoes, straw goods, etc., etc. The largest single item of their imports is cotton cloth, of which Chili imported for domestic consumption during the year 1874—a year of great commercial depression—from Great Britain more than 55,000,000 yards; and from the United States during the same year a quantity not in excess of 5,000,000 yards; or, in other words, this little state, one of the smallest among the nations, with a population of about 2,000,000, imported more cotton cloth, to supply her wants, from Great Britain in 1874 than the United States exported that same year in the aggregate to *all* foreign countries combined. During the year 1874 many of the cotton-mills of the United States stood idle or worked on reduced time, for the reason that no market could be found for their products; but had the United States been able to supply Chili during that year with 55,000,000 yards of cotton cloth, the demand would have sufficed to have kept about 150,000 spindles (No. 14 yarn), or about one-quarter of the cotton-mills in the State of New York, in active operation for every working day in the year; and the withdrawal of the products of these mills from competition in the domestic market would probably have enabled many other mills in the country to have avoided suspension, to the great benefit of labor and to the diminution of destitution and idleness."

He then shows, by a process of exclusion, that the cause of the insignificant interchange of commodities was the tariff, because, first, it was not the price of English cottons, English cottons being quite as dear as American; second, because it was not the superiority in quality, American cottons being now better than English. The English manufacturer is, in fact, to-day at such a disadvantage that he is obliged to adulterate his goods with starch, clay, and other substances, and Chili would probably prefer to take American cottons; but as we will not take in exchange what Chili has for sale, but keep it out by a protective tariff, England supplies the market. General McClellan has an article on the Eastern war, which is valuable, though of course it does not come down to the most recent dates; Mr. Emerson writes on "Perpetual Forces"; E. L. Burlingame has some sensible criticism of recent American novels; Felix Adler concludes his contributions on "Reformed Judaism"; and there are some notes of importance on the "Progress of Astronomical Discovery." Altogether, this number is the best that has appeared under the new management.

—Mr. Simon Sterne, in the *International Review* for September-October, furnishes a summary of the chief facts and arguments of the report of the Municipal Committee appointed by Mr. Tilden, with some additional matter. For the labor of thus making the report fit for popular reading Mr. Sterne deserves hearty thanks. Every day certainly increases the number of those who believe that "the evils from which American city governments suffer are attributable to such deep-rooted causes, that it is the merest charlatanism to hold out any expectation of very important results from changing mere methods of administration, *personnel*, or departments." A restriction of the power of making appropriations of money to those who furnish the money is the only legitimate and radical method of reform, and to this we must come sooner or later in all large cities. Among the other articles in the present number of the *International Review* there is scarcely one which is not worth reading. The recent strike is discussed by Mr. W. M. Grosvenor; and Dr. Francis Wharton contributes the first number of a series of articles on "Judicial Partisanship," the design of which is to prove (1) that "so far as concerns routine political issues of constant recurrence, and involving no great stakes, judicial impartiality may be relied on," but (2) in cases "of exceptional character and of rare occurrence, involving great political stakes, judges are largely influenced by their political sympathies." The present article considers the partisan character of the decisions of the judges at the trial of Queen Caroline. The whole series will doubtless confirm the views of those who oppose any future relegation of questions involving political parties to the Supreme Court or any of its members. Professor Walker's current paper on "The World's Fair," giving the opinions of a competent critic upon the main features of the display, and telling us precisely in what points the United States excelled and in what it was deficient; Mr. A. H. Stephens's discussion of the authorship of the Letters of Junius, which he partly inclines to believe were written by Thomas Lyttleton; and Professor Amos Sheldon's essay on "Modern Armies and Modes of Warfare," are all readable.

—The theatres are already open again, with every prospect of a successful fall season. "Ah Sin" seems to have been written to bring out the peculiar talent for Chinese acting possessed by Mr. Parsloe, and may be said to be a great improvement upon the "Two Men of Sandy Bar," in which there was altogether too little Chinese relief from the dull monotony of the portions which represented American life. How true *Ah Sin* is to life we do not know, but if the representation of Judge Lynch's court of "Vigilantes" as given in this play is correct there must have been numerous executions of innocent men in the early days of California. At the Union Square "Pink Dominoes," a play of the same class as "Forbidden Fruit" played last year at Wallack's, has been brought out with great success. How many of these dramas there may be in existence we do not know, but they are all the fruit of one parent stem, and that of French growth. In them all the interest turns on the adventures of two married men, who get away from their wives by means of some trick for the purpose of a night's pleasure. In some way (in the present case by means of dominoes) they all meet during the night, the wickedness of the husbands is thoroughly exposed, and after a thousand blunders and misadventures all ends happily amid a domestic peace and forgiveness which promises more escapades of the same kind. The subject is one which is displeasing to Anglo-Saxon taste and notions of morality; but, whether because Anglo-Saxon taste and notions of morality are dying out, or for some other reasons, there is no kind of play that succeeds better in New York. Coghlan, who takes the part of one of the husbands, is decidedly better in comedy of this sort than he is in Shakespere, though he always just misses being natural. "Baby," another French play, is not so well acted at the Park Theatre as it ought to be, though even badly acted it is extremely amusing. Mr. Lemoyne, who is in certain characters one of the best comedians we have, is very good as the depraved tutor and "friend of the family." At Wallack's, English burlesque is the order of the day, but it is not altogether the dreary, unmitigated burlesque of former seasons. Lydia Thompson, who has certainly the merit of energy and ingenuity, has in "Oxygen" come nearer—yet oh! how far—to French *opéra-bouffe* than anything in English we have seen. The play is founded on Jules Verne's extravaganza of "Doctor Ox," the scientific man who wakes up the inhabitants of a sleepy Dutch town by the substitution of oxygen for common air. Of course this affords room for strange metamorphoses of all sorts, and also for an absurd dénouement, when the gasworks explodes and the natives suddenly revert to their former comatose condition.

—We lately gave some account of the Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station. Since then it has had submitted to it for analysis samples of "Composition for Grass" and "Composition for Vegetables," sold by a New Haven firm of manufacturers and dealers in "improved fertilizers." The barrels of the Composition for Grass promise the purchaser 86 per cent. of organic and soluble "plant food," worth $32 per ton. The Station analysis allows only 4 per cent. of plant food, and 96 per cent. of "water, vegetable matter and earth, not worth barrelling," the whole valued at $1 03 per ton. To loss in water is ascribed the difference between the selling weight of 250 pounds per barrel, and the actual weight of 204½ pounds. The Composition for Vegetables fared no better. According to the pretensions of its makers, it contained 73 per cent. of plant food; according to the Station analysis, only 2½ per cent., "or less than a good compost"; and instead of being worth $32 a ton was worth only $0 99. Moreover, it bore a striking resemblance to the Composition for Grass, and the shrinkage from loss of water was even greater —195½ lbs., instead of 250. It will not require many exposures like these to reimburse the farmers of Connecticut a thousand-fold for their share in the cost of maintaining the Station.

—Apropos of the late astronomical discovery, a correspondent writes us from Union Springs, N. Y.:

"It is very probable that Prof. Hall is the first American who has seen the two satellites of Mars, but it is a great mistake to speak of him as their discoverer. Their existence was known to the astronomers of Laputa one hundred and fifty years ago, and they had already determined their distance from the planet and their period of rotation, in which elements Prof. Hall has perhaps made some mistake. It is to be hoped that this confirmation of his accuracy will have the effect of drawing increased attention to the too much discredited Travels of Gulliver."

—In the August number of *Macmillan's Magazine* Mr. Goldwin Smith discusses "The Decline of Party Government" in a way that should prove specially instructive to American readers. He begins, indeed, by paying us the compliment of his opinion that "the late Presidential election appears likely, in its results, to mark an epoch not only in the political history of the United States, but in that of all constitutional countries. In the person of the new President, the American Government has come out of party, and is trying to be the Government of the whole nation." He goes on to quote Burke's definition and defence of party as a necessary factor in constitutional government; criticises it by showing that the principle of party organization "must not be a moral principle, because this would imply an organized opposition on the other side, and the permanent existence of an immoral party," but must be one of expediency; that transcendent questions of this sort are exceptional, and not normal, and, "however important, do not last for ever"; that "the better a party is in point of intelligence, individual sense of responsibility, individual regard for the public good, the less submissive to the whip and therefore the weaker it becomes—a singular result of the only perfect system." He ridicules the idea that, from the nature of man, there must always be a conservative and a liberal party, and, finally, lays down the proposition that

"Let party, as a system of government, be good or evil, the materials for parties are nearly exhausted in the British colonies, and probably in the United States; that they are temporarily exhausted, and may one day be entirely exhausted, in England; while in other countries (in France and Germany, for instance), the sections and subsections of opinion are too numerous and the lines between them are too wavering to admit of the clear division into two parties absolutely essential to the working of the system, which, when there are three or four parties instead of two, becomes a quicksand of intrigue on which no government can be founded."

It is, we think, too early to speculate on the future of parties in this country as determined by civil-service reform, so that we regard Mr. Smith's argument as more valuable for dissipating the spell of party than as prophecy. He himself remarks that "nothing is more curious than the ingenuity with which new reasons are invented for old institutions when the original reasons have ceased to exist"; and Mr. Blaine at Woodstock, though exceptionally foolish, was not exceptionally ingenious in discovering a new public necessity for maintaining the old party lines: we have plenty like him in both camps.

—Perhaps the most notable paper read this year at the meeting of the British Association was, according to the *Spectator*, Professor Allison's on embryology. From recent careful studies of sharks' eggs he considered it proved that the limbs of mammals are the divided remains of a continuous lateral fin, and "examination of the structure of the parts making up the limbs of the vertebrates leads us to believe that each limb contains materials for more than one metamere, and it becomes an interesting subject for speculation as to why in vertebrate animals the

number of limbs has never exceeded two pairs." "There is no morphological reason," adds the *Spectator*, "and the reason, therefore, must be mechanical—bipedal and quadrupedal animals deriving from their limited number of legs some advantage in the struggle for existence. It would follow, we presume, that supposing conditions slightly altered—supposing the soil, for instance, as yielding as sand sometimes is—we might have had a hundred-legged horse, or a twelve-legged man—an idea which opens a strange vista of possibilities in other planets."

CLINGMAN'S SPEECHES.*

I.

ANYTHING more insulting to an old-school Republican than to invite his attention to the last political testament of a Confederate brigadier-general could hardly be imagined. Such is virtually the character of the book before us; for Mr. Clingman, while reproducing his principal speeches in the Senate and House of Representatives, and connecting them by a narrative partly personal and partly historical, not only aims to let posterity know him and his time, but assuredly means to challenge its verdict on his conduct and his motives. In fact, in his preface, he distinctly commends "the publication as a whole" to the young men of the country, "in the hope that it may prove interesting and instructive" to them; and though this may cause it to be looked upon by Mr. Blaine's followers with somewhat of the same horror with which the author used to regard an abolition tract, we shall for ourselves say briefly that we entirely concur in this commendation, and should extend it to the older generation if there were any hope that a considerable number of them would heed our advice. The appearance of this volume, which includes Mr. Clingman's part in nominating and electing Mr. Tilden, marks the actual close of the Civil War, and it is too much to expect the Northern or the Southern mind to sit down and dispassionately review the causes of the great revolution and pass fair judgment on the principal actors on either side. So far as this came within Mr. Clingman's intent, it cannot be said that he has succeeded, but he has brought to the task a degree of candor and of moderation which few of his antagonists in Congress and in the field would be likely to exhibit under the same temptations.

To show his title to be listened to with respect we shall quote from an address delivered in June, 1873, at Davidson College (p. 46):

"Probably in no period of our [North Carolina] history were the laws more successfully administered, and private rights better protected, than throughout the year 1866. The United States, however, thought proper to abolish our State government, to disfranchise most of those citizens whose capacity and training fitted them to discharge public business, and also conferred the right of suffrage and to hold office on a large class without experience or knowledge. That to effect these objects the Reconstruction Acts were necessary I do not question, for our own people would not of themselves have disfranchised their leading men, nor given universally the right to vote and hold office to the liberated colored men. It would be out of place at this time for us to enquire whether we might not have so acted as to have greatly lessened the mischief caused by these proceedings."

We doubt if the Republican party will ever receive, or will ever require, a better justification of its reconstruction policy in the abstract than this admission contains. It is only one specimen of the fairness to opponents and self-restraint which the perusal of these speeches compels the reader to ascribe as native qualities to our North-Carolinian. Not more surprising therefore is it to find him engaged in a duel with Mr. Yancey in less than a year after he took his seat in Congress as a Representative of the Eighth or Buncombe District, than to witness his conversion from the conservatism that opposed (alone among Southern Representatives) the famous Twenty-first Rule (by which anti-slavery petitions were excluded), to the fire-eating fanaticism that advocated the occupation of Panama as a step towards ensuring a slaveholding empire on the Gulf, and favored "a war with Spain, England, and even France," as a means of staving off disunion or civil war. We are accustomed to associate the extreme views and belligerent temper of the Southern leaders before the war with real ignorance of the North and of the foreign powers whom they so recklessly provoked. Mr. Clingman's change of mind, however, dates directly from his first visit North in 1849, when, as he says, he "for the first time realized the extent of the anti-slavery movement." He saw that it could only be counteracted by such a demonstration on the part of the South as should produce a reaction at the North. He at once declared that the application of the Wilmot Proviso to the newly-acquired Mexican territory ought to be resisted in a manner "commensurate with the violence of the attack"; that it would mark a "great organic change in our political system" which the Southern States ought not to acquiesce in; and that the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia would likewise be sufficient ground for disunion. In January, 1850, he asserted in the House that the evils "already inflicted" by the North "greatly exceed in amount any injury that Great Britain attempted when she drove the colonies into resistance," and entered into an elaborate calculation as to how the South could maintain itself financially if separated from the Union; and, noticing the threat that the North would in that case take possession of the Mississippi, predicted that "the Southern States, having now a free population of six millions, and producing in succession such soldiers as Washington, Jackson, Scott, and Taylor, need have no serious fears of foreign [*i.e.*, Northern] aggression." In May, 1852, he was already talking of "my countrymen," meaning Southerners. In short, from having been a moderate Whig, who loathed and denounced Calhoun as a disunionist, he not only became almost instantly reconciled to the prospect of disunion, but did all he could thenceforth to familiarize the South with it, and to prove how easily and safely and advantageously it could be effected.

In the swift collapse of a character so courageous and independent as Mr. Clingman's one sees the spell of slavery as clearly as in the reluctant adhesion of his own State to the secession movement. Later on, under the same baleful influence, we feel that his candor gives way. He lent his support to the measure to repeal the Missouri Compromise, against his own views of policy, and, one cannot help thinking, against his convictions. His speech on Kansas and Nebraska, April 4, 1854, shows a marked lowering of tone, as befits the pleader of a bad cause who can no longer be consecutive or logical or ingenuous, and who must needs shirk the main issue—Shall the plighted faith of the nation be violated? It is stump oratory, pure and simple, in striking contrast with the speaker's usual manner. Six years later (May 7, 1860), striving to maintain the "non-intervention" compromise of 1850, against Jeff Davis, who demanded Congressional protection of slave property in the Territories, he says (p. 490), "I am free to admit" (but he was really bound to admit) "that if, *in an unwise moment*, a man makes a compromise *that is ruinous to him*, he may, *under great necessity*, avoid it, *perhaps*." The italics are ours; the qualifying clauses look like the struggles of conscience, but they are not. The next day he refers to the 36° 30′ line, "which had been regarded as sanctified by thirty-four years' existence, and *which was called a compromise*'; and to the compromise of 1850, which, if his colleagues "looked upon it as [he] did, as a compromise," they would not seek to disturb. In other words, he was fully committed to the doctrine that one party to an agreement may decide (1) whether there was an agreement; (2) whether it was made in a wise moment; (3) whether it was advantageous or ruinous to himself; (4) whether there was a great necessity for refusing to abide by it and declaring it null and void.

It is impossible to overlook the connection between this doctrine and the repudiation mania now prevalent at the South. In his maiden speech in the House (March 7, 1844) Mr. Clingman was anxious to use the revenues from the public lands "to enable those States that are indebted to pay back to their creditors what they have borrowed, and to remove the cloud which rests on the honor of some of them." He went much further. Holding up the Democratic party to scorn, he enquired:

"What do they think of repudiation itself? A State borrows money, and uses it; and she afterwards refuses to pay the debt, and repudiates it; and this monstrous doctrine, instead of being met by one universal shout of execration, is in some quarters excused and defended. I rejoice, however, that no Whig can be numbered among its apologists. If there was such an individual in our ranks, I should desire to see him at once expelled from the party. It is a question about which I, for one, cannot consent to temporize. With the opinions I hold it would be criminal in me not to denounce it on all proper occasions. *It is a cancer in our system, which, if not removed, will destroy our national character* and everything else which we ought most to value. Important as is character to individuals, it is still more so to states. When a people have lost all sense of national honor, the immutable laws of Providence forbid them to be anything but *slaves*."

The mind uncorrupted as yet by sophistical endeavors to frame a satisfying excuse for repudiating the national obligation contracted in 1820, knew honor from dishonor and plied the lash where it was deserved. It is melancholy, therefore, to find Mr. Clingman, in the very last speech reported in this volume (Tilden campaign, September 12, 1876), denouncing the demonetization of silver as "the most remarkable public crime that has ever been committed by our Government—perhaps I might say, in view of the circumstances, by any civilized government," for the reason that "as silver was at that time rather the cheaper of the two

* 'Selections from the Speeches and Writings of Hon. Thomas L. Clingman, of North Carolina. With additions and explanatory notes.' Raleigh. 1877. 8vo, pp. v, 623.

metals, the Government could have paid its debt more easily in silver than gold"; denouncing the Republican party for having, "against the vote of every Democrat," made the principal of the Government debt payable in coin, although it was "payable in greenbacks, according to such authorities as Thad. Stevens and B. F. Butler"; and for having "passed the Resumption Act to destroy the paper circulation."

The conclusion to which every unprejudiced reader of this volume must come, as regards the effect of slavery on the Southern character, is that it made it impossible for Northern and Southern men to discuss moral questions from a common ground. Mr. Clingman's account and explanation of the spread of abolition sentiments by means of the press reads as if he were at a loss to reconcile it with the order of nature. It is a great deal for him, therefore, to allow, after the catastrophe which destroyed "the greatest advance made in the science of government and of the difference of the races of men and their adaptation to different social institutions," that "the effects produced have as overwhelming evidence in favor of their being Providentially-directed movements as any other recorded in profane history." But we doubt if he can still regard as anything but jargon Mr. Charles Francis Adams's tribute, at the late Free-Soil celebration, to the Abolitionists, as "that small band of courageous men, and women too, who, having no fear of man before their eyes, and yet conscious of the danger that would beset them from their adoption of a most unpopular cause, went on boldly in the face of a malignant and dangerous opposition to uphold with steady perseverance the cause of *justice*, of *humanity*, and of *truth*." Still less do we believe that he can regard as genuine the feeling which Whittier threw into his splendid "Pæan" in honor of the same Buffalo Convention celebrated by Mr. Adams, and characterized by Mr. Clingman in 1850 as having "objects contrary to the whole spirit of the Constitution of the United States, and which, if carried into effect, would inevitably have destroyed the Union":

"Now, joy and thanks for evermore!
The weary night has well-nigh passed;
The slumbers of the North are o'er,—
The Giant stands erect at last!

. . . . . .

"O prisoners in your house of pain,
Dumb, toiling millions, bound and sold,
Look! stretched o'er Southern vale and plain,
The Lord's delivering hand behold!"

Camp, Court, and Siege. A narrative of personal adventure and observation during two wars, 1861–1865, 1870–1871. By Wickham Hoffman, Assistant Adjt.-Gen. U. S. Vols. and Secretary U. S. Legation at Paris. (New York: Harpers.)—Mr. Hoffman has given, in these light, chatty reminiscences, an account of what fell under his observation during a campaign of four years in the Southwest, and a diplomatic career of as many more in Paris, terminated by the events of the Franco-Prussian War, the siege of Paris, the rising and overthrow of the Commune. It is not often that a man has, in so short a space of time, the opportunity for so much observation and adventure. Mr. Hoffman has not contributed much to the history of our own war, but what he has to say about the siege of Paris and the Commune is valuable, as he was one of the few intelligent and impartial foreigners in the city throughout the entire period. His description of the condition of the French army and the general demoralization tallies exactly with what we know from other sources, and contains many little scenes which throw a good deal of light on the French defeat. One of these is at the time of Burnside's peace mission from the German lines, which, by the way, we have always fancied must have been thought a huge joke by the Germans, but which Mr. Hoffman represents as having been suggested by them. General Burnside went into Paris with Mr. Paul Forbes, a private citizen, who, for the sake of military etiquette, was promoted to the post of aid-de-camp, with the title of colonel. A meeting was appointed with Trochu, Mr. Hoffman acting as interpreter. We give his account of the interview in his own words:

"Before Burnside had stated the object of his visit, Trochu made us a speech. He spoke well for nearly half an hour. He told us that France had been very wicked; that she had fallen away from the true Catholic faith; that infidelity and scepticism were rampant in the land; that the misfortunes which had come upon her were deserved; that they were visitations for the sins of the people; but that, when they had repented and humbled themselves, he had faith that the punishment would pass from them. He continued in this strain for full twenty minutes, speaking very eloquently; then pulled out his handkerchief, and saying, 'Excuse my emotion,' he wept. After this he came to business. Burnside confined himself most conscientiously to the exact tenor of his message. Trochu made repeated suggestions of such and such possibilities, but Burnside refused to follow him. He knew nothing but his instructions. As I had feared, Trochu bristled up at the no-revictualment clause. 'Such a condition had never been heard of. From the most remote antiquity there had always been revictualment allowed in case of armistice, so much per head per diem.' He gave us at that time no positive answer, but said he would discuss the matter with his colleagues. Negotiations failed upon this very point. The French Government called it a point of honor. It was rather a point of vanity. We did not need the provisions, as the result showed we had food enough for three months. Yet, for that barren privilege of bringing in food which was not needed, the Government of the National Defence rejected the armistice. They could then have made peace, with the loss of one province and two milliards. They continued the war, and lost two provinces and five milliards."

He gives also a war-song of the National Guard, which, if he did not vouch for it, we should have been inclined to think had been written by Offenbach. The National Guard, it should be remembered, were the last reserve of the country, but their antipathy to fighting was insuperable. As they marched through the streets they sang:

"Nous partons,
ons, ons,
Comme des moutons,
Comme des moutons,
Pour la boucherie,
rie, rie.

"On nous massacra,
ra, ra,
Comme des rats,
Comme des rats.
Comme Bismarck rira!
rira!"

Scientific Results of the U. S. Arctic Expedition, Steamer *Polaris*, C. F. Hall, commanding. Vol. I. Physical Observations by Emil Bessels. (Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1876. 4to.)—After a long delay, for which the author of the volume before us is in nowise responsible, the first portion of the scientific results of the *Polaris* Expedition to the Arctic regions has been printed. It consists of nearly a thousand pages, divided into fifteen separately-paged parts, and appears under the auspices of a committee of the National Academy of Sciences, of which Prof. Henry is chairman. Devoted to physical and hydrographical observations, and deductions from them, it is a work which recommends itself to the scientific rather than the literary reader. Under the caption "Passage," may be found a concise history of the expedition so far as it relates to scientific observations, followed by a chapter on the "Condition of the Ice" and another on the "Density of the Sea and Remarks on Currents." Among the most interesting and valuable of the results in hydrography are those deduced from the tidal observations, which extended over nearly eight lunations, and which are exhibited on a chart of the North Pacific and Atlantic cotidal curves. These (as well as independent observations treated of by Houghton in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' "On the Tides of Point Barrow") indicate that the wave of Polaris Bay is probably derived from the Atlantic wave, the latter rounding the northern extreme of Greenland and entering Robeson Channel from the north. The "Temperature of the Air" includes records and discussions of atmospheric temperatures observed at both winter quarters of the expedition, and a review of the present thermic conditions of the Arctic region. Under "Hygrometrical Observations" we find hourly observations of the amount of moisture contained in the air, experience proving that if the necessary precautions be taken these observations are not necessarily made impracticable by the low temperatures of the Arctic winter. Then follow chapters on "Atmospheric Pressure," "Record and Discussion of the Winds," and "Polar Radiation," the latter with some interesting observations. In that on the "Face of the Sky and State of the Weather" the remarkable fact is recorded that cumulus clouds were observed almost daily at Polaris House and Polaris Bay, while, as is well known, in most regions they are rarely observed in winter. Further, we have "Observations on Ozone"; "Meteorological Observations taken at Sea"; "Chronometer Journal"; "Astronomical Observations"; "Pendulum Experiments," a long series; the few magnetic observations that were saved from the wreck of the *Polaris;* a list of auroras; and very full psychrometrical tables for the use of further Arctic expeditions.

The volume is illustrated by two maps, a number of plates, and many woodcuts, and is printed in the creditable style common to most of the scientific works which issue from the Government press. The work bears evidence of thoroughness and care on every page, and physical students everywhere, as well as those specially devoted to Arctic researches, will congratulate Dr. Bessels and the country on the completion of this the most arduous portion of his labors. It is to be hoped that the remaining

volumes may not long be delayed. It may certainly be a just source of pride to all Americans, that under the peculiar circumstances with which the progress of this expedition was attended, so much of solid and permanent value was nevertheless obtained.

Art Anatomy. By Dr. William Rimmer. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877.)—Dr. Rimmer is known to a certain number of persons here and in Boston as a draughtsman of singular power, shown especially in a consummate mastery of the human figure, such as we may suppose the great artists of the Renaissance to have possessed, enabling him to portray it without a moment's forethought or preparation in any attitude with unerring accuracy, and giving to his slightest sketches the stamp of life. This exceptional gift he has exercised from time to time for the advantage of classes in Boston and New York. Last winter he took part in the instruction of the Art School at the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston, and to the admiration expressed at his blackboard sketches, dashed off at the instant and yet full of truth and expression, and the regret that they must disappear for ever as suddenly as they came, we may perhaps ascribe the publication of the work before us. It is an atlas of eighty-one heliotype reproductions of a series of drawings, 10×14 inches in size, mostly in outline but carefully elaborated, forming what we may call a grammar of expression for the human form.

"Art is the language of the sensibilities, and in this tongue every different form describes a different character." This is Dr. Rimmer's motto, and he has illustrated it in detail by exhibiting the relations of parts to each other, and the significance of proportions in head and limbs in their bearing upon the dominant expression of the whole. To art, the human body, like all other objects, has a purely representative value; it is a sign to be interpreted. The work of art must excite a particular sentiment; this is its *raison d'être*, and no other virtues, no elevation of aim, no fidelity to external facts can give it the right to exist. The function of the artist is first of all to feel out amidst the chaos of impressions those which tell his story. Most persons when they try to draw cannot see the wood for the trees: nature puts them out. The beginner at the life-school is bewildered, and looks with amazement at the assured strokes of the adept. He has eyes, but sees not—for he has not learned the comparative values of what he sees. Here Dr. Rimmer's book can help him, for art speaks a universal language, understood in a measure by each as soon as he hears it. To a certain extent we are all physiognomists, and act constantly on the instinctive assumption of the intelligibleness and the veracity of form and features. The business of the artist is to carry the interpretation further, to emphasize the fatal lines in which the secrets of nature are told, so that all can read their meaning. It is only through this perception of values that any accuracy of drawing becomes possible. Not the most assiduous copying nor any human memory could seize or retain a hundredth part of the possible combinations of lines; for the slightest change of position is echoed through the whole, and gives a fresh arrangement. The careless or mechanical artist is betrayed in the slightest figure he puts into his picture; we feel that it is only clothes and skin, hide and horns, not the living creature.

The first thirty plates or so relate to the head, pointing out in detail the value, as expressing character, of variations in the general contour, in the comparative prominence of the different planes of the face, and in the several features; also the natural connection of various arrangements of the hair and beard with particular types of head. The rest are devoted to an elaborate anatomy of the trunk and limbs, with constant reference to the coherence and interdependence of parts. The student will get here probably all that he needs concerning the muscular and bony structure of the human body, and will get it, too, after it has passed through the mind of one who is fully alive to the purposes for which he needs it. It is a pity that the book is so costly, but this is better and more for the interest of all concerned than that the completeness of treatment should suffer. There is no separate text, but explanations are supplied by brief notes at the side of the drawings, in some instances perhaps too brief to be fully intelligible.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*	
Creighton (Louise), Life of Sir Walter Raleigh	(Rivingtons)	
Friedrich (J.), Geschichte des Vatikanischen Konzils, Vol. I., swd.	(Westermann & Co.)	
Halstead (W. R.), Future Religious Policy of America	(Hitchcock & Walden)	$1 50
Hermann (E.), Die Bedeutung des Sommernachstraums, swd	(Westermann & Co.)	
His Grandmothers: a Tale	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Hosmer (F. L.), The Way of Life	" "	75
Hunt (Dr. D.), Concerning Medical Reform	(A. Williams & Co.)	
Janes (E.), French Grammar	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 20
Mitchell (Dr. S. W.), Nurse and Patient, and Camp Cure	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Oliphant (Mrs.), Dante	" "	
Poe (E. A.), Prose Tales, swd	(W. J. Widdleton)	50
Stewart (G., jr.), Story of the Great Fire in St. John, N. B.	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	1 50
Travellers' Complete Note-book	(Souvenir Pub. Co.)	60
Waring (G. E., jr.), Village Improvements	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	
Sanitary Condition of City and Country Houses.	(D. Van Nostrand)	

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"Allen & Greenough's Latin Grammar received in its first editions (1872) remarkable and extensive use. In the edition just issued (1877) it advances as much upon itself as then upon its rivals. It has been used in Phillips Academy for four years past, and I have carefully read the revision. It is improved in all respects."—*C. F. P. Bancroft, Ph.D., Prin. Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.*

"We have had in use in the Adams Academy, since it was opened in 1872, the Latin Grammar of Messrs. Allen & Greenough. I have regarded it as the best Latin Grammar for school use published in this country. . . . I consider this new edition as a great improvement upon the former ones."—*Dr. Wm. R. Dimmock, Adams Academy, Quincy.*

GOODWIN'S GREEK GRAMMAR,

With White's or Leighton's Greek Lessons, and Goodwin's Greek Reader, is used in more than three-fourths of the colleges and preparatory schools in the United States.

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Continued from page iv.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 13, 1877.

The Week.

THE President has made what is called a "flank movement" on Cornell, the Naval Officer, by refraining from removing him for disobeying the order forbidding officers to serve on political committees, and announcing that he will be removed along with Mr. Arthur on the general ground that the Custom-house needs reorganization under new men. The cause of this "flank movement" is, it is said, the rumor that Mr. Conkling, who is always expected to cover himself with glory on some great question, but who somehow never displays much zeal or interest about anything but patronage, intended to resist Cornell's removal on this ground in the Senate. There are a great many people who admire dexterity more than pluck, and would sooner any day "euchre" a man than fight him, who are greatly pleased with this mode of disposing of the question; but we must confess, however much inconvenience it may save the President for the moment, we do not think it will contribute much to a "thorough and radical and complete" reform of the civil service. Conkling and Cornell and their kind, as we observe elsewhere, must be met and fought on this question at some time, and no time is better than the present. If the reform, too, needs the support of public opinion, it ought to be observed that the public is not apt to be roused by "flank movements," and that discipline is not likely to be improved by removing a man on general grounds close upon a particular, flagrant, and contemptuous act of disobedience.

The Maine election, which has been carried by the Republicans by about the usual majority in an "off" year, was of no political significance, as there were no issues of importance plainly presented by the two leading parties. Williams, the Democratic candidate, undoubtedly lost some votes by his straightforward letter of acceptance, and the Greenback and Labor parties drew votes from both Democrats and Republicans, polling, it is reported, about 3,000. The money, tariff, civil-service, resumption, and other vital questions did not enter into the contest, the parties being either agreed upon them or indifferent to them. The canvass was extremely lukewarm and the vote a very light one.

Contrary to our anticipations, the Pennsylvania Republicans, at their State Convention last week, passed the most straightforward resolutions with reference to the strike of any yet presented at a political convention. We give them in full:

"*Eighth.* We are in favor of law and against lawlessness and anarchy, with all their attendant horrors and crimes. Equal rights in making laws impose equal duties in obeying them when made; and we tender our hearty thanks to Governor Hartranft and the officers and soldiers of his command for the prompt and, we hope, the effectual suppression of the lawless disturbances which recently occurred in this State.

"*Ninth.* That we hold in equal respect the right of capital to control its investments and of labor to determine the value of its service. That we deprecate any assertion by violence of the rights of either, and we assert it is the duty of all citizens to hold their respective rights within the just limitations of the law, and that any attempt to coerce either by unlawful means should be promptly repressed by such lawful authority as the exigency demands."

Of the remaining resolutions, the only ones advocating a definite policy were the tenth, a very strong tariff resolution, demanding "a still closer adherence to the protective policy which the Republicans of Pennsylvania have always sustained"; the sixth, which calls for the remonetization of silver and "a return to the free use and unrestricted coinage of the dollar of 1798"; and the fifth, which opposes the renewal of any patents. The hope was expressed that the results of Mr. Hayes's policy would be peace and good will, etc., and hearty and cordial support was pledged to the efforts of his administration to carry into effect the principles of the platform upon which he was elected. As the convention was "run" by the Camerons, this last shows that in their opinion the day of opposition to Mr. Hayes's "policy" has gone by. No reference was made to civil-service reform or to the resumption of specie payments. The Wisconsin Republican Convention, which met last Tuesday, passed no resolution of importance, save one, namely, "that the silver dollar should be restored to its former place as money." It mildly approved of civil-service reform, and opposed "any further bestowal of public lands upon railroad corporations."

Mr. J. R. Jones, Collector of Customs at Chicago, has read a lecture to the President on the subject of civil-service reform. Mr. Jones was twice requested by the President to resign his office, and twice he declined to do so. He was accordingly suspended, but took leave to say that he had heretofore learned from the President's letter of acceptance that faithful officers were to be retained permanently in their places; that he (Jones) has been faithful, that no charges have been preferred against him, and that his commission has not expired. Consequently his self-respect restrains him from complying with the request for his resignation, however often repeated. The fallacy of this species of reasoning we have exposed elsewhere, but since the *argumentum ad hominem* seems to be Mr. Jones's forte, it may be worth while to mention that he returned to the United States about two years ago from protracted services as minister to Belgium—a position considerably above his merits—and made no scruple of crowding another person out of the Chicago Custom-house who was serving faithfully, and whose commission had not expired, and who had not resigned. It is stated also that Mr. Jones has been continuously in lucrative Federal offices for sixteen years, and has been distinguished for nothing except tenacity in holding them. It would appear, therefore, that he is not highly qualified to take the platform as an ill-used person, or to appeal to the Senate in that character. His successor in the Chicago Custom-house is Mr. Wm. Henry Smith, the general agent of the Western Associated Press.

Mr. Niles G. Parker, Treasurer of South Carolina from 1868 to 1872, recently indicted by the Grand Jury of the State for various criminal offences, was "interviewed" the other day by a reporter of the *World* at his residence in Jersey City, where for the past two years he has been trying "to live an honest and Christian life, and to help the temperance cause and other good measures." He admits that his present righteousness cannot be projected backwards and made to cover the years of his life as a South Carolina politician. "I went," he says, "to South Carolina an honest man, and succumbed like others to the great temptations in my path." The burden of his somewhat lengthy and not very clear confession is that he was only an accomplice of Scott, Neagle, Kimpton, Chamberlain, and others, that they were really the active sinners, and that he only assented to their wicked projects and took his percentage of the plunder. Of Parker's guilt there was no more doubt before this confession than there is now, and the confession is mainly significant because of the charges it brings against Chamberlain, who has thus far escaped indictment. Parker alleges that Chamberlain advocated all the financial projects of Kimpton and drew up the bills for the Legislature; that, according to agreement, he was to receive one-third of Kimpton's commissions; that he was pecuniarily interested in various other matters which were subjects of corrupt legislation, and that his chief reason for contesting the election of Hampton was his desire to avoid any overhauling of his accounts by an opposing political party. Altogether the confession reads as though Parker

greatly desired to be permitted a continuance of his "honest and Christian life" as a reward for turning state's evidence and implicating Chamberlain. If he continues to lead the temperance cause in Jersey City, or in any other place where he can be found, he will probably be sent for soon by the Columbia authorities, with whom we may leave him to make his own bargain. Owens, another of the indicted knaves, died the other day in Baltimore of delirium tremens, and the authorities have seized his property, which was considerable. Senator Patterson's guilt is plainly proved by one of his own letters, and he can hardly retain his present seat in Congress.

Pursuant to a public call, a Free-trade Conference was held at Saratoga on Friday, which passed an excellent series of resolutions, and took steps to organize the sentiment of the country in accordance with them. From the moderation and good sense shown in the final result of this gathering, we infer that some who appeared to take a very prominent part, and who might be thought desirous to make themselves conspicuous, were practically overruled in the inner councils which prepared the work of the conference. It was resolved that the business depression heretofore prevailing has been due to erroneous financial and commercial legislation, which has prevented us from disposing of our surplus products by making it difficult or impossible for other countries to sell us theirs; that taxation for other purposes than the revenue, and the restrictions put upon cheaply building and profitably buying ships, has virtually destroyed our mercantile navy; that while the important interests that have grown up under our tariff system must be considered in any reform, it is clear from their prostrate condition that protection has done its utmost for them, and that they, like other interests, need a thorough revision of the tariff; that existing commercial treaties should be overhauled and adapted to the altered times, and new ones negotiated where now wanting, as with France and Spain; that reciprocity with Canada should be revived; and that organization of all those who assent to these views should now be undertaken in order to disseminate them. To Messrs. D. A. Wells and Abraham L. Earle was entrusted the formation of a council to superintend and promote organization. The members selected are better fitted, we should say, for the task of recruiting than for the direction of the movement when its strength becomes known and a permanent organization will be necessary; but, for the present, recruiting—that is, not making converts so much as enrolling the faithful—is the most pressing duty. The National Convention and National Association will follow in due time. The acceptance of a place in the Council by Mr. W. L. Trenholm, of Charleston, shows that the Southern field is not to be neglected; and even a protectionist might find some good in the creation of a general interest at the South in questions which neither slavery nor the war can any longer embitter or befog.

Judge Bradley, of the U. S. Supreme Court, has published or inspired already two defences of his vote on the Electoral Commission in the Newark *Advertiser*. A charge in the New York *Sun* that, after having prepared a written opinion in the Florida case in favor of the Tilden electors, he had changed his mind under Republican pressure during the night, and voted the other way the next day, has now produced a third defence, consisting in a general denial with explanations. There never was a case to which the proverb *Qui s'excuse s'accuse* was more applicable than to this. Judge Bradley has been singled out for attack in this matter not because he voted steadily in support of Hayes's claim, but because, having voted in the Florida case to admit evidence as to the ineligibility of an elector at the date of his appointment—thus by implication deciding that if the evidence showed ineligibility at that date the vote could not be counted—he subsequently in the Louisiana case, where ineligibility at the date of appointment was clear, decided that it made no difference whether the elector was ineligible or not at such date, provided that he qualified before voting. This change of view saved Hayes's title, and was compatible with entire honesty; but it was one of those things which eventually excite the suspicion and loosen the tongues of a man's enemies, and which no man can successfully defend by explanation. The best he can do is to trust in silence to his character for vindication, and this is what Judge Bradley should have done. None of his defences have satisfied anybody who doubted him, and they have all furnished his assailants with fresh materials. This last is no exception to the rule. He denies that he read one opinion to Judge Field and gave another in Court, but admits that in making up his mind "he inclined sometimes to one view of the subject and sometimes to the other," in which there is nothing extraordinary or discreditable. The result is, however, that the *Sun* says that "Jo Bradley has confessed," and the judge stands just where he stood before he wrote his letter, but with considerable loss of dignity.

From all quarters the reports concerning trade are encouraging. The tonnage of the railroad and steamship companies has risen sufficiently, and promises in the remaining three and a half months of the year to be large enough, to make the average business of the year fairly good, although the prospect early in the season was that this would be the poorest year since the establishment of the present facilities. The "bull speculation" in stocks in Wall Street has halted, partly because of doubts about the money market, but mainly because the purchasing power of the speculators has, for the time being, been exhausted. Although the bank figures warrant caution, money as yet has been easy to get under 6 per cent. The feature of the bank figures is the depletion of legal-tender notes concurrently with the increase in specie, due on the one hand to currency shipments to the West, and on the other to specie arrivals from Europe and California, and gold disbursements by the Treasury. The Bank of England is endeavoring to attract gold to London to take the place of gold shipments to New York, and it is expected that its discount rate will this week be advanced to 4 per cent., as it has been advanced from 2 per cent. to 3 per cent. recently for the same purpose. Gold here has fallen to 103¼, although closing higher. Since May 17, 1862, gold has not sold so low as during the past week. The gold value of the "paper dollar" (the promise of the United States to pay one dollar) was as high during the week as $0.9673, and closed at $0.9661. The silver "dollar of the fathers" at the close of the week would have had a gold value of $0.9126—that is, the bullion in it would have brought so much.

The limits of the enquiry now making by the Mixed Commission as to the amount the United States should pay the Canadians on account of the fisheries has been somewhat narrowed by the decision, fortunately by a unanimous vote, that the trading and transshipping privileges allowed to American fishermen by the Canadian Government, under the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, are not among the advantages for which we should be called on to pay in pursuance of the Treaty of Washington. The Treaty of 1818 allowed American fishermen to enter bays and colonial harbors for wood and water, and shelter and repairs, "but for no other purpose." The Reciprocity Treaty added to these the privilege of entering for the purpose of "drying their nets and curing their fish," and the Colonial Legislatures inserted of their own free will in the acts passed to execute the treaty a provision permitting the purchase of supplies and the transshipment of fish. The Treaty of Washington followed that of 1854 in its stipulations, and the Canadian Government continued the purchase and transshipment privilege, and then sought to make the United States pay for it. This claim the Commission has overruled, and the chances are that the Dominion Parliament will withdraw the privileges on the ground that if they are not worth paying for they are not worth offering. *Primâ facie*, it seems absurd to ask people to pay for the privilege of buying goods in your store; but there is no question that it increases, in some degree, the value of the fisheries to Americans by enabling the fishermen to stay out longer. The Commission probably think, however, that this advantage to the Americans is offset by the advantage to the Canadians of any sales they make, and is, anyhow, too remote to be appreciable.

The week has been a lively one in Central Bulgaria. On Tuesday, September 4, there was some severe fighting at Kadiköi, then the most advanced position of the Russians in the direction of Rustchuk. Both contending forces professed to have been assailed, and to have driven back the assailants with great loss. On the following day the Turks, under Eyub Pasha, attacked the Twelfth Russian Corps, near Rustchuk, on the whole line. The main assaults were made on the positions at Katzelevo and Ablava (or Oblanovo), on the Kara Lom, opposite Biela. After six hours' fighting against overwhelming numbers, the Russians at Katzelevo were forced to fall back behind the river, "with great loss," as they officially acknowledge. Mehemet Ali Pasha puts this loss as high as three thousand. The column at Ablava, west of the Lom, maintained its positions, after a gallant contest. On Thursday there was an armistice for the burial of the dead, on the expiration of which the Russians at Ablava, finding resistance hopeless, as the enemy had forced the positions on the river to the north of them, evacuated the place, retiring towards Biela. On Friday, all the Russian divisions still stationed in the vicinity of the upper Kara Lom were hurriedly withdrawn in the same direction, those on the lower united stream about the same time retiring to a fortified camp at Trstenik and to the banks of the Danube at Metchka, west of Pirgos, the ferry (or bridge) communications at which latter place are reported to have been broken up by the Turks. On Saturday the supply-trains of the Crown Prince's forces at Biela were moving across the Yantra, some of them as far back as Pavlo, indicating a general retreat behind that river, both banks of the Lom and Kara Lom, from the Danube to the Balkans, having been recovered by the Turks by a concerted series of vigorous attacks, each of which was courageously met, but each, strange to hear, by "greatly outnumbered forces." There was also some fighting southeast of Tirnova, but none, or almost none, it appears, at the Shipka pass. The bulk of Suleiman Pasha's army is again reported to have crossed the Balkans.

While the army of the Crown Prince has thus been pressed back by that of Mehemet Ali to the Yantra and the Danube, the other Russian main army has been actively engaged in its aggressive movement against Osman Pasha. The attempt to turn the Turkish positions at Plevna, and to "prepare a Sedan" by movements west of the Vid, on the east bank of which Osman leans, seems to have been given up as soon as the comparative barrenness of the victory of Lovatz was made manifest by the appearance of the Turks in a fortified position, northwest of that town, the day after its capture with heavy sacrifices by the overwhelming force under Meretinski and Skobeleff. The bulk of the victorious force was called back to join the Grand Duke Nicholas before Plevna, where it now forms the extreme left, adjoining Bogot; and the Rumanian army, under Prince Charles, which had been resting on the Danube, and was expected to operate in Osman's rear, was likewise brought over to his front, where it occupies a part of the Russian centre, the right extending to a point opposite Grivitza. Both the Imperial and Grand-Ducal headquarters having been moved nearer to the place of action, from Gorni Studeni and Bulgareni, the operations against Plevna were begun late on Thursday, Sept. 6, with a force estimated by the London *News'* correspondent at about 100,000 men, including 32,000 Rumanians and 10,000 cavalry, with 250 guns. At dusk the troops approached Plevna, and in the night erected batteries on heights surrounding the Turkish fortifications. Fire from siege guns was opened on the morning of Friday, and continued till night. But "nowhere does the Turkish artillery seem in the least degree dominated," the *News'* correspondent telegraphed. "The formidable Turkish redoubt at Grivitza holds its own," while at the other extremity "the village of Radishevo is blazing." The cannonade was vigorously renewed on Saturday, a heavy siege battery being chiefly active against the Grivitza redoubt, and an array of field batteries on the left. The Russian centre and right approached within twelve or fourteen hundred yards of the fortifications, and the left occupied heights to the south of the town, losing five hundred men, according to the official report; no assault, however, was attemped. The artillery fire was kept up throughout the night, and increased in violence on Sunday morning. What has since taken place is not only unknown to us, but even beyond rational conjecture, not the least direct report of further operations or occurrences having been received here to the hour of our going to press. The news from the theatre of the war in Asia has been insignificant throughout the week. From Herzegovina we have concurrent reports of the surrender to the Montenegrins of the Turkish garrison of Niksitch, numbering a few hundred men.

The newspapers have been having a most agreeable experience during the week in making out a certain "R. Clay Crawford," of various places in the United States, to be Osman Pasha, commanding the troops at Plevna. The story was that Crawford, after swindling divers persons in this country, fled to Egypt, and was incontinently made a pasha in the Egyptian service, and that as soon as the war broke out the authorities at Constantinople, hearing of him, claimed him for a high command, and would not be refused. The Khedive then surrendered him, and they gave him the pashalic of Widdin—the most important in European Turkey—and thence he marched out and, true to his antecedents, "euchred" the Russians by sitting down in an impregnable position on their right flank. It was curious to see, once the story was started, how much information about "Clay Crawford" began to come in, how many people knew him here when he was a simple swindler, and how all doubt that he was really Osman Pasha was removed by the "evidence" that "Crawford's mother-in-law told the informant that he (Crawford) had left the country, but did not disclose the locality." It now appears that no American named Crawford has been in the Khedive's service, and that Osman Pasha is—as might have been expected—an Asiatic Mussulman, and that Crawford is most probably operating, not against the Russians, but against the boarding-house-keepers of the Old World, whose positions he has by this time doubtless often turned.

The important fact in the news from France is the death of M. Thiers, which we have discussed elsewhere. His last public utterance was made at St. Germain on the 25th ult., where, in reply to an address, he said among other things that he looked on "the Republic as the only government possible in France," and that those who, unable to put anything in its place, are endeavoring to obstruct its establishment are the real disturbers of the peace, the real anarchists, whom France will soon call to account for the moral and material damage they have this year inflicted on her. The Government offered him a public funeral, but Madame Thiers declined it unless she could control the management, which they would not permit. So he was buried privately on Saturday—that is, by his family and friends, but in the presence of a vast multitude, who maintained perfect order, at the little Church of Notre Dame de Lorette, the Archbishop of Paris having refused the Madeleine. Addresses were delivered at the grave by Messrs. Grévy, Sacy, Vitry, and Admiral Pothuau, M. Jules Simon closing. There is a breach between the Monarchists which is in some degree promising for the Republicans, the Young Bonapartists having fallen out with the Old, and both with the Legitimists. The Bonapartist press is urging the Marshal to perform a *coup d'état* and declare "a state of siege," although there is not the slightest sign of disorder; but the Government papers indignantly deny that he can be persuaded into anything of the kind—which leads the Republican press to ask, pertinently enough, why, when there is so much prosecution of newspapers going on, these sheets are not pursued for making treasonable suggestions. The prosecution of Gambetta for his speech at Lille, in the course of which he said that, should the elections go Republican, the Marshal would have to submit to it or resign, has ended in his sentence to three months' imprisonment and a fine of 2,000 francs. An appeal will probably save him from imprisonment before the election, and perhaps before the new Assembly meets.

NEW YORK CUSTOM-HOUSE CHANGES.

THE approaching removal of Collector Arthur and Naval Officer Cornell has thrown politics into a new ferment, and may perhaps lead to a severer test of the strength of Mr. Hayes's administration than did the withdrawal of the troops from South Carolina and Louisiana. If the new appointees are to be, as is intimated, representatives of business interests and of civil-service reform, the friends of that reform will applaud the step, while regretting that it had not been taken some time ago. No good cause was ever pushed to success under the leadership of its enemies or its lukewarm friends. Nobody supposes that Mr. Arthur or Mr. Cornell is a friend of the principles announced in the President's recent order to office-holders. The hostility of the latter has been ostentatiously if not contemptuously shown in his neglect to resign the chairmanship of the State Committee and his membership of the National Committee; and all that is asserted for the former is a sort of puzzled neutrality like that of the Fillmore Whigs toward the Republicans when finally compelled to choose between them and the Democrats. Nobody professes in behalf of Arthur, Simmons, or Tutton anything more than mechanical compliance with the order, and such obedience as a smart criminal lawyer might be able to defend in the emergency of anticipated removal from office.

To say that it is not by such agents that the civil service is to be renovated and a new system put in force, is like saying that the Russian armies should not be officered by Turks, or that the interests of the church should not be committed to infidels. The fact that Mr. Hayes has been slow to see the absurdity of expecting old supporters of the spoils system to become useful reformers has led many persons to suspect some serious division in his councils—some betrayal of principle by which the substance of reform was to be sacrificed to the shadow, and the whole brought into popular contempt. A step is now promised which will go far to dispel such doubts and to bring on the conflict between opposing ideas, so that the masses of the people in both parties may take an immediate interest and share in it. In no other way can the reform become permanent and lasting. It is earnestly to be hoped that all members of the "Senatorial cabal" to whom patronage is indispensable and civil-service reform intolerable, will have the courage of their opinions and will join battle soon after the assembling of Congress. Nor need the Democrats be behindhand. They, too, must take a position on the matter in issue, and must cast their votes one way or the other. The troops are no longer vexing them in the Southern States, and it becomes them, as well as the Republicans, to learn a new shibboleth. A debate in the autumn and early winter on the questions likely to arise from the President's order to office-holders, and his changes in the *personnel* of the New York Custom-house, would be the most wholesome atmospheric change that could possibly take place.

Exception is taken to the proposed changes in the Custom-house on the ground that the President, in his letter of acceptance, declared himself in favor of the principle of permanency in office so long as personal character remained untarnished and the performance of duties satisfactory. Exception is also taken to the order to office-holders on the ground that the right to be a leader in politics, and to be prominent in caucuses and conventions, is one of the inalienable rights of the American citizen, and that the Executive's order to the contrary, as regards those holding official positions, is an unwarrantable invasion of that right. It is a sufficient answer to the first objection to say that the President in his letter of acceptance described a system which he desired to see put in force, and which he pledged himself, if elected, to aid in establishing. If it were possible to establish it through the instrumentality of its enemies such an objection might have some force, but since the attempt must necessarily prove abortive, he is bound to select agents and instruments known to be friendly to it. As to the right of all citizens to be leaders in politics, any office-holder to whom that right is more precious than his office has a speedy and effectual means of regaining his shorn liberties by handing in his resignation. But there is a weightier answer. The President's order is intended to restore this much-esteemed right to several millions of people from whom it has been wrested by the office-holders themselves. The process by which these have obtained a monopoly of political leadership is known to every intelligent person, and the philosophy of it is perfectly simple. Every citizen attends to his private business first; then, if he has any time to spare, he may give it to those public affairs in which he has only a common interest with all others. The theory of our Government is, that this common interest will attract all persons alike and thus secure the expression of the average will of the community. But if there be one class whose private and sole business is politics, they will absorb and concentrate among themselves the political rights and prerogatives of all other classes as surely as though an oligarchy had been established by force of law. Such a class has been created in this country by the spoils system, to break up which is the most pressing need of the time. The President's order is one step in that direction. It is wholesome as far as it goes, and it needs for its due enforcement other captains than Arthur, Cornell, and Simmons.

Senator Conkling gave vent the other day to his anxiety respecting the deprivation of political rights with which we are threatened, and we are led to hope that he will deliver himself more freely, by and by, on this all-important subject. That he and the rest of the Senatorial cabal are highly exasperated at the movements towards civil-service reform is sufficiently manifest from many signs in the political firmament, but they have kept their feelings under such good command that we suspect they have found the majority of the people on the side of the President. A number of State conventions have been held since the office-holding order was promulgated, but no resolution condemning it has been passed or even offered. There are some grounds, therefore, for believing that what the whole party agreed to last year at Cincinnati, and subsequently ratified by voting for Mr. Hayes, is so well rooted in public favor that the leaders who intended to ignore it at the time they allowed it to go into the platform, and who now cordially detest it, dare not make open war upon it. The last thing they expected to obtain was a President inclined to execute it. Whether their disappointment in this regard is bitter enough to cause an open rupture we shall soon see, for the New York Custom-house is a hornet's nest of uncommon dimensions; but large as it is, the country is somewhat larger, and if Mr. Hayes stands firm in his purpose he will presently find the people at his back.

THE DEATH OF M. THIERS.

THE profound sensation produced in France by the death of Thiers is, unhappily, an illustration not only of the popular reverence for the deceased statesman but of the slenderness of the hold of the Republican leaders on the popular mind, and yet Republicans have never before cut nearly so good a figure before the country as at this moment. The attack on them on the 16th of May was really totally unprovoked by any positive acts or policy of the party or its representatives, and could only be justified, if justified at all, by the notion so firmly held in French conservative circles, that in a republic, or at all events in a French republic, the most extreme men are sure in the end to get the mastery. Therefore, no matter what the actual leaders may now say, the things which the most violent writers and speakers are saying are pointed out as what the leaders will be saying a year or two hence. The principal argument used against the party is, in short, the argument of inevitable tendency, to which the moderation of the majority in the Assembly and the temperance of Gambetta's speeches furnish no answer or an insufficient answer. The reply is always: "That is all very fine; but don't you know that if things are allowed to go on as they are you will be outbid and cast aside very shortly, and Ordinaire and Madier de Montjau, and who knows what other demagogues from the slums, will take your place? This is what has happened under like circumstances hitherto, and this is what will happen again until the character of Frenchmen and the nature of democracy are changed."

This—the only serious charge Gambetta and his followers had to meet—they met in the only feasible way, by declaring that M. Thiers was their leader, that it was to his hands they would if they could give the executive power, and that nobody could suppose that he would either carry the Republic down hill or be supplanted by ranting orators from Belleville. Proclamation of this fact was made in a very conspicuous and, to M. Thiers, most gratifying way, in the Assembly during the debate immediately preceding the dissolution, when an allusion of M. Fourtou enabled the whole Opposition to rise and with shouts of applause point to M. Thiers as the "liberator of the territory." It was, however, as much as to say that even if Republicans were dangerous, Republicans under him could not do much mischief.

His great popularity at the time of his death was due of course proximately to his eminent services in bringing about peace and paying off the German invaders. But he was selected for this duty by the first Assembly which met after the war, owing to the fact that he was beyond all question the foremost man in France—the only man of prominence, indeed, not connected with the Empire or responsible for its faults, who was known to and trusted by the nation at large. His political experience was enormous. He appeared in public life almost immediately after 1830, and had during all the vicissitudes of the ensuing forty years been a conspicuous politician, and a still more conspicuous political littérateur. During that period there has been no great event in French history with which he has not been intimately associated, and no French statesman of eminence of whom he has not been a leading colleague or leading antagonist. For success of this kind it was, of course, even more necessary that he should be a genuine son of the soil than an able speaker or writer, and he was all three combined. He was indeed a French bourgeois of the Restoration in his whole mental and moral composition. He had only to interrogate himself to know how the French middle class thought and felt. That he should have been the only politician of the first class left to drag the country out of the mire of 1871 was, of course, a striking example of the blighting effects of the imperial rule, and no more terrible and skilful indictment of the Empire was ever drawn than was contained in his speech in 1870 opposing the war. The terse summing up at the close, "There are no more faults of which you can be guilty," was a phrase which ran through the country like wildfire, and drew fresh sting and bitterness from the subsequent disasters.

But probably no man in France was more responsible for the Empire than he—none more responsible for the slow and unsteady growth in France of the constitutional régime. The 'History of the Consulate and Empire,' by the wonderful halo it threw around the military despotism which succeeded the first Republic, and by the extent to which it made national greatness and prosperity seem to depend on a haughty or aggressive foreign policy, unquestionably fostered the state of mind which led to the endorsement of the *coup d'état*, and the melancholy prostration of France before the band of military adventurers which ruled her during the following twenty years. It had much to do, too, with goading the unfortunate emperor into the attack on Prussia, for Thiers made the safety and welfare of France dependent in the main on her being surrounded by small and subservient states. He approved of the expedition to Rome in 1849, and he made the liberation of Italy the subject of his bitterest taunts in the speech above referred to. His devotion to the army, too, and his keen interest in its organization and discipline, useful as they may have been, had something ominous about them. A statesman of a higher type, but of a type which does not seem in our day to grow on French soil, would have been afflicted, even if flattered, by finding himself so necessary to the country as he was when he was seventy-three years old, and after she had been wandering in the wilderness for eighty years.

If his death should now scare the electors to a sufficient degree to bring about a Republican defeat, it would of course be a most disheartening revelation of their want of confidence in their own institutions and in their public men, for there is no disorder, or sign of disorder, in France, and the army is in the hands of a man who might be counted on to use it for police purposes skilfully and remorselessly. It would seem, therefore, as if, under the circumstances, the nation could afford itself the luxury of a free legislature and of government under constitutional forms, without the superintendence or guarantee of an old man of eighty. If the elections were to take place on the day originally talked of—the 16th inst.—there would be good reason to fear the effect on them of a panic, but as they have been set down for the 14th of October, the Republican leaders will have full opportunity to restore confidence, if they can. That they feel alarmed and hard pressed is manifest from Gambetta's nomination of M. Grévy to take M. Thiers's place as nominal chief of the party, as M. Grévy's name is hardly one to conjure with. He is a respectable man of fair abilities, but has of late been rather a weak President of the Assembly, and is past seventy. For the rest, they are giving proofs of great, even if newly acquired, wisdom, and considerable electioneering skill. Their newspaper articles have a tone of sobriety and display an appreciation of the importance of details which they have never exhibited at a crisis of this kind before. Moreover, they have succeeded in bringing about a general resort all over the country to legal measures of defence against the arbitrary acts of M. Fourtou, and have won a considerable number of victories in the courts over the prefects of police. The law passed in 1875 forbids in the most positive manner the exclusion of any publication from sale by order of the officers of the Government, but the Minister has sought to evade it by refusing to grant licenses to any news agents who will not promise to refrain from selling Republican papers. This refusal many of the courts, with unwonted independence, have pronounced unlawful and void. The Ministry, too, having issued a decree opening a credit in advance of the appropriations by the Assembly, the Republican press threatens them not with insurrection, but legal pursuit for a violation of the constitution, and personal liability for all money raised in this way. Never before, since 1815, has any government in France displayed so much disregard of the written law, or been so open in the use of arbitrary measures to affect an election, but certainly never before have the Liberals met arbitrary measures with so much dignity and good sense and legality.

As to the prospects, the Republicans rely mainly on the figures of the election of 1876, which are certainly most encouraging. Out of 7,370,426 votes cast in that year, 4,316,127 were cast for the Republic, giving it an absolute majority of 1,431,588; the remainder were divided between the Bonapartists and Monarchists. In other words, 45 per cent. of the qualified voters (9,472,613) voted for the Republic and 58 per cent. of the actual voters. Of the qualified voters the Monarchists got 16 per cent.; of the actual, 20 per cent. Of the former, the Empire got 14 per cent.; of the latter, 18. The geographical distribution of the Republican majority is equally hopeful. It holds sixty departments in France and the three departments in Algeria and the three colonies which elect deputies, while that of the Monarchists of the various sects controls only twenty-seven.

SOME RECENT OBSERVATIONS IN VIRGINIA.

SEPTEMBER 8, 1877.

HAVING just returned from a few weeks' stay in Virginia, it has occurred to me as probable that your readers would be interested in hearing how such changes in Southern manners, and tone of thought, and economical outlook as could be noted in a brief visit, strike one who had travelled in that region before the war had revolutionized it. It is now twenty years since I spent a winter traversing the Cotton States on horseback, sleeping at the house which happened to be nearest when the night caught me. Buchanan had just been elected; the friends of slavery, though anxious, were exultant and defiant, and the possibility of a separate political future had begun to take definite shape in the public mind, at least in the Gulf States. I am unable to compare the economical condition of that part of the country at that time with its condition to-day, because both slavery and agriculture in Virginia differed then in many important respects from slavery and agriculture further South. But the habits and modes of thought and feeling bred by slavery were

essentially the same all over the South; and I do not think that I shall go far astray in assuming that the changes in these which I have noticed in Virginia would be found to-day in all the other States. The first which struck me, and it was a most agreeable one, was what I may call the emancipation which conversation and social intercourse with Northerners had undergone. In 1857 the tone of nearly everybody with whom I came in contact, however veiled by the convenances, was in some degree irritable and defiant. My host and I were never long before the evening fire without my finding that he was impatient to talk about slavery, that he suspected me of disliking it, and yet that he wished to have me understand that he did not care, and that nobody at the South cared, two cents what I thought about it, and that it was a little impertinent in me, who knew so little of the negro, to have any opinion about it at all. I was obliged, too, to confess inwardly that there was a good deal of justification for his bad temper. There was I, a curious stranger, roving through his country and eating at his board, and all the while secretly or openly criticising or condemning his relations with his laborers and servants, and, in fact, the whole scheme of his domestic life. I was not a pleasant companion, and nothing could make me one; and, no matter on what themes our talk ran, it was colored by our opinions on the institution. He looked at nearly everything in politics and society from what might be called the slaveholder's point of view, and suspected me, on the other hand, of disguising reprobation of the South and its institutions in any praise of the North or of France or England which I might utter. So that there was a certain acridity and a sense of strong and deep limitations and reserves in our discussions, somewhat like those which are felt in the talk of a pious evangelical Protestant and a pious Catholic.

In Virginia of to-day I was conscious of a curious change in the atmosphere, as if the windows of a close room had been suddenly opened. I found that I was in a country where all things were debatable, and where I had not to be on the lookout for susceptibilities. The negro, too, about whom I used to have to be so careful, with whom I used to make it a point of honor not to talk privately or apart from his master when I was staying on a plantation, was wandering about loose, as it were, and nobody seemed to care anything about him any more than about any poor man. I found every Southerner I spoke to as ready to discuss him as to discuss sheep or oxen, to let you have your own views about him just as you had them about sheep or oxen. Moreover, I found instead of the stereotyped orthodox view of his place and capacity which prevailed in 1857 a great variety of opinions about him, mostly depreciatory, it is true, but still varying in degree as well as in kind. It is difficult to give any one who has never had any experience of the old slave society an idea of the difference this makes in a stranger's position at the South. In short, as one Southerner expressed it to me on my mentioning the change, "Yes, sir, we have been brought into intellectual and moral relations with the rest of the civilized world." All subjects are now open at the South in conversation.

Is this true, it will probably be asked, with regard to the late war? Can you talk freely about that? Not exactly; but then the limitations on your discourse on this point are not peculiar to the South; they are such as would be put upon the discourse of two parties to a bloody contest in any civilized country among well-bred men or women. The events of the war you can discuss freely, but you are hardly at liberty to denounce Southern soldiers or officers, or accuse them of "rebellion," or to assume that they fought for base or wicked motives. Moreover, in a certain sense, all Southerners are still "unrepentant rebels." Doubtless, in view of the result, they will acknowledge that the war was a gigantic mistake; but I found that if I sought for an admission that, if it was all to do over again, they would not fight, I was touching on a very tender point, and I was gently but firmly repelled. The reason is plain enough. In confessing this, they would, they think, be confessing that their sons and brothers and fathers had perished miserably in a causeless struggle on which they ought never to have entered, and this, of course, looks like a slur on their memory, and their memory is still, after the lapse of twelve years, very sacred and very dear. I doubt if many people at the North have an adequate notion of the intensity of the emotions with which Southerners look back on the war; and I mean tender and not revengeful or malignant emotions. The losses of the battle-field were deeply felt at the North—in many households down to the very roots of life; but on the whole they fell on a large and prosperous population, on a community which in the very thick of the fray seemed to be rolling up wealth, which revelled as it fought, and came out of the battle triumphant, exultant, and powerful. At the South they swept through a scanty population with the most searching destructiveness, and when all was over they had to be wept over in ruined homes and in the midst of a society which was wrecked from top to bottom, and in which all relatives and friends had sunk together to common perdition. There has been no other such cataclysm in history. Great states have been conquered before now, but conquest did not mean a sudden and desolating social revolution; so that to a Southerner the loss of relatives on the battlefield or in the hospital is associated with the loss of everything else. A gentleman told me of his going at the close of the war into a little church in South Carolina on Sunday, and finding it filled with women, who were all in black, and who cried during the singing. It reminded one of the scene in the cathedral at Leyden, when the people got together to chant a *Te Deum* on hearing that the besieging army was gone; but, the music suddenly dying out, the air was filled with the sounds of sobbing. The Leydeners, however, were weak and half-starved people, weeping over a great deliverance; these South Carolinians were weeping before endless bereavement and hopeless poverty. I doubt much if any community in the modern world was ever so ruthlessly brought face to face with what is sternest and hardest in human life; and those of them who have looked at it without flinching have something which any of us may envy them.

But then I think it would be a mistake to suppose that Southerners came out of the war simply sorrowful. At the close, and for some time afterwards, they undoubtedly felt fiercely and bitterly, and hated while they wept; and this was the primal difficulty of reconstruction. Frequently in conversation I heard some violent speech or act occurring soon after the war mentioned with the parenthetical explanation, "You know, I felt very bitterly at that time." But, then, I have always heard it from persons who are to-day good-tempered, conciliatory, and hopeful, and desirous of cultivating good relations with Northerners; from which the inference, which so many Northern politicians find it so hard to swallow, is easy—viz., that time produces on Southerners its usual effects. What Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Blaine would have us believe is that Southerners are a peculiar breed of men, on whom time produces no effect whatever, and who feel about things that happened twenty years ago just as they feel about things which happened a month ago. The fact is, however, that they are in this respect like the rest of the human race. Time has done for their hearts and heads what it has done for the old Virginia battle-fields. There was not in 1865 a fence standing between the Potomac and Gordonsville, and but few, if any, undamaged houses. When I passed Manassas Junction the other day there were a hospitable-looking tavern and several houses at the station; the flowers were blooming in the yard, and crowds of young men and women in their Sunday clothes were gathered from the country around to see a base-ball match, and a well-tilled and well-fenced and smiling farming country stretched before my eyes in every direction. The only trace of the old fights was a rude graveyard filled, as a large sign informed us, with "the Confederate Dead." All the rest of the way down to the Springs the road ran through farms which looked as prosperous and peaceful as if the tide of war had not rolled over them inside a hundred years, and it is impossible to talk with the farmers ten minutes without seeing how thoroughly human and Anglo-Saxon they are. With them the war is history—tender, touching, and heroic history if you will, but having no sort of connection with the practical life of to-day. Some of us at the North think their minds are occupied with schemes for the assassination and spoliation of negroes, and for a "new rebellion." Their minds are really occupied with making money, and the farms show it, and their designs on the negro are confined to getting him to work for low wages. His wages are low—forty cents a day and rations, which cost ten cents—but he is content with it. I saw negroes seeking employment at this rate, and glad to get it; and in the making of the bargain nothing could be more commercial, apparently, than the relations of the parties. They were evidently laborer and employer to each other, and nothing more.

The state of things on two farms which I visited may serve as illustrations of the process of regeneration which is going on all over the State. They are two hundred miles apart. On one of 2,000 acres there were, before the war, about 150 slaves of all ages. The owner, at emancipation, put them in wagons and deposited them in Ohio. His successor now works the plantation with twelve hired men, who see to his cattle, of which he raises and feeds large herds. His cultivation is carried on on shares by white tenants. He has an overseer, makes a snug income, and spends a good part of his winters in Baltimore and New York. He laughs when you ask him if he regrets slavery. Nothing would induce him to take care of 150 men, women, and children, furnishing perhaps thirty able-

bodied men, littering the house with a swarm of lazy servants, and making heavy drafts on the meat-house and corn-crib, and running up doctor's bills. The other was owned at the close of the war by a regular "Virginia gentleman," with the usual swarm of negroes, and who was in debt. He sold it to an enterprising young farmer from another county, paid his debts, and retired to a small place, where, with two or three hired men, he makes a living. The young farmer, instead of seventy-five slaves, works it with twelve hands in the busy season and three in winter, is up at five o'clock in the morning superintending them himself, raises all raisable crops, and is as intent on the markets and the experiments made by his neighbors as if he lived in Illinois or the Carse of Gowrie. He was led by Colonel Waring's book to try tile-draining, and made the tiles for the purpose on his own land. He was so successful that he now manufactures and sells tiles extensively to others. It would be difficult to meet at the North or in England two men with their faces turned away from the old times more completely than these, more averse to the old plantation ways; and, as far as I could learn or hear, they are fair specimens of the kind of men who are taking possession of the Old Dominion. Their neighbors consist of three classes: men who had by extraordinary exertions saved some or all of their land after the war, and had by borrowing or economizing managed to stock it, and are now prospering by dint of close management and constant attention, on the Northern plan; young and enterprising men who had bought at low rates from original proprietors whom the war left hopelessly involved, and too old or incapable to recover; and a sprinkling of Northern and English immigrants, of which latter class I shall say something in another letter, for their history is curious.

I may observe in concluding this, as helping to a better understanding of the moral and intellectual change, as well as the material one, which I think the South is undergoing, that those at the North who took part in the anti-slavery conflict and still throb with some of its passions, and who still do a large part of Northern speaking and writing about the Southern problem, forget how long it is since the war began. To have any mature remembrance of the old régime at the South a Southern man must now be forty years old, or very near it. To have taken part in public affairs or managed any industrial enterprise before the war he must be about fifty. The men of twenty-five to forty into whose hands the conduct of Southern society has actually passed were mere boys when the war broke out, have but few or faint associations with the hopes and fears and prejudices of the society which preceded it; and I should judge from what I have seen and heard that perhaps what is most to be feared at the South just now is that the generation coming on the stage will imitate the North only too closely in the pursuit of wealth.

LONDON OUT OF TOWN.

London, August 20, 1877.

LONDON has at last gone out of town for the holidays. Since the 15th of July the haunts of the fashionable world had commenced throwing off their swarms, and now the parks are deserted and the most crowded thoroughfares are desolate. The feeling that the people are going out of town is a curious one and difficult to analyze. There is a sense of virtuous self-satisfaction, similar to the sense of superiority that you feel when you are out and about in an early summer morning when all your friends are in bed, mixed with a feeling of loneliness that is less pleasing to you as a representative of the social animal. It is not only that there are fewer carriages, and that you can walk along your usual route without being jostled, or that you find one acquaintance now for every fifteen that you found a month ago. It is more than that. There is something of the despair of solitude about the town. You pass houses where you could drop in, and where you did drop in from time to time, and these are shut sternly against you with a cold, inhospitable sheeting drawn over their faces, or at least over their windows, and the chain fastened on the door. There are cabs driving to the railway stations crowded with luggage, and containing a white-faced footman or an exhausted lady's maid inside struggling to the country. Men who a few weeks ago would not venture to appear outside their own doors except in the strictest costume of propriety, are wandering about in shooting-jackets and hats to match, and an occasional lady may still be met in the most becoming of all costumes (when it does not resemble too closely the garments of her brother and her husband), an English lady's travelling dress. There are these and a thousand other indications that another London season has gone to a grave from which there is no resurrection, and that you, with such feelings of self-satisfaction as you can evolve for your own consolation, are left as the last man to contemplate the catastrophe.

A friend of mine has interested himself of late in studying the habits of the very poorest classes in London. He has a district assigned to him by some benevolent society for the purpose of visiting the inhabitants. The other day he invited eight of these inhabitants, four men and four women, to spend a day in his country place, some half-hour by rail out of London. The four women were all over forty years of age, and three of them had never been out of London. They had never seen a field, had never known the pleasures of haymaking, had never tasted fresh milk or fruit, had never heard the birds singing in the hedgerows, and had never seen running water except the Thames. The childish delight which these townsfolk took in country sights and country sounds, he told me, was beyond description. It would have staggered even Dr. Johnson, in his praises of Cheapside. They begged to be allowed to remain a single night, and shrunk from the idea of having to return to their homes. The same craving for the country, and hatred of the town, takes possession of every one at this time of the year. Out of London, as out of a plague-stricken city, every one who can manage it contrives to go.

Every year one hears a great deal about the scandal of the House of Commons rising for the grouse-shooting, and every year there are some earnest Radicals who taunt the Government—Tory or Liberal Government, it is all the same—with sacrificing the affairs of the state to the national pastime of killing grouse upon the 12th of August. "I have no birds to shoot," said Mr. Sullivan, the member for Louth, the other day, amid the cheers of the Radicals, and the counter ironical cheers of the Tory gentry opposite, while deprecating the early closing of the session. "I have no birds to shoot," he repeated, and went on to explain that he was willing to sit on through September. There are always men who hurl such taunts as these against the ministry; but they might as well fire blank cartridges at the grouse they sneer at. It is not the grouse that drive London to the country. The 12th of August is the beginning of grouse-shooting, and has been fixed upon as a convenient date for the prorogation of Parliament, but the grouse have very little to do with it. There are probably not one hundred and fifty among the members of both Houses of Parliament and all the multitude of clerks and officials connected with them who, in Mr. Sullivan's words, "have any birds to shoot." It is not the "birds" that bring about the prorogation: it is the exhaustion of nature and the craving for fresh air. The 12th of August marks the extreme limit of endurance of the men and women who make up the fashionable world of London. The energies of both sexes—and a fashionable woman with marriageable daughters on hand works harder for the three hottest months of the year than the busiest of men—are exhausted by the heat and dust and bustle and late hours of a London season. All the freshness of life is taken out of them by the impure air they have been breathing in places of amusement, and in the daily and nightly whirl of what they call the pleasures of society. They must leave London and breathe fresh air, and give their nerves some chance of recuperation by living, or pretending to live, a quiet life, or at least a less rackety life than what they have been leading. They cannot stay in London after the end of July. Nature insists upon a change. Households are broken up; servants are sent to prepare the country quarters; carriages and horses are despatched by rail, or are returned to the job-masters; the ladies of the family go to Cowes, or to Homburg, or to Kissingen, and the wretched men are turned out to live at their clubs, or to go into lodgings until they can join the ladies wherever they have located themselves. It is impossible to keep Parliament in session under such circumstances. Six hundred and fifty men who through life have been accustomed to their comforts will not remain to be made miserable, and, grouse or no grouse, Parliament must be prorogued, and nothing, I believe, short of an invasion would keep it together for another month.

Forty years ago it was different. During the struggle over the Reform Bill in 1831 and 1832 Parliament was sitting almost *en permanence*, and on several occasions between 1832 and 1846 the autumn months came and went and the legislators stuck to their work. But a great change has taken place in the ways of living during these five-and-forty years, and the present times are not so critical as those times were. People did not live so hard as they do now. Life was slower, more natural, easier. Society was not so large and did not congregate so much in London. There were fewer houses, and the town was fresher. There was little of that perpetual and most exhausting struggle to move upwards in fashionable life that there is now. Society was differently graded. There were the fashionable people, the aristocracy of birth and by inheritance; they lived their lives in their own way, and the professional and mercantile

classes took the goods the gods provided without envying or emulating those who were wealthier and more fashionable than themselves. Now money has come in and has raised up a plutocracy who have showier establishments and equipages than the old aristocracy, and who are ever moving heaven and earth, and sometimes not without success, to get into the ranks of the aristocracy, or to be thought to be in their ranks. There were not the same facilities for getting about in those days that there are now. More people lived all the year round in the country and never dreamed of London. Now there is not a bonnet-maker in Dunstable nor a small farmer in Cumberland who does not think a "run up to London" once a year almost essential for himself and his family. And similarly on the other side. There are multitudes of London people whose fathers and mothers never thought of going further a-field than Hampstead or Greenwich, but who in this generation pant for the sea-breezes of the Norfolk or the Yorkshire coast, or the mountain air of the Engadine or the Tyrol. Hence the annual exodus at this time of the year—an exodus which includes not only the fashionable and professional and mercantile classes, but almost every class in the community down to the very journeymen tailors and crossing-sweepers.

And where, you may ask, do all these people go to? If I were to answer this question minutely I should find myself embarked upon a dissertation on the country pursuits and pleasures of my countrymen. That head of my discourse I think I had better postpone—like the Scotch minister when he got to "seventeenthly"—to a more convenient season.

Correspondence.

THE BLACK LIST OF REPUDIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The circular on the first page of the last issue of your paper, headed "To the Bondholders of the St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern Railway Co.," and signed by S. G. & G. C. Ward in behalf of Messrs. Baring Brothers & Co., protesting against the proposed action of the managers of said road, is a step in the right direction against the too-prevalent doctrine of repudiation, so fashionable at the present time in different counties and States. This doctrine, so pernicious, so destructive to public faith and honor, I propose to contribute my mite to make disreputable and financially unprofitable by publishing in a standing advertisement on the first page of your valuable paper a list of all the counties and States that have in any way been false to their promises by failing to pay their obligations at maturity. To secure this I will contribute one hundred dollars as the beginning of a fund that will enable you to keep the names of these repudiating counties and States constantly before the public, on condition that there is a sufficient amount subscribed to this fund to enable you to publish this advertisement for five years, adding thereto from time to time the names of such other counties and States as may repudiate their obligations during the time mentioned. This course I trust will make it more difficult for them to negotiate new loans, and thus do something towards the creation of a public sentiment that will prevent the spread and prevalence of a spirit and practice so ruinous to the whole country.

The names of these States and counties I presume you are familiar with. I hope that other subscribers to your paper may feel interested enough to contribute to this fund, and thus aid in striking a blow at the monster that threatens to destroy the fair fabric of public credit.

Very respectfully,

A Subscriber from the First Issue of your Paper.

Boston, Sept. 10, 1877.

AGRICULTURAL DISHONESTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to add an instance to those you give in an editorial of September 6 showing the dishonesty of some of our agricultural communities. In the State of Michigan, a few years ago, the State courts decided the issue of railroad bonds by municipalities to have been unconstitutional. Constitutional amendments were proposed by the legislature, to be retroactive and to remedy the defect. These were all voted down, although the last effort was to reach only such diluted honesty as to authorize the towns or cities which had issued bonds before the decision of the court was promulgated to *take a vote* on the question of paying their debts. And in this case the majorities against the amendment, as I remember them, came chiefly from "rural districts" where no bonds had been issued.

Happily, the United States courts helped the municipalities to the privilege of paying their debts, although they could not wipe out the stain of the popular votes, which were not a whit less disgraceful than those of the people of Minnesota. F.

LITERATURE AT YALE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent in the last number of the *Nation* makes use of a recent article in the Hartford *Courant* as the text for a discourse on the literary shortcomings of Yale College. The same article has also served to excite a discussion of the subject in the columns of the *Evening Post*. The contributors to this discussion have been in every instance, I believe, friends of the college, and, in so far as their criticisms have been inspired by a wish to see Yale take rank with Harvard as a centre of literary influence, they are worthy of a respectful hearing. But they have shown on several points a confusion of thought and an ignorance of the facts in the case which ought not, in justice to the college, to go uncorrected.

In the first place, the showing made by Yale is by no means so poor as to throw her upon the defensive. If your correspondent had looked more carefully through his triennial catalogue, he would have found among the graduates of the last fifty years not merely the names of Percival and Donald G. Mitchell, but likewise those of N. P. Willis, Horace Bushnell, Sylvester Judd, Charles Astor Bristed, and Theodore Winthrop. Of no one of these can it fairly be said that he has failed to attain "any eminence in literature proper." To go somewhat further back, the poets Pierpont and Hillhouse are certainly worthy to be named with Percival; and among those who have studied at Yale but have left college before receiving a degree are to be found James Fenimore Cooper of the class of 1806 and E. C. Stedman of the class of 1853. The latter belong to Yale in the same sense in which Bryant belongs to Williams and has always been claimed by Williams. This list is alone sufficient to refute the assertion of the writer in the *Courant* that Yale is "less literary than many of the inferior colleges." No other college in the country except Harvard can point to an equal record.

But let it be admitted that no graduate of Yale has made any such permanent contributions to American letters as have been made by Emerson, Lowell, Holmes, and Thoreau; the inference which is drawn expressly by the *Courant* writer, and impliedly by your correspondent—that the faculty of the college is responsible for this deficiency—by no means follows. It surely will not be pretended that any of the Harvard writers mentioned owes his achievements to impulses derived in early youth from the college instructor in rhetoric and English literature. Indeed, without any special knowledge about the history of Harvard College, I will take the risk of asserting that when Emerson, Lowell, etc., were undergraduates there was absolutely no instruction in English literature given in the college. The systematic study of English literature has only of late years been introduced into any college curriculum. The literary activity of the generation graduated at Harvard between the years 1820 and 1840 is due to far other and larger causes, some of which, as you have very properly pointed out, have long ceased to operate. It was a time of great social and religious excitement. Boston and Eastern Massachusetts generally were the theatre of an extraordinary revolution in thought which but feebly affected the rest of the country, but under whose stimulating influences the young men at Cambridge lived and grew. Thoreau said that he owed nothing to the college beyond the use of its library. Others have been more grateful in acknowledgment of their debts to Alma Mater, but it will not be doubted, I think, that the real teachers of that generation are to be sought for outside of the ranks of the Harvard faculty. Or will it be claimed that the literary eminence reached by Hawthorne and Longfellow was the result of any exceptional excellence in the rhetorical instruction given at Bowdoin in 1825?

The fact is that the most faithful and competent instructor cannot create literary genius in his pupils. He cannot impart wit, imagination, humor, originality—any of those qualities which make a successful writer. The professor of English may perhaps arouse in his classes a taste for reading; he may direct them to the best sources, may give them facts, may teach them to form critical estimates of what they read, and in all these ways may help to make them good *readers;* but how far can he avail to make them *writers?*

The professor of rhetoric, again, may point out to his scholars the more obvious vices of style in their written themes. He may draw their attention to a grammatical error, an awkward or obscure phrase, a wrong use

of a figure or of a word ; he may show them how their themes could be better methodized—may give good general advice, and warn each against his besetting faults of manner ; but how far can this go towards making a young man a writer ? Every one who has ever had anything to do with correcting college themes will join with me in bearing witness that the most discouraging cases are not those in which positive rhetorical offences most abound, but those which are so utterly featureless in substance and expression as to offer nothing for criticism to lay hold upon. To the producer of this kind of stuff, eagerly enquiring what he shall do to "improve his style," it seems unkind to say : "You really have no occasion for a style " ; yet such is often the mournful truth. Both the *Courant* and the *Post* based their criticisms of the English instruction at Yale on the (alleged) poorness of the bachelors' addresses at the last commencement. They surely cannot expect the professors of English to *write* the addresses. The unfairness of judging the work of an instructor by the quality of his scholars' thinking on miscellaneous and self-chosen subjects is too evident to need pointing out. The "notorious and lamentable indifference" towards the interests of literature which your correspondent mentions as felt by "the body of government and instruction" has no existence. The faculty are anxious and willing to promote the study of English, and have appointed to that end a professor and an assistant-professor in the academical department, and a professor in the scientific school. Harvard has done no more. It is, of course, open to the critics of the college to show that any or all of the instructors mentioned have turned out to be incompetent persons, or have neglected their duties. But, if so, the blame should be put where it belongs, and not upon the body of government and instruction, whose intentions have been excellent, and whose provision for instruction in English has been as liberal as the college purse could allow.

The *Post* and the *Courant* join in declaring that there has been no improvement in the methods of teaching English literature at Yale within the last generation. This is, of course, untrue. Under Professor Northrop's forerunner, a painstaking scholar and teacher, the nearest approach to the study of English literature was a course of lectures to the Senior Class on Demosthenes's 'Oration on the Crown,' undoubtedly a valuable rhetorical exercise, but hardly to be called English literature. Gentlemen who were graduated as late as 1860 have told me that they never, while in college, had heard the name of a single English author mentioned by an instructor to the class. It is, therefore, evident that there *has* been some change in the methods of instruction in English within the last fifty years.

It is true that, until the recent introduction of elective courses, the place assigned to English in the college curriculum has been necessarily small. But this has been equally the case with other studies—geology, *e. g.*, and chemistry, and history. This resulted from the pressure of so many new subjects crowding into the four-years course. The strain has now been relieved by the opening of elective courses, and it is at present possible for any undergraduate to so arrange his choices as to pursue a continuous course of study in the English language and literature through the whole of his Junior and Senior years.

In conclusion, I may say to those graduates of Yale who are dissatisfied because of the "unliterary" character of their university, that the remedy is in their own hands, if in any one's. They have merely to go to work and write in great numbers all kinds of brilliant novels, poems, essays, etc., and remove the reproach from their college. But, if it is not in them to do this, they mustn't pretend that the fault lies with the faculty of the college, and that, if their youthful footsteps had been guided into the right path by some beneficent professor of rhetoric, they might now be astonishing the world by their genius. That plea will no longer avail to screen their barrenness, nor will any beneficent rhetorical professor anywhere take upon himself the awful responsibility of providing for the future of American literature.

HENRY A. BEERS.

NEW HAVEN, September 1, 1877.

THE CYPRIOTE SYLLABARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : The *Nation* of July 5, just arrived here, contains a Note with reference to Dr. Deecke's pamphlet on 'The Origin of the Cypriote Syllabary,' with which Note I quite agree ; but it is proper to state a fact or two which lend some excuse, if not color, to Dr. Deecke's views. The Cypriote inscriptions, as a corpus, have never yet been adequately published, not even in M. Schmidt's 'Sammlung' of last year ; and many things, therefore, to which the original inscriptions give no countenance have been taken as true by the majority of decipherers. Especially the two inscriptions on a rock-hewn shrine to Apollo, at Alonia tou Episcopou, near New Paphos, are commonly known through the copy given by De Vogüé in his 'Mélanges d'Archéologie Orientale,' where the characters are all represented as composed of arrow-headed or cuneiform strokes. This, as I found on visiting the inscription, is quite incorrect ; the strokes are deep, rectangular cuts, very finely wrought, so that I was amazed at De Vogüé's unaccountable representation. Another inscription, in the Louvre in Paris, is represented somewhat after the same fashion in the same work, and has been supposed to have a cuneiform derivation ; but in fact the strokes are merely ornamented at the ends with cross-dashes, like those at the ends of a Roman I or H. There are still other examples of the sort, but it is not necessary to go into particulars. The decipherers generally have known the inscriptions only through copies (I know of none except myself that has seen many of the originals), and are not so much to blame. Unfortunately, also, bad copies have misled in other respects, Had De Vogüé's copy of the Louvre bi-lingual been accurate, it is almost beyond doubt that Dr. Birch would have anticipated the discoveries of Brandis and his successors, instead of being misled in a vital point. And at present three very important inscriptions are generally known in Germany by very faulty copies, which have misled and which may still mislead. I refer to (1) an unnumbered inscription in the British Museum, not on public exhibition, easily read from the stone, but illegible from Schmidt's printed copies, of which two, slightly different, are extant; (2) a long one-line inscription in the Cesnola collection in New York, on the pediment of a tomb, of which the first imperfect, utterly illegible and impossible readings are still retained by Schmidt ; and (3) the British Museum "Naked Archer" inscription, not yet deciphered because of its unknown characters, and thus far published (I believe) only by Schmidt, but quite inaccurately—and more's the pity, because this *perhaps* contains some coincidences with the Hittite hieroglyphs besides those already noticed.

As to the origin of the Cypriote Syllabary, I do not think that Dr. Siegismund, after visiting Cyprus, continued to hold (if he ever held) the opinion that it was derived from the cuneiform. Judging from the active correspondence I had with him, I think he held (as I do) that, whatever its origin, it plainly showed marks, at least in part, of invention rather than growth. This is plain from the forms of the characters for *a*, *e*, *i*, digammated *a* and *i*. This, with other matters, I had expected to discuss with him in Beirût, but the steamer by which I had expected him to arrive brought news of his death. At that time Dr. Deecke was absorbed in work over the Etruscan characters. But their paper on the Cypriote inscriptions already had the words : "Ueberhaupt ist das System in seiner Art mit grosser Consequenz durchgebildet und lässt *bei dem Erfinder* auf gesunden Sinn und gute Beobachtung schliessen." The italics are mine.

Before stopping I ought to add that the Cypriote Syllabary has several coincidences in form, though not in power, with certain Lycian characters and with characters of still other systems. But any attempt to set forth the progressive modifications of the Cypriote Syllabary (to say nothing of its origin) needs to take into account the well-known local difference in the writing—that of the east end of Cyprus being generally quite different in certain respects from that of the west end.

ISAAC H. HALL.

SYRIAN PROTESTANT COLLEGE,
BEIRUT, SYRIA, July 21, 1877.

Notes.

HURD & HOUGHTON have issued an acceptable and cheap popular edition of Bacon's works, based upon Mr. Spedding's complete edition in fifteen volumes, and condensed to two by omitting the Latin writings and their translations (except the 'Novum Organon') and in other ways. The general reader cannot fail to find his account in this. The valuable introductions and prefaces have been retained. The same firm have compressed a seven-volume edition of Wordsworth's Poetical Works into three volumes, with a sensible cheapening of the price. The plates show marks of greater service than those of the Bacon, but the impression is for the most part clear and satisfactory.——G. P. Putnam's Sons' fall announcements include a square octavo edition of Bryant's 'Flood of Years,' illustrated with designs by W. J. Linton, who is also their engraver ; Frothingham's 'Life of Gerrit Smith,' with steel portrait and other illustrations ; and Proctor's 'Myths and Marvels of Astronomy.' ——The *American Journal of Pure and Applied Mathematics*, we learn from a prospectus, will appear quarterly, beginning with January, 1878. The form will be quarto, and 384 pages will constitute a volume. Sub-

scriptions (at five dollars) and contributions may now be sent to William E. Story, Ph.D., associate editor in charge, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.——Mr. Cutter, the librarian of the Boston Athenæum, is making the experiment of guiding readers in their choice of books before these have been entered on the catalogue. His List of Additions, begun three years since, is now enlivened by brief and pithy notes on the character of some of the books. They are partly original and partly borrowed from the judgments of the literary press ; and occasionally the librarian sets his own judgment over against that of the press, *e.g.*, "Samuel Brohl and Company. *Not a novel of much interest.—Ath. One of Cherbuliez's best.*—C. A. C."——We are happy to be able to announce that Prof. J. E. Hilgard, assistant in charge of the Coast Survey, has been offered the directorship of the new International Bureau of Weights and Measures in Paris. This is a compliment to America which all will appreciate. Prof. Hilgard is at present on the Pacific Coast, being one of the excursion party which includes also Sir J. D. Hooker, Dr. Asa Gray, and Dr. F. V. Hayden.——Macmillan & Co. have in press a volume of essays on 'French Poets and Novelists,' by Henry James, jr.

—The opening address of the President of the American Social Science Association, which has just closed its annual session at Saratoga, was upon "The Relation of Economic Laws to Public and Private Morality." We have not as yet received the full text of the paper, but the reports represent Mr. Wells as saying that no economic author had ever before written on the subject, a statement whose accuracy can be maintained, we should say, only by a very rigid limitation of the meaning of the phrase "economic author." The restrictions imposed upon trades, both as to learning them and getting a living by them, in the days of the guilds in Germany and France, and the immoralities and hardships resulting from them, were presented in the first part of the paper, which contained also, as a matter of course, incidental whacks at various laws of the United States, particularly those relating to internal revenue as they existed several years ago. Under one of them, for instance, the commissioner was once called upon to decide if a man who bought materials for a house and used some in repairing a carriage, should not pay taxes as a manufacturer. That every nation has sought to monopolize trade, and to prevent other nations from sharing in its benefits, was the point next illustrated, Mr. Wells maintaining, and truly, that a study of English trade-laws is necessary to an understanding of the main causes of the American Revolution. Some of the ante-revolutionary writs of search he compared "with those issued in New York City within five years, which, instead of searching for goods, searched for private papers to find evidence of illegal trade." John Hancock was "the very prince of contraband traders, and the day on which the battle of Lexington was fought was set down as the time when argument was to have been had on some of his acts as a contraband trader." "Fully half the commerce of the world before the Revolution was contraband or brigandage." In more recent days, Mr. Wells found, of course, abundant material for illustrating his theme in some of the taxation laws of the United States, which seem to have been enacted for the encouragement of immorality by giving premiums on evasions. The whiskey-tax, for example, was pushed up step by step until it reached 1,000 per cent. on the cost of manufacture, and yet, when the tax was reduced from two dollars to fifty cents per gallon, the revenue increased from $18,000,000 to $44,000,000.

—One of the most lucid and readable of the financial papers was that of Prof. Stanley Jevons at the first general session of the Association, on the silver question. He contented himself with expressing the conclusions which "force themselves upon an English reader of the recent discussions." We quote his opening paragraph :

"The general result, as it appears to an Englishman, is that the United States should not, or rather cannot, adopt the double standard. If the attempt be made, it must be made either with or without the similar action of other nations. But the first supposition is easily disposed of. The notion of M. Cernuschi that there might be a congress of nations, and that the leading commercial states might be induced to unite in adopting bi-metallic money, is chimerical. Several of the more important European nations have for the present no hope of using coin, whether gold or silver. Germany is only now establishing an excellent currency on a gold basis, and is most unlikely to abandon it without further trial. The Scandinavian kingdoms have no reason for retracting their late adoption of gold, which has done no harm. Even France, which has still the law of the double standard in nominal existence, shows no desire to put it into operation again, having experienced the trouble of an alternating standard and a heavy silver currency. As to England, there is not the most remote chance that the proposal would be accepted or even entertained there. The present English system of metallic money has now existed almost unchanged since 1816, and it has worked so satisfactorily in most respects that it would require very strong reasons for making a fundamental change. Even were there a considerable weight of evidence in favor of the double standard, it would probably be found impossible to persuade the House of Commons to accept it. In nothing is the English nation so conservative as in matters of currency."

—Of course, also, so long as England retains the gold standard there would be no chance of the Australian and South African colonies abandoning it ; and the facts thus presented justify fully the professor's conclusion that "if, then, the United States were to adopt the double standard they would throw into confusion the monetary relations of the foremost commercial nations, while the universal bi-metallism essential to the success of M. Cernuschi's scheme would be as far distant as ever." In reply to the argument in favor of the double standard, that there will not be gold enough to meet alone the advancing needs of commerce, Professor Jevons asserts that there is no proof, and not even a probability, that the supposed mischievous results will follow. In the first place, the supply of gold for the past thirty years has been excessive, and there is no present prospect of a demand for it sufficient to exhaust the supply, even to the extent, which might be wished for rather than dreaded, of arresting the depreciation in its value which has been steadily going on for centuries. As, of the whole population of the world, two-thirds at present use silver for money and only one-third gold, and as the present annual supply of gold for money is double that of silver, or sixty millions of dollars to thirty millions, there is really no reason whatever for believing that gold will become comparatively deficient. This point is strengthened by the fact that no nation but the United States is likely soon to want any considerable supply of gold. Moreover, with a gold standard, currency will consist mainly of paper, as gold in the United States is really needed only for the making of international payments. Professor Jevons believes that the resumption of specie payments will probably "need no heroic measure whatever," but may be very easily reached. As to the future American dollar, he would like to have it contain 22.40 grains of pure gold, thus making the five-dollar piece the exact equivalent of the twenty-five-franc piece.

—The "Southern Question" came before the Association in three papers, one by Mr. W. L. Trenholm, of South Carolina, on "The Industrial and Social Aspects of the Southern Question"; another, by Mr. J. Randolph Tucker, of Virginia, on "The Relations of the United States to Each Other, as modified by the War and the Constitutional Amendments"; and a third by General T. M. Logan, of Virginia, on "Education in the Southern States ; or, The Opposition in the South to the Free-School System." We have space at present for summarizing only the last. Opposition to public education exists mostly in country districts where the system is inefficient, and is caused in part by the poverty of the people, but chiefly by the presence of the freedmen. The only objection to the system deserving consideration is that founded on the principle of the non-interference by Government in matters of education. In answer to this General Logan would argue that suffrage having been enlarged in advance of educational qualifications society has been placed in a transitional state of great peril, and, private exertions being inadequate for the emergency, Government action is necessary to avoid social destruction. Free-school instruction is the only available agency for qualifying the people as voters. But the majority of the arguments against public education arise from race prejudice—the danger of making the negro the equal of the white, the danger of miscegenation, etc. General Logan believes that the negro will eventually become a "stimulating" and "conservative" element in Southern society, and that his greatest utility can be attained only by educating him. The free-school system accordingly should be maintained, but should be modified to meet the special requirements of the South. The exact nature of these modifications, if suggested by the author of the paper, were not given in the newspaper reports.

—We have to call attention—and would have done so sooner but for the pressure on our space—to some acts of gross "journalism" on the part of the *World* and *Evening Post*, of this city, and the Hartford *Courant* and several other country papers. The *Nation* properly called attention, some weeks ago, to the complaints made by bondholders of the Iowa Central Railroad of the manner in which, as they alleged, Judge Dillon had impeded the foreclosure of their mortgage. Judge Dillon replied in a series of assertions which, of course, needed verification by record before they could be accepted as conclusive. Without making an enquiry into the matter, the papers above named, which knew absolutely nothing of the facts, and whose talk about it was, therefore, of no more value than the cackling of hens, began a course of vituperation of the *Nation*

in the regular "journalistic" style, aggravated, in the case of the *World*, by a display of deep moral and religious feeling in a sermon which the Hartford *Courant* copied as a "public duty." This was the first offence. The second was an example of another species of "journalism," which consists in "lying low" after you have been misconducting yourself, and pretending that you do not know what all the noise is about. This they committed by either taking no notice of the *Nation's* reply to Judge Dillon, in which it showed from the record that on the most important points his defence was inaccurate, evasive, or untruthful, or by printing minute paragraphs in out-of-the-way places, making obscure references to the affair, as if they had just heard of it for the first time. We know of no remedy for this state of journalistic morals except patience and kind treatment, combined, however, with constant reproof and exposure. As to that august person, "William G. Hammond, Chancellor of the Law Department of the University of Iowa," who has had much to say about this affair, we shall deal with him when we see any sign that he is familiar with the case, and when we know more about him than his title.

—The Fifth Annual Report of the Boston Board of Health contains valuable suggestions with regard to the sewerage of the city; the treatment of tramps; and the advisability of providing a public ambulance for the removal of persons falling sick in the streets. It also gives details of work done in preventing wet cellars; inspecting tenement-houses and removing nuisances; looking after fish-peddlers and grease-collectors, and making them keep their vehicles clean; inspecting slaughtering-establishments, and the methods of handling and storing hides and horns; providing for vaccination; overseeing school-houses, infant boarding-houses, lying-in hospitals, and cemeteries; inspecting provisions, etc. In the pursuit of adulterations, its special work has been to examine samples of candy, and to procure evidence for the prosecution of those employing poisonous admixtures. Out of twenty samples analyzed, seven, being yellow and green candies, contained the extremely poisonous chromate of lead or chrome-yellow; one (white peppermint) contained plaster of Paris, and eleven were quite pure, or at least contained nothing poisonous. The most important work of the Board, however, has been the collection and arrangement of mortality statistics. For this purpose Boston was divided into nineteen "sanitary districts," each having well-defined characteristics of population, soil, drainage, elevation, etc. Of course wealth and intelligence, good food and clothing, enable that part of the city in which they are most plentiful to record the lowest death-rate, notwithstanding positive disadvantages of natural position. Beacon Hill, though probably first in natural advantages, ranks only sixth in lowness of death-rate, because of a mixed population of rich and poor; while the Back Bay district, which is entirely "made" land, difficult to drain, has by far the lowest death-rate of the whole city, its population being uniformly well to do and expensively housed. Its death-rate is only 14.1 in the thousand, that of the North End being 28.2, or precisely twice as great. Nevertheless, the anomaly of a low death-rate (19.4) in the territory near the Boston and Albany depot, which was once part of the harbor, and has a poor class of inhabitants, shows that we have not yet mastered all the facts regarding the best sanitary conditions. One very curious and unexpected result of the investigations of the Board is in regard to diphtheria. They are obliged "to reject the idea that filth fosters the origin and dissemination of diphtheria." It has prevailed less at the South Cove than in Brighton, less in the "Old Mill Pond" district than on Beacon Hill, less at the North End than in West Roxbury. They believe that diphtheria is sometimes infectious, that patients should be isolated during treatment, etc., but the causes they consider, as yet, wholly obscure, and needing most careful study. Scarlet fever they hold to be entirely preventable, and have set themselves the task of stamping it out as effectually as they have already repressed small-pox; only six deaths have occurred from the latter disease in three years, whereas scarlet fever has destroyed 1,282 lives in the same period.

—A school of drawing and painting has been established in Boston in connection with the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, but under a different management. During the summer of 1876 the trustees of the Museum appropriated rooms for the purpose, a small sum of money was raised by subscription as a guarantee for one year's session, and a meeting was held in September of that year at the Union Club, with the result of giving the charge of the school into the hands of a permanent committee, of which Mr. E. C. Cabot was and remains the chairman, Mr. Wm. R. Ware, the secretary, and Mr. C. C. Perkins, John La Farge, and others equally well known as friends of the study of art, are members. In short, the school was in good hands from the commencement, with little or none of the make-weight material which is often found in such bodies as this committee. The circular for the second year has just reached us, from which it seems that the work of the school is to go on, with Dr. Rimmer in charge of the anatomical studies. We learn also that the success last year was very gratifying, not only in the number of students, but in their interest, devotion, and success. It would be well if a clear account were given in some accurate and trustworthy shape of the use made by the students of the collections of the museum. These, however, have a more immediate connection with lectures on the history and criticism rather than with the practice of fine art.

—Mr. Clarence King, of the United States Geological Survey of the Fortieth Parallel, has just issued Vol. vi. of his report to the Chief of Engineers, 'Microscopical Petrography,' by Ferdinand Zirkel. The patient and brilliant labors of Sorby, Zirkel, Vogelsang, and Tschermak have perfected a method of rock analysis of great delicacy and exactness. This method, which has raised lithology from the position of one of the most inexact departments of geology to the rank of a strictly inductive science, is based on the study of extremely thin slices of rock under the microscope in ordinary and in polarized light, and often while under the influence of chemical reagents. In this manner the mineral components of the most obscure rock are determined by the exact methods of physics. The method goes much further than this: it is fast unravelling the history of the formation of many rocks and of the changes they have undergone. In preparing the volume before us, Prof. Zirkel studied twenty-five hundred thin sections, representing the crystallized rocks of all ages across the Rocky Mountains—a study which was supplemented by a visit to this country to inspect the hand specimens, and to discuss their mode of occurrence with the members of the Survey. The volcanic rocks of a very small part of the region had previously been studied by Baron von Richthofen—an investigation which formed part of the basis of his excellent "System of Volcanic Rocks." Richthofen's system was used by the Fortieth Parallel Corps in the field, and Prof. Zirkel pays no slight tribute to the excellence of it, and to Messrs. King, Emmons, and Hague, when he says that in every instance his more exact method of diagnosis confirms the determinations by these geologists which were based on Richthofen's system. The publication of this volume marks an epoch in American geology, and the fact that it is the work of one of the founders of this branch of the science stamps it with an authority to which every true geologist will do grateful homage.

—The last number of the *Romania* (No. 22) is of unusual interest to those engaged in the study of comparative folk-lore. A. Wesselofsky, the distinguished Russian scholar, contributes an Old-French poem, "Li Dis de l'Empereour Constant," contained in a MS. of the Royal Library at Copenhagen, and makes it the text for a long discourse on the subject of the legend of the birth of Constantine the Great. This legend he traces through French, Italian, and Servian literature, and then investigates very minutely the class of fatalistic stories so common in Oriental and European folk-lore. E. Cosquin continues his very interesting *Contes populaires lorrains*, each story being accompanied by the most elaborate illustrations, quite worthy of such masters in this field as Liebrecht and Köhler. The other leading article is by a rising Italian philologist, F. d'Ovidio, on the Italian words that double a consonant preceding the accented vowel (*seppelire*, Lat. *sepelire; scellerato*, Lat. *sceleratus*). This reduplication has been scarcely noticed by grammarians. The author collects all the examples in Italian, and, after classifying them, deduces the causes in each case. The department of *Mélanges* contains much interesting matter, but is outweighed by the *Comptes-Rendus*, which contain, among other things, a very severe and detailed notice of Hermann Hagen's 'Carmina medii aevi,' Berne, 1877. A very beneficial effect of the Franco-Prussian war may be seen in the effort made by the French to beat the Germans in the arts of peace. A very marked result is the independence of French scholars and a more profound scholarship. This feeling led to the establishment of the *Romania*, which is the equal of the *Jahrbuch für romanische und englische Literatur* in its palmiest days. These remarks are called out by L. Havet's review of the above-mentioned work. He justly says that the carelessness of the German editor would be severely blamed in a philologist not a German, and trusts that his future works may attest an acquaintance with versification, "acquise soit à l'école de la science allemande, soit à l'école de M. Thurot et de M. Quicherat." A part of the *Chronique* is devoted to the subject of the Diez Foundation. It is known to some of our readers, perhaps, that a subscription was invited by a committee in Berlin for the purpose of a memorial to the great Romance philologist who died last year. It was proposed to invest the

money raised, and from the interest offer a prize at regular intervals to scholars of all nations. Since then a second appeal has been made by a committee of Austrian scholars, and Prof. Schuchardt of Gratz has suggested in a letter to the *Allgemeine Zeitung* and the *Gegenwart* that the most appropriate home for the memorial would be Rome. We have been surprised that no interest has been taken in this matter in the United States. There is scarcely a college now where there is not a chair of Romance Philology (or, to put it more modestly, where French, Spanish, and Italian are not taught), and every scholar in this field must feel the debt he owes to Frederick Diez. The subscription in Berlin is to close at the end of this year, and we trust the names of some American scholars may appear in the list of subscribers.

CLINGMAN'S SPEECHES.*

II.

WE should be doing Mr. Clingman injustice if our notice of his book were to end with our remarks upon it last week. Considerable as was his share in precipitating the rebellion, his mind was not always absorbed in the contemplation of fancied "rights" of the slave power, to the exclusion of all other subjects ; and he is not now an irreconcilable. Nor is the worth of his compilation confined to the light which it sheds upon his own character. The first quarter of it is occupied with non-political addresses, essays, and letters on a great variety of subjects, beginning with an excellent talk on Oratory, illustrated by anecdotes of Seward, Choate, J. Q. Adams, Webster, and other famous Congressional debaters. He discourses in a manner to gratify Col. Waring on Farming and Cookery, announcing his belief that "within ten years [from 1875] as many persons have died prematurely in this State [N. C.] from bad cookery as were slain in the war"—and no other Southern State, he elsewhere says, lost so many men in battle as North Carolina. His scientific bent leads him to treat of Meteors and of Water-Spouts, of Volcanic Action in North Carolina (a very interesting lecture) and of the Mountain Region of that State, which few explorers know better than the namesake of Clingman's Dome. He is even bold enough to engage Huxley, Darwin, and Tyndall on the Theory of Evolution, regarding "this hypothesis as improbable in itself, without a single fact to support it, and without one plausible argument in its favor"—much the same terms in which the divine right of the "peculiar institution" might be denied by Mr. Darwin, who has declared that "Slavery, although in some ways beneficial during ancient times, is a great crime ; yet it was not so regarded until quite recently, even by the most civilized nations."

All this portion of Mr. Clingman's book is instructive, but what follows—his Congressional speeches—has a higher value, both historically and as a present source of political education. There is hardly any question which now engages public attention that does not find either pertinent suggestion or illustration here, and one cannot fail to be struck with the fact that the slavery agitation and the war broke the continuity of our political development, which we are just beginning to resume, and that we may profitably turn back to the discussions of thirty, forty, and even fifty years ago. We may have grave doubts of a revival of the Whig party, but we must acknowledge that that party had a reason for existing which was only suspended or superseded, not destroyed. We have already quoted from Mr. Clingman's maiden speech in the House, in some respects the best he ever made. Thirty-three years have left the following passage as fresh as the wall-paintings at Pompeii :

"They [the Democrats] desire to see a President eligible a second time to office. When, therefore, he is once in power, if he be a selfish and unprincipled man, instead of discharging his official duties, his whole attention is directed to the securing of his re-election. Having the appointment of more than fifty thousand officers, he selects his friends for office, and threatens with removal all who do not electioneer for him. This system was brought into the administration of the Federal Government by Mr. Van Buren when he became Secretary of State. He and his friends justify it by saying that the offices of the country are spoils, which belong to the victor party. The tendency of this system is to convert the office-holders of the country into a mercenary army of electioneerers, commanded by the President. So sensible was Mr. Jefferson of the mischief likely to result from this condition of things, that he published a circular-letter, forbidding the officers of Government, on pain of dismissal from office, to interfere, except by simply voting, in any manner in the elections. General Harrison did the same thing as soon as he came into the Presidential chair. But Mr. Van Buren not only requires them to take part in his favor, but, as the reports of the Investigating Committee of this House prove, they were compelled, by a threat of dismissal from office, to pay in proportion to the salary of each a tax to raise a fund for electioneering purposes. The adoption of this system accounts for the large number of defaulters in Mr. Van Buren's time. Officers were not selected because they were 'honest and capable,' as Mr. Jefferson advised, but because they had rendered the party service."

This sounds like the voice of Mr. Hayes himself, and ought to put the opponents of his civil-service order to the blush. Mr. Clingman's speech in 1854 on the public expenditures, with special reference to civil-service salaries, likewise loses nothing of its pertinence by time, and the same may be said of his numerous speeches on the tariff and on reciprocity. We commend these not merely for the economic interest that attaches to them, but because they reveal the disastrous effect of Protection on national legislation and the morals of the whole country, as well as of Congressmen. In 1852, Thaddeus Stevens admitted that the Pennsylvania iron "delegation" (*scilicet* lobby) had secured the passage of a bill granting 3,000,000 acres of land to the Missouri railroad; to which Mr. Clingman rejoined :

"Their object was, by an improper bargain, to get the votes of Western men to impose fresh taxes on the country for the benefit of the iron interest, and they no doubt pushed through the Missouri bill expecting to get a return. . . . It is notorious to all of us who have been here for the last three years that this iron interest is constantly offering support to Western measures, upon condition that the Representatives from that section will join them in imposing additional taxes on the community."

If any one were to ask Mr. Cornell for his definition of a Republican, we are sure it would not differ from that given of a Democrat in 1851 in the House of Representatives :

"We were all amused yesterday," says Mr. Clingman, "with the attempts of the gentleman from Maryland (Mr. McLane), in reply to the questions of the gentleman from South Carolina, to explain in what Democracy consisted. His definition was that a Democrat was he who stood by and honestly carried out the objects and determinations of the party organization. This definition he gave twice in reply to questions. . . . He said further, in continuation, that a Democrat in 1848 was he that voted for Cass and Butler, and in 1844 for Polk and Dallas."

The difficulty with the gentleman from Maryland was that, in consequence of the rise and predominance of the slavery question, there had ceased to be any distinction between Whigs and Democrats as national parties. The Free-soilers had found that out. Mr. Clingman notices the fact and goes on to remark :

"The truth is, Mr. Chairman, that the old issues which formerly divided these two parties have now disappeared, and, for want of the old landmarks, the lines of division are scarcely susceptible. . . . There can be no doubt that the Whig and Democratic parties, once essentially divided as to measures, have now become mere factions. By factions I mean, as contradistinguished from parties, to designate bodies of men not separated by well-defined principles, but only by political animosity, or because struggling against each other for office. Such associations are usually the most mischievious. Wanting the disinterestedness and purity which a struggle for principle is apt to engender, they soon become utterly selfish and tend to political corruption. I have no objection, therefore, to see new party combinations formed, as the government of the country is likely thereby to be in a better rather than in a worse position."

Those who recall the tremendous struggle of the "outs" and the "ins" in 1872, and afterwards in 1876, and how readily either party might have made the canvass on the platform adopted by the other, must agree that a quarter of a century has brought us again to the state depicted by Mr. Clingman. The last two national elections were the contentions of factions and not of parties, and so far justify Mr. Goldwin Smith's belief that we have reached the end of party government in this country. It remains to be seen whether a truly national administration will destroy factions and parties alike, or whether it will simply facilitate the division of the people once more by honest and avowed "differences of opinion as to the mode of administering the Government, and as to the measures it should carry out."

We could easily fill a large space—larger than we can afford—with extracts from the volume before us containing sensible views deserving and repaying consideration. Such is Mr. Clingman's censure (p. 237) of the caucus system of nominating candidates and conducting the canvass as "destructive of anything like independence in the Representative." Candidates consequently do not, "as gentlemen often do in the South and West, take ground against the popular clamor, and sustain themselves by direct appeals to the intelligence and reason of their constituents." There is another Southern practice, much stigmatized of late as the "Mississippi plan," which also approves itself and is thus described by Mr. Clingman (p. 180) :

"In my own State, and in the Southern country generally, it is the custom for men of opposite parties to debate political questions face to face before the people, and the voters thus have a better chance to ascer-

* 'Selections from the Speeches and Writings of Hon. Thomas L. Clingman, of North Carolina. With additions and explanatory notes.' Raleigh. 1877. 8vo, pp. v, 623.

tain the views of parties and of their candidates. . . . At the North the mode of conducting a canvass is different. The speakers on opposite sides seldom if ever meet each other in debate. The meetings being composed of one party only, the matter thrown out goes uncontradicted, alike whether it be truth or falsehood, and the members of either party adopt the views of their own speakers. To the uninformed, however honest they may be, the best authenticated document carries no more evidence of its truth than the libel representing, both by pictures and writing, Mr. Clay hanging the three Dutchmen, which was so extensively circulated in Pennsylvania."

We should like to quote Mr. Clingman's advice about stump-oratory (p. 592), and his account of Congressional oratory prior to the advent of the short-hand reporter (p. 613), but we must close our summary of the political features of the volume with a few lines from the chapter on "Popular Delusions," suggested by the fact that "though perhaps more than fifty thousand men from the Northern States have been in North Carolina [since the war] without molestation in person or property, yet I am asked in the North, by persons who daily read the newspapers, the question, 'When will it be safe for a Northern man to go to your State?'"

"On a first view of the subject it would seem that in a country like the United States, abounding as it does in newspapers, railroads, and telegraphs, and with a people remarkable for their love of newspaper reading and travelling—it would seem, I say, impossible that a general open condition of opinion should prevail in one or more sections of the Union, without that state of opinion becoming generally known in other sections of the Union in the course of a few years. Such, however, was not the fact, and the people of large sections of the country remained for a long period profoundly ignorant of the state of feeling, and even of the actual physical condition, of other large districts."

This was the state of things before the war; but one would have supposed it impossible that after Northern armies had overrun the South, and Northern men had governed it for ten years and it was possible to travel freely from the Potomac to the Rio Grande, the North should remain almost as ignorant of the South as the South was of the North before she plunged into rebellion. The future historian of the Civil War will be puzzled to explain, or will at least be called upon to explain, how it was that the North never could ascertain the truth about the outrages reported by the carpet-baggers, or about the electoral muddle in Louisiana, and that the Administration was obliged to send "watchers" and "commissions" merely to ascertain facts usually considered within the province of the reporter of the daily press.

In the several speeches of Mr. Clingman, and still more in the historical narratives with which he has connected them, the reader will find a store of valuable information as to the war-horses of the Union-saving period, and the successive events that slowly and surely tended to disunion and war. What, we ask, would have been the course of our history if the Democratic repeal of the Whig registry law in New York, and the Plaquemines frauds in Louisiana, had not given Polk a title to the Presidency as little savory as Mr. Hayes's first? if the Baltimore Convention of 1844 had not devised the two-thirds rule in order to dispose of Van Buren's chances without scandal? if President Taylor had lived to carry out his policy of freedom for the Territories and for the new States carved out of them? if the "movement to divide and destroy the Democratic party" which Mr. Clingman deprecated, but "in which Mr. Buchanan, Mr. Jefferson Davis, and Mr. Slidell were the most influential actors," had never existed? if, finally, Governor Ellis, of North Carolina, had not, after the John Brown raid, expressed to Mr. Clingman "his regret that there were no arms in the State for defensive purposes," and the Senator had not spoken to Secretary Floyd about it, and Floyd had not stripped Northern arsenals to equip Southern ones, and Governor Ellis (heeding a telegram from Senator Clingman immediately after the taking of Sumter) had not seized the Fayetteville arsenal with the transferred arms in it—arms which were shortly used by the First North Carolina Regiment at the battle of Big Bethel, and still more effectively—perhaps decisively—at Bull Run?

Calhoun, Davis, and Buchanan were the objects of Mr. Clingman's sincere and in one sense patriotic abhorrence. Of Davis his opinion agrees with the dictum of a high Confederate officer at Johnston's surrender: "If we had had Lincoln and they had had Davis, we should have subjugated the North." In regard to Calhoun he quotes Benton's saying that so far from being a statesman he had "never invented even a *humbug*"—a distinction to which Mr. Blaine might lay claim since his Woodstock speech. Mr. Buchanan's services to the South do not save him from the severest censure at Mr. Clingman's hands; but the following anecdote exceeds it all (p. 526):

"About the middle of December [1860] I had occasion to see the Secretary of the Interior on some official business. On my entering the room, Mr. Thompson said to me, 'Clingman, I am glad you have called, for I intended presently to go up to the Senate to see you. I have been appointed commissioner by the State of Mississippi to go down to North Carolina to get your State to secede, and I wished to talk with you about your Legislature before I start down in the morning to Raleigh, and to learn what you think of my chance of success.' I said to him, 'I did not know that you had resigned.' He answered, 'Oh, no, I have not resigned.' 'Then,' I replied, 'I suppose you resign in the morning.' 'No,' he answered, 'I do not intend to resign, for Mr. Buchanan wished us all to hold on and go out with him on the fourth of March.' 'But,' said I, 'does Mr. Buchanan know for what purpose you are going to South Carolina?' 'Certainly, he knows my object.' Being surprised by this statement, I told Mr. Thompson that Mr. Buchanan was probably so much perplexed by his situation that he had not fully considered the matter, and that as he was already involved in difficulty, we ought not to add to his burdens; and then suggested to Mr. Thompson that he had better see Mr. Buchanan again, and, by way of inducing him to think the matter over, mention what I had been saying to him. Mr. Thompson said, 'Well, I can do so, but I think he fully understands it.'

"In the evening I met Mr. Thompson at a small social party, and as soon as I approached him he said, 'I knew I could not be mistaken. I told Mr. Buchanan all you said, and he told me he wished me to go, and hoped I might succeed.' I could not help exclaiming, 'Was there ever before any potentate who sent out his own Cabinet ministers to excite an insurrection against his Government!' The fact that Mr. Thompson did go on the errand, and had a public reception before the Legislature, and returned to his position in the Cabinet, is known; but this incident serves to recall it."

There are several morals to this story besides the one that Mr. Clingman points out.

The Christian Doctrine of Sin. By John Tulloch, D.D., Principal of St. Mary's College in the University of St. Andrews, one of Her Majesty's Chaplains for Scotland. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 12mo, pp. 243.)—This little book is welcome as a manifestation of the change which is coming over the spirit of dogmatic theology. The teacher of doctrine finds that he can no longer confine himself to the letter of Scripture. The scientific method has become a necessity, and, if it cannot be applied in strictness, its semblance at least must be attempted. Too many facts have been accumulated which cannot be passed over in silence; the theologian must be equipped with a knowledge of many things which the last generation would have regarded as utterly foreign to his subject, and he must be prepared to meet an antagonist on equal ground, trusting to the strength of his facts and his ability to handle them, in place of entrenching himself, as of old, behind authority, and considering that he only has to cite names.

Principal Tulloch, indeed, has not designed to treat his subject in controversial, but merely in expository fashion; yet it is one so far-reaching and so all-embracing that he cannot, in spite of himself, resist the temptation of assailing, here and there, the rationalists who have intruded upon his theological preserves. This he does with commendable frankness and fairness, and he abandons as indefensible many strongholds which his predecessors would have died rather than yield to the enemy. He even goes so far as to admit that religious dogma is a progressive science, which is not now what it has been (p. 25), and he leaves us to infer that it may not always be what it is now. It is, however, a significant example of theological logic to see him start his argument with an assumption that begs the very question under discussion. "Let man himself be divine in his essential being, the theistic inference is a strict and legitimate one; let this be denied, theism disappears. The very idea of the divine, in the old, and, as we must hold, the only true, sense can never be reached" (p. 18). This would seem to be more candid than wise; for an argument which requires the assumption of such a premiss as the divinity of man can scarcely be called an argument, unless it be accompanied with such a definition of the word "divinity" as no theologian would be likely to admit.

It is refreshing, however, to see an orthodox teacher deem it necessary to preface his examination of Jewish and Christian tenets by a survey of the opinions embodied in other faiths, and to do this with an evident desire to state them fairly, and not to take it for granted that there has been but one source through which religious truth can reach mankind. Comparative theology, indeed, is a subject in which Dr. Tulloch informs us that he has "been deeply interested for many years" (p. 221), and we therefore might reasonably expect to have a fuller and more accurate sketch of some at least of the faiths which he discusses in their relations with his subject. His omissions in this respect, in fact, are somewhat glaring. Any reference, for instance, to the ancient Egyptian mythology is fatally defective which passes over in silence the mystic Trinitarian monotheism which lay at the foundation of the esoteric doctrines of the

prophets, and which never was lost sight of in all the successive speculations of the Alexandrian schools, Pagan, Jewish, and Christian. To condemn Parseeism because "there can be little doubt that Persian religious thought never surmounted the fundamental dualism on which it is based" (p. 44)—that is, the absolute equality of the evil principle with the good—is to ignore one of its best known and most important factors, the Messiah Saoshyans and the final triumph of Hormazd over Ahriman. Some reference also to Zeruana Akerene, or Limitless Time, would not have been amiss, in view of the profound alteration which that conception introduced in Mazdean dualism. In describing the Indian faiths, Dr. Tulloch makes a bare reference to Metempsychosis as one of the peculiarities of Brahmanism and omits all allusion to it in his account of Buddhism, where it became developed into a complete theory of the universe; and he thus misses the most important and significant fact of those religions in their relations to the subject in hand.

A still stranger omission, however, is observable in the few lines devoted to the religion of Mesopotamia. Enough of the cuneiform inscriptions have been deciphered to enable us to form a tolerably accurate conception of the Chaldean and Assyrian faith, an acquaintance with which has become indispensable to the student of the Bible, as it is here that we must look for the ancestral beliefs of the Hebrews—"the men from beyond the river." The brilliant discoveries of the late George Smith have revealed to us the source of so much in the early chapters of Genesis that the light which they throw upon prehistoric Judaism cannot safely be neglected. As the creation and fall of man form the text of Dr. Tulloch's book, it is unaccountable that he should have thus passed over that which has so essential a bearing upon the elucidation of his subject. He does not even refer to the well-known Mazdean legend of Mesya and Mesyane, the identity of which with the Mosaic account of Adam and Eve in Gan Eden points to the derivation of both from some Assyrian saga as yet only to be guessed at through some doubtful pictorial tablets.

A similar lack of familiarity with important facts in comparative theology is shown when the author turns to the development of Jewish thought. The conception of a sole creative God is assuredly sublime, wherever it originated, and no one can read the first chapter of Genesis without being impressed with its unsurpassed grandeur and simplicity; but when Dr. Tulloch informs us that this development from the worship of personified objects of nature to that of a creative Mind marks an advance "beyond any stage of religious thought that is external to the Scriptures," of which "it is hardly possible for language to measure the length and breadth" (pp. 64–5), he simply shows that he is unacquainted with the Paramatma and Visvakarman of the Rig Veda and the Brahma of the Manava Dharma Sästra.

The main subject of Dr. Tulloch's book, however interesting and provocative of debate, is unsuited for discussion here. He treats it with good temper, and with a manifest desire to be fair and candid; yet there is throughout the volume the looseness of reasoning to which we have already alluded, and which is so apt to mar the effectiveness of theological argument. When, for instance, the author is treating "of man's first disobedience, and the fruit," and analyzing it with great apparent acuteness, he says: "The revolt, moreover, is induced by external enticement or influence; in other words, the will or spirit becomes subject to evil suggestion and *the influence of Nature*, in place of divine law" (p. 70). Now, "nature," theologically speaking, is nothing except the material expression of the divine will. If nature, then, can be personified as an opposing principle to divine law, we have at once a dualism as complete as that of Zarathustra Spitama, with the Creator performing the function of Zeruana Akerene.

Elements of Geometry. By G. M. Searle, C.S.P., Assistant at the Dudley Observatory and at that of Harvard College. With an appendix containing problems and additional propositions. (New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1877.)—We remember no other geometry that condenses so much reasoning into so small a number of pages as this of Mr. Searle. Nothing is taken for granted as axiomatic. Matters which other books regard as self-evident are in this subjected to subtle and painful scepticism, and elaborately proved. Thus, half a page of close and difficult argument is devoted to proving what we never heard of any one's doubting—that all right angles are equal. The promise is fulfilled which is implied in these words of the preface: "The first motive which induced the preparation of the present work has been the desire to reduce what is supposed to be self-evident to the smallest possible amount, and thus to make the science more strictly logical—in opposition, perhaps, to the prevailing tendency at the present day, which seems to be to increase the number of axioms, and to base geometry on observation and experience. The advantage of simplicity gained by the multiplication of axioms does not seem to be worth the sacrifice of logical accuracy." The book is what we could anticipate from such a preface. It is so profound that hasty critics might unjustly condemn it as obscure. It would almost seem as if its author had studiously avoided all appearance of simplicity of statement. As a specimen of the very abstract character of many of the theorems, we will adduce the first proposition in the book, viz.: "If a line be moved from any position, in any way in which one of its points remains fixed, till it has a position the reverse in direction to its original one, there will be some intermediate position in which the figures which it forms with its original and final positions can be superposed." Errors of grammar are seldom worth alluding to, but as one happens to occur and to cause obscurity in the very sentence just quoted, we call attention to it: since the "original" and "final" positions of the revolving line are different positions, the fact of this difference should grammatically be shown by repeating the preposition "with," thus: "there will be some intermediate position in which the figures which it forms with its original and with its final position can be superposed"; or, more lucidly still, "in which the figure which it forms with its original position can be superposed upon the figure which it forms with its final position." The thread of rigid deduction upon which Mr. Searle's book is crystallized (for he even throws into an appendix all theorems not essential to the sequence) secures scientific unity at the expense of educational facility. As a text-book it will be found too difficult. Most geometries are obscure without being concise; this one is so excessively concise that the benefit of its clearness is lost except upon trained geometricians. We can recommend the book as a sort of intellectual "health-lift" to a college student who, at the commencement of vacation, finds his appetite for mathematics stimulated instead of satiated by the curriculum of the past term. The problems in the appendix might serve an excellent purpose if proposed judiciously.

The Question of Rest for Women during Menstruation. By Mary Putnam Jacobi, M.D. The Boylston prize essay of Harvard University for 1876. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877. 8vo, pp. 232.)—While medical schools and societies are all more or less agitated by the question of the admission of women into their ranks on terms of equality with men, the author of the volume before us has, by her successful competition for the Boylston prize, rendered her sex a far more important service than if she had directly advocated their claims. The Boylston medical prizes are annually awarded by a committee of physicians (appointed by the President and Fellows of Harvard University) to whom the writers are, until the announcement of the successful competitor, known only by an assumed name or device accompanying each dissertation. Over how many rivals Mrs. Dr. Jacobi was triumphant the decision of the committee affords no means of determining, but the practice of that body to refuse all award if no really worthy dissertation is presented (as was the case in 1874) is evidence that the work has an absolute as well as a relative value.

To the discussion of the subject the author brings a large amount of erudition as well as of original research. The material of the latter consists chiefly of 268 sets of answers to questions propounded by her on the subject of menstruation and of extended observations on the pulse, temperature, strength, and renal excretion of a number of women before, during, and after the menstrual period. The conclusions reached are that menstruation is connected with the reproductive as distinguished from the sexual function of women, that it is the expression of superfluous rather than of deficient vitality, and that "there is nothing in the nature of menstruation to imply the necessity, or even the desirability, of rest for women whose nutrition is really normal."

How far the women of the present day fall short of this normal standard is evident from the final paragraph of the book: "It remains true, however, that in our existing social conditions 46 per cent. of women suffer more or less at menstruation, and for a large number of these when engaged in industrial pursuits or others, under the command of an employer, humanity dictates that rest from work during the period of pain be afforded whenever practicable."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*	
Bacon (Lord), Works, Popular edition, 2 vols	(Hurd & Houghton)	$5 00
Bartholomew (G. K.), Cæsar's Commentaries	(Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.)	
Burnap (U. C.) and Wetmore (Dr. W. J.), The Polytechnic: Music	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	1 25
Holland (J. G.), Nicholas Minturn: a Tale	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Lamb (Mrs. M. J.), History of the City of New York, Parts 13, 14, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	50
Rameau (M.), Une Colonie Féodale en Amérique, swd	(F. W. Christern)	

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1877.

The Week.

THE annual convention of the American Bankers' Association was held in this city last week, and was attended, first and last, by nearly five hundred members, representing, it is said, more than half the banking capital of the country. The subjects which principally engaged their attention were the resumption of specie payments and the outrageous taxation imposed upon capital employed in banking. The proceedings were opened by a valuable paper read by Sir Francis Hincks, of Montreal, formerly Finance Minister of the Dominion Government, in which were sketched the measures there employed to keep a certain portion of the public debt in the form of non-interest-bearing notes, kept at par with gold and used by the banks as legal reserves—measures which he believed could be safely and advantageously employed here after resumption. A plan for active co-operation of the banks with the Government to bring about resumption was offered by Mr. Geo. S. Coe, President of the New York Clearing-House. The report of the Executive Council was every way admirable in tone, and promised the hearty support of the banks to the means already provided by law for the restoration of specie payments. Statistics were presented in two papers read by Mr. C. P. Williams, of Albany, and Mr. R. H. Thurman, of Troy, showing the inequitable and in some cases vindictive taxation imposed on banks, after which a temperate resolution was passed recommending such changes in State and national legislation as should put this species of property on a like footing with other personal property. The silver question made little stir in the convention, and a resolution commending the use of that metal for subsidiary coinage was the only comfort extended to the remonetizers, notwithstanding Mr. Wm. S. Groesbeck, of Cincinnati, read a long paper on the silver side, which was replied to with crushing force by Professor Perry of Williams College.

Mr. Coe's plan of resumption is regarded in banking circles as an improvement on that prescribed by the Resumption Act. The latter assumes that resumption will be secured, so far as it is possible to secure it by the first of January, 1879, by bringing United States legal-tender notes to par with gold on or before that date; that this can be accomplished when the Treasury has gold enough to pay all of these notes that may be presented; that the amount which will be so presented will be what is needed for specie exports and to quiet the fears of persons who immediately after resumption will doubt its permanency; that when legal-tender notes are at par with gold, bank-notes and credits of all kind will express gold value, because they will be redeemable ultimately in gold or the gold-paper of the Government; and that, in short, specie-payment resumption by the Treasury means resumption by the banks and by every person and institution whose debts constitute part of the total currency in use. According to this theory the banks have no need to acquire gold, since after resumption by the Treasury they will pay their debts precisely as now, in legal-tender notes, which now are irredeemable promises to pay gold and which then will be redeemable promises. The national banks profess to believe that this theory will be found impracticable, and that the withdrawal of gold from the banks to the Treasury vaults will create disturbance; and they propose that they shall be authorized to sell $50,000,000 or more U. S. bonds for resumption purposes, and shall credit the Government with the proceeds of these sales, entering them as gold-deposits of the Treasury; that they shall give ample security for these deposits, and, of course, be permitted to bank upon them the same as on any other part of their reserve; and shall always be subject to pay them to the Treasury as it may need them. Naturally the banks are in favor of this, as they would be in favor of any scheme which would be profitable to them.

The Treasury already has authority to deposit public money, not derived from customs, in any national bank which the Secretary may designate. If, therefore, there is danger of gold being withdrawn from the banks in such amount as seriously to impair bank reserves, all that the Secretary has to do is to put whatever amount of gold, derived from bond sales, may be necessary on deposit with such of the banks as he may select. This, and it is the main, objection of the banks to the present plan, therefore, falls to the ground; and the only question that remains is whether it is worth while for the Government to conciliate the banks by agreeing, before the necessity is demonstrated, to do something which it can easily do after the necessity arises. The banks without doubt are a great power, and might easily give the Treasury much trouble if they are not "let in"; and if Mr. Sherman can see his way clear to conciliating them without getting additional legislation it is worthy of consideration whether he should not do so. If it can only be done by additional legislation then the chances are that, with the prejudice against resumption and against the banks, the attempt would result in embarrassing the working of the present plan, if it did not result in the total defeat of resumption by the repeal of the present law, which is not all that it should be, but is more and better than could probably be obtained now.

The Massachusetts Democrats deserve great credit for the tone given to their late State Convention, and for the general character of the resolutions adopted. The presiding officer, Mr. C. T. Russell, of Cambridge, made an able and good-tempered address, to which exception could be taken only on one or two minor points by any fair-minded man of either party. The resolutions omitted any reference to civil-service reform, the support of which Mr. Russell had advocated, and, although pronouncing "in favor of the honest payment of the public debt and of a currency on a gold basis," contained nothing explicit with regard to resumption, excepting what may be found in a reaffirmation of the national platform of 1876. The labor plank was a safe collection of platitudes, having, however, the merit of not advocating any absurd measure of legislation; and the statement "that we regard with alarm, as dangerous to the best interests of the people, the insidious and constant measures of the Republican party in our Legislature in restricting the right of suffrage," was pure buncombe. The chief merit of the platform was in the positive measures of State policy advocated. It opposed the re-enactment of the Prohibitory Law; declared that "the time has come for a thorough reformation of the laws regulating the levying of taxes" in Massachusetts, the present system of taxation being truly pronounced "unequal, unjust, and oppressive"; approved a limitation of the power of the State, counties, cities, and towns with regard to the borrowing of money; advocated reciprocity treaties with Canada and Mexico; and opposed the present restrictions upon trade and injurious legislation which prevent a profitable disposition of the surplus products of our industry. Mr. Gaston was nominated for Governor.

In the period of frenzy through which many Republican papers passed, before and after Mr. Hayes's accession, the withdrawal of the troops from the support of the Chamberlain government was treated, as our readers may remember, as the concession of one belligerent to another, under certain terms and conditions, in which no account whatever was taken of the Constitution of the United States. Hampton was in short, they thought, to have the State government if he behaved himself in a way to please the President. One of the things, they said, he was to avoid was meddling with or in any way

incommoding the estimable body of men who held the subordinate State offices pending the decision of the State courts on their title. He, however, was wise enough to seal up the doors of the public offices and refuse to admit the officers until the decision was given. This was treated by the maniacal portion of the Republican press as a dreadful outrage and breach of faith, but we took the liberty of pointing out that it was a step which the character and antecedents of these officers made absolutely necessary, for, if not meddled with, they would undoubtedly, like the Tweed Ring, use the interval to destroy the vouchers and other evidences of their frauds, and to alter the account books. The result, we are glad to say, has justified these observations. The evidence against the thieves now under indictment comes largely from the public offices in their possession when Chamberlain was making his "noble stand," and would undoubtedly have been made away with had they been allowed further access to the books and papers.

The result thus far of the successive examinations of Tweed before a committee of the Board of Aldermen does not differ greatly from popular expectation as to what he might tell if he chose to do so, nor has anything of great importance been added to the confession which Kelly contrived to get into the newspapers for political purposes some months ago. Apparently Tweed is making a clean breast of it, though he admits the probability of defects in his memory, and also confesses some things which he has heretofore denied under oath. According to his present "plain unvarnished tale," the first "ring" with which he became connected was one formed in the Board of Supervisors in 1859, and which had for its object the bribing of a Republican member so that none but Democratic inspectors of election might be appointed. The object was attained, and the next year (1860) Tweed, Briggs, and Roche, all members of the Board, formed another ring for the avowed purpose of making money, agreeing to vote together for the passing of certain bills by the Supervisors, with the presenters of which they had previously made bargains for the payment of a percentage on condition of their passing. This combination lasted four years. Then, in 1864, Henry Smith was admitted to partnership in the Ring; in 1865, John Fox; in 1866, James Hayes; and these six formed the Ring through 1867 and 1868, A. J. Blakeley and I. J. Oliver being admitted to a partial interest in 1869. For nearly ten years, therefore, New York suffered the depredations of this first gang of plunderers. Their mode of procedure was, as is well known, a very simple one. By collusion with the presenters of bills, 20 per cent. was in each instance added to the amount, and, after acceptance, 15 per cent. was paid to and divided among the thieves.

In 1870 Tweed became convinced that money might be made at a much more rapid rate, and having quarrelled with some of his associates, and been elected a State Senator, contrived to pass through the Legislature, by dint of very heavy bribery, a new charter for the city, designed, of course, to make stealing more easy than before. By means of this charter and subsequent special legislation the old Board of Supervisors was abolished, and Tweed, Hall, the Mayor, and Connolly, the Comptroller, were appointed a Board of Audit, with authority to pass upon all bills. The subsequent doings of this wonderful board and the knaves who were associated with them are too notorious to need repetition. Tweed affirms that Hall regularly received five per cent. of the plunder. In getting his charter through the Legislature he gives the names of Wm. B. Woodin, Norris Winslow, T. L. Minnier, George Bowen, W. H. Brand, A. B. Harpending, S. H. Frost, W. Cauldwell, W. M. Graham, A. R. Elwood, M. Norton, T. J. Creamer, and James Wood as those of the Senators whom he personally bribed to support the charter in the Republican caucus, paying to the first four $40,000 each, and bribing the others in various ways. For bribing the Assembly $600,000 was placed in the hands of a lobbyist named Barber, and Hugh Hastings, editor of the *Commercial Advertiser*, also received $20,000 for lobby services. The money was furnished by the members of the Ring themselves, and in part, also, by the tradesmen who expected to be benefited by their retention in power. Incidentally Tweed gave a damaging blow to "reformer" O'Brien, who is now suing the city for the payment of a claim of $300,000, one-half of which Tweed asserts, and apparently proves, he purchased and paid for in 1871 in order to secure O'Brien's aid against Mr. Tilden, who was then making trouble for the Ring. Henry C. Murphy and William C. Kingsley were implicated in connection with the East River Bridge project; the former as advising the buying up of the Board of Aldermen, and the latter as receiving fifteen per cent. on all supplies purchased for the undertaking.

The contest in rifle-shooting between English and American teams, which terminated last week in favor of the Americans by a very decided advantage, has attracted widespread attention in this country, and in England probably even more than here. Out of a possible total of 3,600 points the Englishmen scored 3,242, which was very much better than they had ever done before, either in England or at practice in this country. The Americans, however, scored 3,334, winning the match by 92 points and displaying the best shooting done since the invention of the rifle. The best single score was made by Mr. L. C. Bruce—219 out of a possible 225—although Mr. Blydenburgh made the highest average for the two days. The best single English score was that of Sir Henry Halford—207. From the subsequent matches at Creedmoor, between rifle-clubs belonging to different States, it is evident that the United States might easily have selected several different teams, any one of which would have beaten the English riflemen; and as there is no pretence of any special superiority in the men composing the teams, or any advantage derived from methods of firing, or ammunition, or accidental circumstances, the chief practical result of the contest is evidently a demonstration of the superiority of the best American breech-loading rifles as compared with the best English muzzle-loaders, which were exclusively used by the defeated men.

General trade continues in a flourishing condition, the enormous crops having stimulated transportation business and imparted activity to the many branches of trade involved in handling the crops. Money continues in good supply at 4 to 6 per cent. Gold has fallen to 102⅞, which is the lowest price since May 10, 1862. This makes the gold-value of the promise of the Government to pay one dollar $0.9720. The bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week had a gold-value of $0.9160.

The obnoxious phrase in M. Gambetta's speech at Lille for which he has just been sentenced would, here or in England, be considered, under the circumstances, one of extraordinary moderation. It was treated as disrespectful or insulting language by the court, which, like all French courts, regard any chief of the state as having certain of the attributes of royalty. Gambetta has appealed, and the question now debated among French lawyers and politicians is whether, as the appeal will probably not be heard or decided before the next meeting of the Assembly, his inviolability as a deputy will not come in to save him from the consequences of an adverse judgment; but the prevailing opinion seems to be that such inviolability cannot have an *ex-post-facto* efficacy. In case the judgment goes against him in the last resort, the sentence carries with it five years' deprivation of political rights, such as eligibility to office, and would thus throw him for the present out of public life, and the gravity of this punishment as well as the lightness of the offence, combined with the fact that the prosecution was unanimously ordered by a full cabinet, gives the whole proceeding an air of madness. Of its effect in strengthening the Republicans there is no sort of doubt.

The latter continue to conduct their canvass with great skill and with an amount of organization never seen in France before. Their papers are well circulated by local committees in a way in which the police cannot interfere with them; the Government, too, is incessantly attacked in the courts, and with considerable success,

under the advice of a committee of lawyers sitting in Paris. The *Bulletin des Communes*, an official gazette, has been converted by M. Fourtou into an electioneering sheet, which is placarded by the police, and is now half filled with libellous abuse of the Republican deputies. Prosecutions of the Minister for this have failed on the ground that the courts cannot limit his discretion in the selection of proper matter for publication in the *Bulletin*, but, directed against other papers which have copied the libels, they have succeeded. Most of the political litigation, in fact, is about "insults," which play a comically large part in French life. One paper has been prosecuted for saying in a paragraph on General Grant that he, when his term was up, came down and went about his business like any other man, and never talked about "*bouts*"—referring to the Marshal's declaration that he would "fulfil his mission to the end" (*jusqu'au bout*).

In England the tenacity of the Turkish resistance and the slow progress and feeble strategy of the Russians have had the effect of quieting the apprehensions of the Russophobists, and have consequently diminished the Liberal apprehensions of interference. On the other hand, the effect is somewhat irritating as making the Conservative fears about Russian designs on India or on the Valley of the Euphrates seem somewhat ridiculous. Perhaps the most curious feature in the controversy is competition carried on by the two parties in the production of "atrocities," with the view of working on public opinion. The Turks and Russians, too, perceiving the English appetite for these things and their influence on popular sympathy, make a point of keeping the market fully supplied. It must be said, however, that in calm, moderation, and, as far as can be ascertained, in veracity, the Russian officials have from the beginning appeared very well, while the Turks have been convicted of some tremendous lying, and seem to have no scruple about it. But that the Bulgarians and Cossacks do more or less killing and plundering there is unhappily no question; that they approach the Turks, regular and irregular, in cruelty and lust, however, nobody pretends. The war is being carried on as no war but Turkish wars have been since the Thirty Years' War, but then all Turkish wars have been just as brutal and sanguinary; the difference is that the Western world used not to hear much about them. Their massacres in Servia and Greece in the early part of the present century far surpassed anything of which they have been guilty in this struggle, and they are now more *rusé* and hypocritical than they used to be then. The Government recently liberated the persons convicted a year ago of complicity in the murder of the French and German consuls at Salonica, probably thinking that Turkish opinion would no longer permit their detention; but Bismarck refused to permit this little eccentricity, so they have had to go back to jail.

Throughout Sunday, September 9, the Russians cannonaded Plevna. The Turks made a sortie against the left wing and were repulsed. The Rumanians reconnoitred the Turkish redoubts with cautious reserve. The cannonade was continued all night, and all Monday, the Russian batteries gradually pushing forward; General Skobeleff captured a height on the left. On Tuesday, September 11, the cannonade was resumed at daybreak, and kept up till about three o'clock, accompanied, from time to time, by musketry fire, which was very lively on the side of Radishevo, the Russians advancing from the Lovatz-Plevna road against the redoubt on the summit of an isolated mamelon. A fog most of the time veiled the battle-field, and the Turks generally reserved their fire until a closer approach made it effective. Gradually, in the afternoon, the Russian assaults became more general, and between three and five extended over the whole line. The Grivitza redoubt, on the right, was attacked by Russians and Rumanians, under the eyes of the Emperor Alexander; and General Skobeleff, a dashing officer thirty-three years of age, led desperate onsets near the opposite end. Intervening positions at the centre were simultaneously attacked. Assault after assault was repulsed by the Turks with murderous fire and sallies, and in the evening the Emperor is said to have left the field, apparently despairing of success. His officers, however, later resumed the bloody work, and about seven o'clock both the Grivitza redoubt and a double redoubt fought for by General Skobeleff were carried. At each point the Turks made a most stubborn resistance. The losses of the Russians and Rumanians were appalling, their captures insignificant. At daybreak on Wednesday, they reopened the artillery fire along the whole line.

The Turks made little reply to the Russian bombardment on Wednesday, directing their efforts against Skobeleff, who threatened their flank. Five furious attacks were made against him in vain, but the sixth succeeded, reinforcements, tardily and scantily sent, arriving too late for his relief. He had lost half his force in trying to hold the conquered fortifications. Only one commander of a regiment was alive. The Grivitza redoubt was held by the Russians, but subjected to a continual fire from positions close by, which prevented even the removal of the dead and wounded. The Russians in the following night entrenched themselves, and it became evident that the renewal of the attack on Osman Pasha's positions was made dependent on the arrival of heavy portions of the Guard, which were expected. The losses of the week, which ended on Friday morning, were officially stated to be: Russians, killed and wounded, about 300 officers and 12,500 men; Rumanians, about 60 officers and 3,000 men. Reports by eye-witnesses, published in the London *Times* and *News*, accord praise to the valor of the Russian soldiers but blame the tactics of their commanders, while the unflinching bravery of the Turks and the skilful handling of them are equally put in relief. On Friday evening the latter made an attempt to recapture the Grivitza redoubt, which was repulsed, as the Russian bulletin states it, "with the assistance of the Russian and Rumanian reserves." On Saturday the Russians resumed the shelling of Plevna and its fortifications. This, however, does not appear to have been kept up with vigor, and no further conflict is reported. In fact, a bulletin just received, dated at "the Russian headquarters, Gorni Studeni," whither the Grand Duke Nicholas is reported to have "returned from before Plevna," makes it appear probable that the attack has been more or less definitively abandoned.

Nor have the troops commanded by the Russian Crown Prince met with much success during the week. On September 13, Mehemet Ali Pasha reported from Shumla an engagement near Karagatch, northwest of Osman Bazar, in which Baker Pasha (the former Colonel Baker), after a repulse, ultimately drove the enemy from the field with heavy loss. Under the same date he announced that the Russian Eleventh Corps had evacuated Tirnova, proceeding in the direction of Biela. A day or two later he telegraphed a repulse of the Twelfth Corps, concentrated at a short distance from the banks of the Danube, east of the Yantra, by eighteen battalions of his army. And a more disastrous repulse of the Crown Prince's main force is inofficially reported from his headquarters at Biela to have taken place in the valley of the Kara Lom on Monday, September 17. Suleiman Pasha, some of whose minor detachments appear both at Elena and near Gabrova, north of the Balkans, on both sides of the Shipka pass, opened a destructive attack on the Russian positions in that pass on Thursday, September 13, having, according to a bulletin from the headquarters of the Czar, planted three eighty-pound mortars south of Fort Nicholas, the main redoubt of the defenders. The same bulletin admitted a Russian loss of forty killed on the 13th, and of one hundred and seventeen on the 14th. The cannonade was continued through Saturday, and before dawn of Sunday the Turks made a sudden assault on the fort, which seems to have been momentarily successful. The attack soon extended over the whole line, but after many hours' desperate fighting the assailants were forced back with heavy loss, the Russians, as they report, losing upward of five hundred killed and wounded. Both armies at the pass are said to have been strongly reinforced previous to the combat. From Herzegovina we hear of further surrenders to the Montenegrins, and from Asia of further aggressive movements by the Turks.

THE SOUTH CAROLINA RING.

IT is over seven years since we called attention in these columns to the probable rascality of Niles G. Parker, the late Treasurer of South Carolina. Our remarks upon him excited a burst of indignation in the orthodox branch of the Republican church, many leading members of which eulogized him at once with warmth as having had a "fine war record," and as "having, as State Treasurer" (we are now quoting the *Independent* of that day), "restored the State to solvency, and obtained for himself the respect of business men acquainted with her affairs both in this country and in Europe." At that very moment he was in the midst of the series of gigantic frauds and malversations to which he has within the past week confessed. Our remarks on him brought us abundance of information about him which made his control of the finances of a great State a shocking phenomenon; amongst other things, that he had, while keeping a disreputable and unsuccessful bar at Haverhill before the war, found it difficult or impossible to get the insurance company to pay him for the loss of the same by fire. Exposures of a similar character were made almost seriatim of the other leading South Carolina politicians. When the collapse in the State finances occurred, in 1872, and a slight attempt was made to impeach two members of the financial board, Scott and Parker, a full exposure of the dealings of these worthies with the State credit was made, Scott's own message defending himself being a virtual admission of his guilt, on which we commented in strong terms at the time. He is now, with Parker, under indictment, but in 1872 we received remonstrances from his friends at the North for speaking so harshly of him—the facts being apparently of no consequence to them in view of his "fine war record."

We might go further through the list of the men who got this unfortunate State into their hands, and some of whom are now at last likely to meet their deserts, with much the same results. Their real character was perfectly well known from seven to five years ago. Whittemore, the member of Congress who was expelled from the House in 1870 for "cadet-broking," was a Massachusetts embezzler; "Billy" Patterson, the present United States Senator, now also under indictment, was before he went to South Carolina a noted Pennsylvania swindler and fugitive, more than once in the hands of justice, and one of the shameful incidents of the Presidential struggle last winter was the calm with which good Republicans watched this wretched criminal figuring at Washington as the adviser of the Administration as to its policy towards the contending parties in South Carolina. In fact, we can recall nothing more discreditable in political history than the determination with which the Republican party kept up its alliance with these jail-birds, and relied on them as an instrument of government years after they were either notorious or the objects of strong suspicion. Numbers of worthy men in the party seemed to have worked themselves into a state of readiness to suspend the laws of morality in order to carry out one particular experiment in protection of the negro, and to have supposed that they were in some measure benefiting him by leading him to believe, on the very threshold of his new life, that in the opinion of good people in the North ignorance, obscurity, and disrepute were no disqualifications for high office in a Christian state, and that there was far deeper guilt in fighting on the wrong side in a great civil war than in committing theft, forgery, or embezzlement.

That these remarks are none too severe is proved by the fact that though, as we have said, the condition of South Carolina had been well known for years, the determination of Northern Republicans last winter to help the Ring to seize and hold the State government at any cost was never sterner or more bitter. It must be remembered that Chamberlain had all the rascals at his back, down to the very dregs, and was in the same boat with them; even Whipper was on the stump for him. The plea which some of us made that these unfortunate whites were struggling simply to save the remnant of their property and civilization from robbers, not only received little attention, but was sneeringly rejected as evidence of a design "to help Tilden." One leading paper, the New York *Times*, was in such a state of frenzy that at one time it actually seemed to think some kind of punishment ought to be inflicted on the judges of the State Supreme Court, who were thought disposed to decide against Chamberlain's title. It overruled their decision itself with loud scoldings and abuse. There is, in fact, no clear-headed, self-respecting man in the community or party looking back at the past but must thank the President from the bottom of his heart for ridding our Government, no matter under what theory of his duties or rights, of the great disgrace of keeping "the Republican Party" in South Carolina in office by force.

The fact is that the South Carolina Ring, during a large part of its existence, stood in very much the same relation to the Republican managers as the Tweed Ring to the Democratic managers. They were not confederates exactly with the thieves, but, in consideration of the votes the latter could supply and the contributions they could make to campaign funds, the managers were content to wink at their operations, and even oppose or discourage any attempt made to overthrow them. Each thief now under indictment has had to be dragged from under the mantle of Republican charity or blindness, after multiplied accusations and exposures, and even now many of the leading Republican papers hardly notice, if they notice at all, the amazing spectacle which South Carolina offers to the world. At this moment there are signs that the chief of the South Carolina politicians, Mr. Chamberlain, counts on the tradition of this discreditable alliance to save himself from the necessity of explaining or defending his career. We see in various directions assertions, which he himself repeats, that he is not called on to answer the charges of a self-confessed knave like Parker. Perhaps not, if Parker were a mere volunteer who had suddenly appeared on the scene with a string of accusations against a stranger. But since when has the rule been established that the evidence of a criminal is not to be taken against his companions or accomplices? On what other evidence are most of the politicians now under indictment in South Carolina being brought to justice? And is it allowable for Mr. Chamberlain to treat his colleague in the government, and especially in the administration of the finances, for at least four years, as an accuser unworthy of notice? The very idea is as preposterous as it is novel.

Nor is it open to Mr. Chamberlain to say that he is not called on to reply until he is indicted. That he should unblushingly publish such a plea shows in what an atmosphere he has been living. Things, however, have not reached such a pass at the North, we hope, that a man is not required to meet imputations on his integrity until the Grand Jury finds a true bill against him. There may be no evidence for such a proceeding, and still he may be pronounced unworthy of the confidence of honest men. Like Hall, Chamberlain was the one man of education and social standing in a gang of ordinary corruptionists and defaulters, but seems to have surpassed them in ability far more than Hall did his confederates; and, like Hall, he may have so arranged matters that, though continuing to act with them down to the moment of their fall, no legal proof of his complicity should survive. We do not say that this is the case, but we do say that it is possible. Hall has been acquitted by a jury, but the verdict did not vindicate him, and he finally had to run. Indictment or no indictment, Mr. Chamberlain owes to the public now not simply an answer to his old colleague's confession, but a full explanation of these two facts: (1) That he should have been for years a membe with Scott and Parker of the Financial Board of South Carolina, entrusted with the complete management of the State finances, he being at the same time attorney-general and the highest law-officer of the State, and that during this period the most outrageous frauds and malversations should have been committed by or through such colleagues without his knowledge; or, if with his knowledge, without his exposing and denouncing them, or opening his lips about them; (2) that while he was in this position and the Board thus constituted, a classmate and intimate friend of his, named Kimpton, a young, un-

known, and penniless man from the North, should have turned up, and have been incontinently appointed Financial Agent of the State, and have been entrusted with millions of bonds for sale or hypothecation at the North, without giving one cent of security for the proper discharge of his trust, and all this without Mr. Chamberlain's knowledge or connivance, or, if with his knowledge, without his uttering one word of warning, exposure, or remonstrance to the tax-payers or to the money market.

These are the things that Mr. Chamberlain has to clear up, and it makes no difference whether they are indictable or not. If he was knowingly an accomplice of Scott's, Parker's, or Kimpton's frauds, what are we to say of his character? If shrewd, sharp, able, and a lawyer as he is, he remained in ignorance of his colleagues' character until their frauds had been exposed, like Tweed's, through the very magnitude and recklessness of them, what are we to say of his judgment and capacity? What value are we to put on his savage censures of the President who had brought his career to a close, or on his qualifications as an instructor of Northern opinion about the Southern problem, and of young men in the noble art of pure government? He may rest assured of one thing, and that is that the Northern public is in no mood any longer to permit dishonest men to escape by carrying the negro on their backs.

THE BUSINESS VIEW OF THE PRESIDENT'S ORDER.

IT will be observed by all who examine closely the opposition to the President's civil-service policy that it is substantially the same in character as that with which General Grant's attempts at reform met—that is to say, no persons opposed to civil-service reform in the abstract are to be met with in either case, and the persons who say that the civil service does not need reform are only a handful; the opposition now, as seven years ago, is almost wholly confined to "this particular measure" of reform. Those engaged in it will usually agree with your description of the abuses to be remedied, but the minute you suggest a remedy they dislike and denounce it. They wish, in short, to leave the work of reform to some general agency, involving no individual or immediate responsibility. Some would like to have it done by Providence; others by "public opinion," which is a very favorite instrumentality. They deplore the evil as much as anybody, but its removal, they say, is too big a job for President or Congress; it must be effected by the whole people. Others again would like to have the reform brought about by the general growth of the country in virtue and wisdom. The way to purify the civil service, they say, is to begin by purifying ourselves. When the rest of us are pure the appraisers and gaugers and weighers will be pure too, but no sooner. Let, in short, every man reform his own home and business, and the process of regeneration will soon reach the custom-houses of the land. By any of these methods, it does not matter which, divisions and contentions in the party would be avoided, and the lofty utterances of the Cincinnati platform receive full recognition. It is easy to see, therefore, why there is so much objection to the President's late order. All admit that the political activity of office-holders is an evil, but any particular mode of stopping it is wrong, just as the Curtis-Medill scheme of reform was wrong. This mode of opposition, it must be admitted, is more effective and far better calculated to cozen the public than any general denial of the need of any reform whatever.

The reason why any kind of opposition to civil-service reform produces any effect whatever on the public mind—the reason, in short, why the popular demand for reform is not so loud and imperious as to drown all cavil—is that the abuses have lasted so long that the public has lost sight of the great fundamental principle that government administration is *business*, like the banking business, or insurance business, or dry-goods business. On a man who has not got hold of this principle most of one's talk about the need of reform is apt to be wasted. It is like talking of the need of repentance to a person who does not know or admit that he is a sinner. Once get this into his head, however, and the whole subject is lighted up by it. Not only does he see the need of reform, but the work of reform seems quite simple, and most of the objections to it begin to wear in his eyes a *bouffe* character.

Apply this business principle, for example, to the President's late order forbidding office-holders to take part in the management of caucuses, conventions, and political committees. Remember that the work done by custom-house officers and revenue collectors is essentially the same as that done by bank clerks or dry-goods clerks—the rendering of certain services in the receipt and payment of money, in the fixing of prices or rates, and the keeping of proper books of account. Remember, too, that human nature in the Government service is the same as human nature elsewhere, and needs to be surrounded by precisely the same safeguards against temptation and the same incentives to fidelity and industry; and, though last not least, remember that the laws of morality are as binding with regard to Government money as other money. Now, suppose a great banking house found that its clerks were devoting a great deal of their time to the active management of political contests, were up late at night engineering caucuses, had to get leaves of absence frequently to attend conventions, and were constantly interrupted during the day by visits from brother politicians to "talk things over," and were evidently so absorbed in the game that their regular duties had become a subordinate consideration in their eyes; suppose that under these circumstances the firm were to issue an order stating the facts, and requesting all persons in their employ to abandon active political management, as a condition of their retaining their places—what would the friends of the clerks say to them if they refused obedience, on the ground that it was an attempt to "enslave them," and that a bank clerk who might not manage caucuses was an inferior sort of citizen, and called on the country to rise in their defence? Would they not laugh at them as half-cracked persons? Or what would the firm say if, after the order was issued, the clerks waited on them and pointed out in firm language that the result of this order would be that the party organization would suffer severely, that the people expected their politics to be managed by bank clerks, and that the firm had manifestly "gone too far" and would do well to modify its order in some way? Would the partners not reply that banking was the main or only business of bank clerks; that it was no more their duty to manage politics than that of the men of any other calling; that every man's first duty was the faithful management of his private calling, and that he owed nothing to the public in ordinary times except what he owed in common with other citizens; that the people would assuredly, as soon as they found bank clerks were not to be had, find other means of manning the machine; that at all events they (the firm) owed it to religion and morality and to the country to carry on their business prudently, carefully, and uprightly, and to this end to keep all shiftless, negligent, and distracted persons out of their employ?

How very simple the whole matter seems when approached from this point of view and the head is kept clear of the cant of committee-rooms and political bars. How plain it appears that no compromise over it is possible. Business and politics cannot be mixed up. Any merchant in this city who was known to be conducting his business on the present Government plan—keeping clerks, for instance, for their political activity, or in spite of their distraction by politics—would lose his credit in twenty-four hours. A private concern, carried on as the New York Custom-house has been, would have been bankrupt and execrated ten times over within the last twenty years. The fact that the nation is protected from bankruptcy by the tax-payers, however, in no way changes the moral obligations of those who manage its affairs. The men who administer the Government are as much bound to administer it on business principles as if the pains and penalties of commercial failure were constantly hanging over them, and the chief part of all administration is the selection and management of agents. The churches and lecture-rooms and school-rooms of this and every other town and city in the Union resound through the year with lectures to young men in business, or going into business, on the causes and conditions of success and

failure in life, and language is exhausted in painting the paramount claims of his calling on each man's fidelity and zeal and diligence and integrity. He is to make it, they are told, his chief concern; he is to understand that its honest success is his great contribution to the happiness and purity of society—the thing to which all else is to be subordinated. Yet the Government, which represents the nation in its noblest mood and highest morality, has been setting an example for forty years of flagrant disregard of all these lessons. It has been receiving and disbursing a vast revenue through agents and by methods which would deservedly ruin a private trader in reputation and estate, and when the first attempt is made to remind its officers of their real duty they have the brass to ask whether it means to "enslave them," and how outside work is to be done which, though they have monopolized it, is no more their business than that of anybody else, and the readiness to perform which by the public at large has to be assumed as a condition of the permanence of our present form of government. The question, in short, by which the expediency of the President's late order is to be tested is not, Will this "enslave" the office-holders? or, How will it affect the party? or, Is it consistent with human dignity? or, How will Conkling and Morton feel about it? but, Is it such an order as a prudent merchant would issue under the circumstances?

THE VIRGINIA SPRINGS.

September 13, 1877.

THERE are, perhaps, few better illustrations of the prevailing ignorance of the North about the South than the smallness of the numbers of those here who know anything of the part played by the Virginia Springs in the political and social life of "the States lately in rebellion." The attraction of these Springs to Southerners has been in times past, and is still, largely due to the fact that the South has, properly speaking, no other watering-places. Seaside resorts there are none worth mention from Norfolk down to Mexico, and there are but few points of the long, level, dull, and sandy coast-line which are not more or less unhealthy. Suspicion on this point even hangs around the places in Florida now frequented by Northerners for the sake of the mild winter temperature. But even if the sea-coast were healthy, it is in summer too hot to be attractive, and offers no relief to persons whose livers and kidneys have got out of order in the lowlands. These naturally seek the hills for coolness, and they go to the Sulphur Springs of Virginia because the sulphur waters are very powerful and efficacious in their effects on people afflicted with what the doctors call "hepatic troubles." But then they never would or could have gone from the Southern sea-board to places so far off, if it had not been for the inestimable negro. The extent to which he contributed to the rapid pushing out of the scanty white population of the slave States to the Mississippi has never, I think, received due attention. He robbed pioneering, indeed, at the South of most of the hardship with which it is associated in the Northern mind—I was going to say discomfort as well as hardship, but this would be going too far. To the Southern planter, however, who could go West with a party of stalwart negroes to do the clearing, building, ploughing, and cooking and washing, the wilderness had but few of the terrors it presented to the Northern frontiersman. He was speedily provided with a very tolerable home; not certainly the kind of home which the taste of a man as well off at the North would be satisfied with, but a vastly better one than any new settler in the Northwestern States ever had. The Springs in the Virginia mountains became popular a century ago, and were greatly resorted to in much the same way. They were remote and in the woods, but, owing to slavery, they swarmed from the very first with servants who could not "give notice" if they did not like the place or felt lonesome.

The first accommodation at the Springs consisted of a circle of log-cabins with a dining-hall and ball-room in the centre, and this constitutes the fundamental plan of a spring to this day. There is now always a hotel in which a considerable number of the visitors both sleep and eat, but the bulk of them, or a very large proportion of them, still live in the long rows of one-storied wooden huts, with galleries running along in front of the doors, which are dignified with the name of "cottages," but are in reality simply the log-cabin in the next stage of evolution; and the hotel has taken the place of the original dining and ball-rooms to which all resorted. In looking at the cottages, and thinking of the log-cabins which preceded them, and seeing what rude places they are, one wonders a little how people could ever have been, or can now be, induced to leave comfortable homes for the purpose of spending long summers in them. But this brings up one of the marked characteristics of Southern life, namely, the extent to which nearly all Southern men and women were led in the slavery days to associate comfort not with the trimness and order of Northern or English homes, but with an abundance of service. Well-to-do Northerners used to be surprised, in fact, at the amount of what they would consider discomfort in the way of rude or unfinished surroundings, hard beds, poor fare, want of order of all sorts, which even Southerners in easy circumstances were willing to put up with; but the explanation lay in the fact that Southerners placed their comfort in having plenty of service at command. The ladies had all maids and the men "body servants" wherever they went, and this saved them even on the frontier from a great deal of drudgery and inconvenience. Even a log-cabin is not a bad place to lodge in if you have a valet (who cannot leave you) to dress you, and brush your boots, and wash your clothes, and light your fire, and bring you ice-water and juleps and cocktails, and anything else you happen to think of, and who sleeps comfortably in a blanket across your door. In fact, without this the Virginia Springs could never have become a popular resort until railroads were opened. People used to take twenty days in reaching them from the coast—some in their own carriages with four horses, and a wagon for the baggage and "darkies," and some in stages, sleeping in taverns on the roadside; but nothing could have made this practicable or tolerable but the band of negroes by whom they were always accompanied. This, too, enabled them to make their plans with certainty for staying at the Springs all summer, which they could not have done had they been unable to count on their servants. One gentleman, a Charlestonian, telling me his reminiscences of these long journeys to the Springs in their own carriage, taken with his parents when he was a boy, said his mother was very delicate and her health required it. This at the North would have been a joke, as it would have killed a delicate woman to go into the woods with hired "help" or without any service at all.

Partly owing to the efficacy of the waters, and partly to the absence of other Southern watering-places, the Springs became very early the resort of every Southerner who could afford to leave home in the summer, and they grew in favor owing to the peculiarities of Southern society and the delicate state of Southern relations with the North. In the first place, at the South people know each other, and know about each other, in a way of which the inhabitants of a denser and busier community have little idea. The number of persons in Illinois, or Ohio, or Michigan that a New-Yorker knows anything about, or cares to see for social purposes, is exceedingly small. At the South everybody with the means to travel has relatives, or friends, or acquaintances of longer or shorter standing in nearly every Southern State, whom it is agreeable for him to meet, and he knows that they will probably at some part of the season or other appear at the Springs. They will not go North because the North is far away, is in a certain sense a strange community, and before the war a hostile or critical one. Then, too, the South abounded or abounds with local notables to a degree of which we have no idea at the North, with persons of a certain weight and consequence in their own State or county, and to whom this weight and consequence are so agreeable and important that they cannot bear to part with them when they go on a journey. They could always carry them with them to the Springs. There everybody was sure to know their standing, while if they had gone up North they would be lost in the crowd and be nobodies, and, before the war, have been deprived of the services of their "body servants" or labored under constant anxiety about their security.

The Springs, too, became very early, and are now, a great marrying-place. The "desirable young men, all riding on horses," as the prophet called the Assyrian swells, go there in search of wives, and are pretty sure to find there all the marriageable young women of the South who can be said in any sense to be in society. Widows abound at the Springs just now—by which I mean widows who would not object to trying the chances of matrimony again. I have been told that, since the war, it is not uncommon for families whose means are small to make up a purse to send one attractive youth or maid or forlorn widow to the Springs, in the hope that during the season they may find the unknown soul which is to complete their destiny, somewhat like the "culture" donations made to promising people at the North to enable them to visit Europe. Then, too, to that very large proportion of the population at the South who lead during the rest of the year absolutely solitary lives on plantations, the visit to the Springs gives

the only society of any kind they ever see, and the one chance of showing their clothes and seeing what the other women wear. In short, I do not believe that any one place of summer resort serves so many purposes to any community as the Virginia Springs serve to that of the South, and by the Springs I mean that circle of mineral waters of various kinds which lie round the White Sulphur, and to which the White Sulphur acts as a kind of distributing reservoir of visitors. The White Sulphur itself contains in the season an enormous crowd, and if out of its present bankrupt condition, and in the hands of an enterprising and competent proprietor who knew how to adapt it to the changed condition of Southern society, might be made a most attractive resort, so valuable are the waters and so great the charms of the situation and climate. As to comfort, the only one of the Springs at present which comes up to the Northern standard is the Sweet, or Old Sweet, as it is called. Several of them have not entirely rallied since the war. One, the Salt Sulphur, a beautiful spot formerly frequented solely by South Carolinians—their exclusiveness and somewhat arrogant demeanor driving every one else away—is a scene of utter desolation; the buildings unroofed, the spring degenerating into a puddle, and the whole typifying not inaptly the wreck and ruin which have come on its former guests. It added to the impressive dreariness of the scene to see negro women and children swarming in all the still covered portion of the ruins. Their presence and multiplicity seemed a touch of the irony of fate.

At the White Sulphur, which is the social centre of the Springs, there is a large ball-room and a large parlor, in one of which very young people dance every evening—the girls so young that it seemed to me sometimes as if they must have had their dresses lengthened for the occasion; in the other the older people congregate for talk, and promenade round the room while engaged in it. They all, or nearly all, seem to know each other, and there is usually amongst them a fair sprinkling of Southern celebrities, now mostly military heroes; for the South has of late made but few contributions to civic fame. The intercourse seemed much easier than at Northern watering-places, owing somewhat to Southern facility, but more to everybody's widespread acquaintanceship.

As regards the opinions of the very representative company at the Springs on the subject of slavery, it seemed, as well as I could get at it, to be that about one per cent. of the white people regretted the emancipation; but this was composed almost entirely of old persons, who were unable to accommodate themselves to a new order of things, and to whom it meant the loss of personal attendance—perhaps the greatest inconvenience which elderly persons who have been used to valets and maids can undergo. Many such persons at the South were really killed by the social changes produced by the war, as truly as if they had been struck on the battlefield; the bewildered resignation of the survivors is sometimes touching to witness, and the calamity was generally embittered by the wholesale flight of the most trusted household servants, who it was supposed would have despised freedom even if offered in a gold box by Phillips, Garrison, and Greeley in person. Telling one old gentleman who was mourning over the change that the young men to whom I spoke did not agree with him, but thought it an excellent thing, he replied "that those fellows never had known what domestic comfort was"—meaning that their experience did not run back beyond 1865.

The traditions of the old system are, however, unquestionably a better basis for good hotel-keeping than anything we have at the North. The first condition of excellence in all places of entertainment for man and beast is exactingness on the part of the public. To be well cared for you must expect it and be used to it, and this condition the Southerners fulfil in a much higher degree than we do. They look for more attention, and they therefore get it; and the waiter world, partly from habit, and partly, no doubt, from race temperament, render it with a cheerfulness we are not familiar with here. But the superiority of manners in all classes is very striking. One rarely meets a man on a Virginia road who does not raise or touch his hat, and this not in a servile way either, but simply as politeness. The bearing of the men towards each other generally, too, has the ineffable charm, which Northern manners are so apt to want, of indicating a recognition of the fact that even if you are no better than any other man, you are different, and that your peculiarities are respectable, and that you are entitled to a certain amount of deference for your private tastes and habits. At the North, on the other hand, manners, even as taught to children, are apt to concede nothing except that you have an immortal soul and a middling chance of salvation, and to avoid anything which is likely to lead you to forget that you are simply a human male.

RENAN'S GOSPELS.

I.

Paris, Aug. 22, 1877.

M. ERNEST RENAN has added a fifth volume to his 'History of the Origins of Christianity.' After the 'Life of Jesus,' the 'Apostles,' 'Saint Paul,' the 'Antichrist,' he gives us the 'Evangiles,'* and informs his readers that, as he could not exhaust the difficult subject of the authorship of the Gospels in one volume, the series will therefore include a sixth volume. There is something truly admirable in the serenity of Renan; he continues his researches and his studies as quietly as a Benedictine monk: *impavidum ferient ruinæ*. Not that he is indifferent to the misfortunes of his time and of his country; he has shown in his 'Réforme Intellectuelle et Morale de la France' that he can feel as well as think; but nature has given him a sweet and calm disposition, a great simplicity of heart, and an almost childlike faculty of curiosity, which preserves him from melancholy and sadness. He, besides, discovered long ago that intellectual labor is the great, perhaps the only remedy against acute mental sufferings. The astronomer who studies the movements of a double star is for a while far away from the present; so are the historian and the critic. The traveller, says Boileau, cannot escape his own thoughts:

"Le chagrin monte en croupe et galope avec lui."

Travelling is too easy. The same can hardly be said of Renan's favorite science of exegesis. To all the difficulties of positive science, of grammar, of philology, of history, you must add the peculiar difficulties of what I can only call the science of religions—a science which is almost new, and which tends to discover the laws of the development of religious ideas, of the creation of dogmas, of the embryogeny of myths and their transformations, of the relations between the characters of the various human races and the spontaneous growth of the religious instinct in different directions.

Renan has always been guided since his earliest studies by this fundamental idea, viz., that the Semitic races had a peculiar fitness for religion. His study of the Semitic languages is the corner-stone of all his work. He likes the society of naturalists and of scientific men generally, and it is probably in the society of such men that he has learned to classify everything; he has tried, at any rate, to classify the human races, in point of their religious dispositions and, if I may say so, of their religious affinities. Nothing, in this respect, is more admirable than the contrast which he draws in this new volume between the Roman world, still in possession of the political supremacy, and the embryonic Christian world, still unknown and merged in the despised Jewish community. Let us consider a moment the situation of the Jews after the destruction of the Temple. Nothing was left of their institutions; Pharisaism alone survived the Temple, but Pharisaism had no life—it was the blindest form of obedience to the Law. Israel became more exclusive than ever. Jerusalem was a heap of stones. The Jews spread themselves in the towns and villages which were between the mountains of Judea and the sea. The Christians had been as much surprised as the Jews when the Temple was destroyed; they looked upon this misfortune as the chastisement for the condemnation of Christ. They expected that Christ would soon reappear, and kept faithfully the tradition of his teachings. The nearest disciples called themselves *ebionim* or Ebionites. Christ had said: "Happy are the *ebionim*." There are many passages in the Old Testament where *ebion* represents the saints of Israel, the humble, despised of men, beloved of God. This chosen congregation of the *ebionim* lived in Bashan; their neighbors called them Nazarenes, as it was known that Christ and his family were from Nazareth. All over the East the Christians have to this day been known under this name. These early Christians were not the enemies of the old Law; they celebrated the Sabbath as well as Sunday, and followed all the prescriptions of the Law. Jesus was considered by them as the chosen of God, but as a man; their churches were called synagogues. These churches of Bashan and of Galilee (for the *ebionim* were allowed to return even to Jerusalem after a while) were in constant relations with the Jews. These Nazarenes did not give Christianity its final character, but they had one privilege—they had the true tradition of the words of Christ; and the Gospel was born among them in its definitive form.

* 'Les Evangiles et la Seconde Génération Chrétienne. Par Ernest Renan.' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

This question of the Gospels is the great problem of exegesis :

"While the origin of the fourth Gospel," says Renan, "attributed to St. John, remains enveloped in mystery, in a corresponding degree the hypotheses on the mode of composition of the so-called synoptic Gospels have attained a high degree of probability. There have been, in reality, three sorts of Gospels : 1st, the original or first-hand Gospels, composed solely from oral tradition, and without any anterior text before the author's eyes (in my opinion there were two of this kind, one written in Hebrew, or rather in Syriac, now lost, but many fragments of which have been kept, translated in Greek or in Latin by Clement of Alexandria, Origen, Eusebius, Epiphanius, St. Jerome, etc.; the other in Greek, written by St. Mark) ; 2d, the Gospels which are partly original, partly second-hand, made by combining anterior texts and oral traditions (like the Gospel falsely attributed to the Apostle Matthew, and the Gospel composed by Luke); 3d, the Gospels of second or third-hand, coolly composed by the aid of written documents, and whose authors drew by no living root upon tradition (such was the Gospel of Marcion, and such the Gospels called apocryphal, taken from the canonic Gospels and amplified)."

I have given here the condensed form of Renan's opinion, based on the most complex and elaborate criticism.

The life of Jesus had not been written in his lifetime ; his sayings were confided to the memory of his disciples, and it was only after a while that some of them were written. Many collections of the words of Jesus were made, and these collections became the framework of the Gospels. The biographies came afterwards ; they were made up partly of these sayings, transmitted by tradition and confided to memory, partly of the Messianic prophecies which had to be satisfied. They had something solid and something elastic at the same time ; this pliability explains partly the differences of the various Gospels. The tissue of the life of Christ was composed of all the facts which were in accordance with ancient texts. Such a work was neither personal nor conscious ; the Gospels became, in one sense, the unconscious work of the believers ; they existed before they were written, they were preserved in the heart before they were painted on parchment.

According to M. Renan, the first attempt to delineate completely the life of Jesus was made in Bashan, and the first Gospel was written there in Syro-Chaldaic. The Gospel, though first conceived in a Semitic language, found its perfect form in the Greek language. Only such a language could hold the proper proportion of materialism and spiritualism, could give the proper mould to a purely ideal doctrine :

"The epistles of St. Paul would not have won for Jesus a hundred disciples. What conquered the hearts was the Gospel, that delicious mixture of poetry and of moral sense, that narrative which floats between fantasy and reality, in a paradise where time is not measured. Some allowance must be made in the success of the Gospel for the astonishment caused among our stolid (*lourdes*) races by the strange charm of the Semitic narration, by those clever arrangements of sentences and of speeches, by those conclusions (*chutes*) so happy, so serene, so full of cadence. More was needed, however, in order that the Gospel should become among all nations what it is, the old family book whose worn leaves have been wet with tears and marked with the finger of many generations. The literary fortune of Jesus is explained by Jesus himself. He was, so to speak, the author of his own biography."

The proto-Gospel, written in Syro-Chaldaic, was preserved until the fifth century among the Nazarenes of Syria; it was translated into Greek. All the Fathers of the Church were struck with the resemblance of this Hebraic Gospel to the Gospel of St. Matthew. The Hebraic text disappeared with the destruction of the Judeo-Christians of Syria. The translations were equally lost, and we know it now only by the numerous citations of the Fathers. The characteristic traits of this proto-Gospel were as follows : the virginal birth of Christ was not a part of it ; the supernatural element was, however, very prominent. In this respect especially does it resemble the Gospel of St. Mark. The apparitions of Jesus after the resurrection all take place in Jerusalem ; the Apostle James, of Jerusalem, plays a more important part than in the following Gospels. Jesus makes his first apparition in the house of his brother and for him alone.

The Greek churches received their Gospel from Mark, the disciple of Peter. Mark knew some of the men who saw the drama of the last days of Jesus. He accompanied Peter to Rome, and it was probably in that city that he wrote the pages which became the first Greek Gospel. Peter hardly knew the Greek language, and the Gospel of Mark was written after his death ; still, Peter may be looked upon as the inspirer of this Gospel. As an historical document this Gospel stands first. Peter was dry, narrow, and hard, but realistic and exact.

"It can hardly be denied," says Renan, "that Jesus appears in this Gospel, not as the delicious moralist whom we love but as a terrible magician. The sentiment which he chiefly inspires in those about him is fear ; the terror inspired by his prodigies is such that people beg him to leave their frontiers. It must not be concluded from this that the Gospel of Mark is less historical than the others ; on the contrary. Things which shock us exceedingly were to Christ and his immediate disciples of the first importance. The Roman world was, even more than the Jewish world, the dupe of these illusions. . . . The Gospel of Mark is less a legend than a biography written by a credulous man."

As the Gospels of Matthew and Luke arose from a mere revision of the Gospel of Mark, this last assumes an extraordinary importance. Its characteristic trait is the absence of any genealogy of Christ and of any details regarding his infancy. It was, in all probability, written during the first years of calm which followed the war of Judea, when Mark was hardly more than fifty-five years old. Rome was then, after Syria, the most important centre of Christianity. Renan believes that Peter went to Rome ; the church of this great capital became, so to speak, heir to the Church of Jerusalem. The spirit of traditional authority, of hierarchy, what may be called Judeo-Christianity, soon became dominant in the Church of Rome. Alexandria, Ephesus, Antioch, were not yet great Christian centres.

Vespasian had done his best to repair the evils of the reign of Nero. After him came Titus ; under his mild rule the Christians of Rome lived in peace. Under the Flavian family the Christian communities became almost free ; the relations between the disciples of Christ and the Gentiles were easy, and often friendly. In many cities there were two *episcopi*, one for the Christians of Jewish extraction, the other for the Christians of pagan origin. It was supposed that the second had been instituted by St. Paul, the first by some apostle of Jerusalem. Egypt received the germs of Christianity under the Flavians. A tradition will have it that Mark went to Alexandria ; but the life of Mark is now better known ; he went, as we said before, to Rome, and not to Alexandria.

The great defect of the Gospel of Mark is the abbreviation of the beautiful speeches of Christ. The men who had some knowledge of these speeches from the translations of the Hebraic Gospel naturally were inclined to introduce them into the Greek Gospel. The Gospel of Mark was thus completed and corrected. The author of the Gospel according to St. Matthew took for his basis the Gospel of Mark, followed it, and made interpolations. He introduced the long speeches which gave so much charm to the Hebraic Gospel, and he added also some traditions which were the creations of the times. The Sermon on the Mount was thus added, as well as the reproaches addressed at various times to the Pharisees, and many parables. This work of interpolation was done without much art, and many repetitions are the consequence of this carelessness. The legends which found their way into the new Gospel were the genealogy ; the supernatural birth ; the visit of the Magi ; the flight into Egypt ; the massacre at Bethlehem ; Peter walking on the waters ; his prerogatives ; the suicide of Judas ; Pilate's washing his hands ; the prodigies at the death of Christ ; and a few others. The new Gospel was exquisite, in a literary point of view. "It is," says Renan, "the masterpiece of popular literature, and in one sense the most ancient popular work ever written."

Correspondence.

SOME LIGHT ON CHANCELLOR HAMMOND.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I see that in the last number of your paper you say you would like to have some more information about "that august person," William G. Hammond, "Chancellor of the Law Department of the University of Iowa," who has had so much to say about the charges against Judge Dillon. I think I can give you some.

It is now nearly sixteen years since I was obliged to go to Iowa to look after a claim against an estate in Davenport. I held, in fact, a mortgage upon some premises, which I desired to foreclose. The premises were worth at the time about $1,800, and I had a great deal of difficulty in foreclosing. I was kept in law for nearly two years, had large lawyers' fees to pay, was obliged to give $150 for a quit-claim deed, $260 in taxes, another sum to settle a judgment, and finally found that there was still another judgment apparently outstanding in the possession of Judge Dillon. To make a long story short, I purchased this judgment of the judge to clear my title, and subsequently found that it had at the time been paid in full, and that he had conspired with my lawyers in the matter. From that time to this I have been trying to get a hearing of my charges against Dillon and my lawyers without success. I had been fleeced so thoroughly in Iowa that I did not care

to spend any more money in the matter, but thinking that there must be some way of getting gross professional misconduct punished, I determined to try to get the bar to take some action. (First, I may say that I tried without success for three years to force Judge Dillon to return the money and *erase the judgment from the records*, which would have been an acknowledgment of the swindle.) In 1866 I learnt for the first time that there was a Bar Association in Scott County, before which charges against lawyers for professional misconduct could be brought, and I therefore tried to bring the matter up by making charges against my lawyers, Davison & True. Knowing the widespread fame of the Hon. James Grant (who has taken such a conspicuous part in the defence of Judge Dillon lately), I wrote him, enquiring as to this association. His reply was as follows :

"DAVENPORT, IOWA, Feb. 27, 1867.

"Dr. J. O. WHITNEY, Pawtucket, R. I. :

"DEAR SIR: Your favor of 22d inst. at hand, and contents noted. We have no such organization here among the members of the bar as you refer to; and even if we had, we do not think that we could convince its officers that attorneys of the reputation of Davison & True had acted in such a manner as to merit punishment. They are considered here as gentlemen above reproach.—Yours truly,

"GRANT & SMITH, Attorneys."

I had, however, taken the precaution to write to another firm of Iowa lawyers, and got the following :

"DAVENPORT, IOWA, Mar. 1, 1867.

"JAMES O. WHITNEY, M.D., Pawtucket, R. I.:

"DEAR SIR : Yours of Feb. 25 received this morning. The members of the bar of this county have an organization such as that you refer to, and have power to expel for any violation of its code of ethics. Its regular meetings, however, have been omitted of late. One of our firm belongs to the Board of Censors, and if you have any charges to make against any member of our bar you can present them through us.

"Very respectfully yours,

"PUTNAM & ROGERS."

I again wrote Putnam & Rogers, and they reiterated the fact of the existence of the Bar Association. But knowing the position of Grant as head of the bar and intimate friend of Judge Dillon, and that if he was hostile (and the very existence of a proper court of enquiry was denied by him) it would be utterly impossible to do anything, I waited (although I had no doubt in my own mind that his statement was false) for another opportunity, which only recently occurred. More than a year ago I learned of the establishment of the Iowa State Bar Association, of which William G. Hammond was then the head. Having learnt by my experience that the lawyers of Iowa are much more severe upon misconduct in the abstract than when committed by particular persons, I merely said that I had a case, stated how old it was, and asked whether it would be investigated if charges were preferred. A year ago last month I received the following letter:

"IOWA CITY, IOWA, Aug. 9, 1876.

"DR. JAS. O. WHITNEY, Pawtucket, R. I.:

"DEAR SIR: Yours of 2d inst. is received. There is, of course, no 'Statute of Limitations' or other rule that prevents the Bar Association from taking cognizance of professional misconduct committed so long ago, provided it is of a kind warranting action after so long an interval. If you will send me the names and facts, I will lay them before the proper committee for their opinion on the matter.

"Yours very respectfully,

"WM. G. HAMMOND,

"Pres. Iowa State Bar Association."

On receiving this I felt some exultation. Here at last was the result of all my efforts within sight. In the Chancellor of the Law Department I had discovered a just and fearless man, who would insist on my charges being probed to the bottom. On receipt of his letter I filed my charges against Judge Dillon. I deeply regret to say that this was the very last I heard from the Chancellor for one year. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the charges were never examined at all ; I certainly heard nothing more of them. I have no doubt I never should have heard anything further if it had not been for the noise made by the Iowa Central charges. Seeing these, I thought I might be able to corner the Chancellor, and so, on August 23 of this year, I wrote again, insisting on a reply ; and I did get a reply, dated August 27, in which he says, "As to your charges against Judge Dillon and Mr. Davison I can only say, as I said to you before, that if you have any claim at all against them it is one susceptible of legal proof, and your remedy is in a court of law or equity." (This was the first communication I had had from him on the subject of a remedy.) He then goes on to promise that Judge Dillon shall meet me in court, and that he shall not plead the statute of limitations. Now, as I said before, it is not my intention to take Dillon into court, because as the history of my case is a long one, it would entail great and insupportable expense. Besides this, a verdict in court would be treated as a mere settlement of an ordinary dispute about money ; what I want is that professional misconduct should be professionally punished. I never heard before that the way to secure this was to go to law. But what I wish to call your attention to with regard to Chancellor Hammond is that at the time he was writing this letter to me he was writing another to the *World* (it appeared August 15), in which he says :

"They [the members of the Iowa bar] have a bar association (the first one of the kind formed in this country) to which all the leading lawyers of the State belong, and one of the chief objects of which is to expose and punish every deviation or delay in the administration of justice. No reasonable complaint ever made to the officers of this association has passed without impartial investigation, no matter who might be the party charged, if within their jurisdiction."

Such is the result of a ten years' attempt to secure an investigation from the Iowa bar. I have only one more document to quote, which, like the others above, has never before appeared in print. It is as follows:

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, Aug. 29, 1877.

"DEAR SIR : I am directed by the President to acknowledge the receipt of your favor of the 27th instant in regard to Judge Dillon, and to say in reply that the matter has been referred to the Attorney-General for consideration.

"Very truly yours,

"W. K. ROGERS, Secretary.

"Dr. J. O. WHITNEY, Pawtucket, R. I."

Allow me to say in conclusion that I understand that the Iowa bar has summoned Mr. Cate, of Boston, to present his charges at once. I think those who will attentively read my story will see that investigation into charges of professional misconduct in Iowa may be materially hastened by newspaper "clamor."

Yours respectfully,

JAMES O. WHITNEY, M.D.

PAWTUCKET, R. I., Sept. 15, 1877.

Notes.

FROM and after this week the University of Pennsylvania will, by direction of the Board of Trustees, give instruction to women as well as men in general chemistry, analytical chemistry, physics, and history. Most of these studies are of an advanced character, and no pupil of either sex can be admitted without satisfying the professor in charge that the applicant is fully prepared to profit by the instruction given. The result of this experiment will be watched with much interest.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin will publish this month the 'Royal Academy Album,' edited by L. Jennings, and illustrated with forty photographs "in the highest style of the art" ; also the following illustrated books for children : 'The Chicken Market and Other Fairy Tales,' by Henry Morley ; 'Woodland Romance' ; 'Jungle, Peak, and Plain,' for young sportsmen ; and 'Stories of Girlhood.'——The Inter-State Industrial Exposition at Chicago this year is distinguished from the preceding by a bric-à-brac collection which is thought to be the first of the kind ever made at the West. Visitors to it are provided with a hand-book and catalogue by all odds the best, so far as we are aware, of any ever attempted either at the East or West. The compiler, Mr. E. Stanley Waters, who has also presided over the collection, has not only the requisite zeal and knowledge, but he has been able to draw on private collections in all parts of the country, and for the old furniture upon the treasures of Essex County, Mass. The total number of articles described is 773, and in pottery and porcelain they are very satisfactory representatives of modern work. Mr. Waters announces the arrival in this country of Mr. Bennett, formerly of the Doulton works, who comes to found a pottery similar to that at Lambeth.——B. Westermann & Co. have received No. 18 of Spruner's Historical Hand-Atlas. It contains four maps of the Orient ("Domain of Islam") from the Hegira, A.D. 622, to 1163.——Mr. A. J. Servaas van Rooijen, editor of the *Euphonia*, Utrecht, Netherlands, wishes to see a monument erected on the tomb of the late J. L. Motley ; and in order to gratify "the general interest in the person and works of the celebrated historian" calls for "anything that has been written by and on him," and promises a weekly review in his journal of everything received.——The *Athenæum* states that Herr Weber, of Leipzig, will shortly issue the prospectus of a new universal literary lexicon, not unlike that of Vapereau just completed.

—We have already given some of the fall announcements of our lead-

ing publishers. From the last number of the *Publishers' Weekly* we select the following additional ones: Harper & Bros.: 'Pottery and Porcelain,' by W. C. Prime; 'The Book of Gold, and Other Poems,' by J. T. Trowbridge.——D. Appleton & Co.: 'Pottery and Porcelain,' by Chas. Wyllys Elliott; 'History of Steam and the Steam-Engine,' by Prof. Thurston; 'Elements of Geology,' by Prof. Joseph Le Conte; 'Four Years with General Lee,' by Col. Walter H. Taylor; 'Memoirs of Jefferson Davis,' edited by Maj. W. T. Walthall; 'Synopsis of General History,' by Dr. Samuel Willard; the 'General Index to the American Cyclopædia,' by Dr. Conant; 'Lotos Flowers,' poems by Mrs. Annie C. Ketchum; and the following reprints, viz., Huxley's 'Manual of the Invertebrates,' Darwin's 'Different Forms of Flowers in Plants of the Same Species,' Grant Allen's 'Physiological Æsthetics,' and Dr. Cunningham Geikie's 'History of Christ.'——Henry Holt & Co.: a 'German Dictionary,' by Prof. W. D. Whitney; and Walter Thornbury's 'Life of J. M. W. Turner.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons: 'Money and Legal Tender in the United States,' by Henry R. Linderman, Director of the U. S. Mint; 'Economics, or, the Science of Wealth,' by Prof. J. M. Sturtevant; and 'How Shall the Nation Regain Prosperity?' by David A. Wells.——E. P. Dutton & Co.: Rev. J. Franck Bright's 'English History for the Use of Schools,' and Rev. M. Creighton's 'Historical Biographies.'——Dodd, Mead & Co.: Lubke's 'History of Art,' edited by Clarence Cook from the seventh German edition.——Macmillan & Co.: 'Talks about Art,' by William Hunt; 'The Principles of Science,' by Prof. W. S. Jevons; 'China,' by Archdeacon Gray; and 'Womankind,' by Charlotte M. Yonge.——Pott, Young & Co.: 'Turning Points in Church History,' by Rev. Edw. L. Cutts; and the following juvenile works, viz., 'The Clan of the Cats,' true stories, and Ballantyne's 'Settlers and the Savage' and 'Under the Waves.'——Sheldon & Co.: 'Narrative of a Blockade-Runner,' by Capt. J. Wilkinson.——Geo. Routledge & Sons: 'Art Rambles in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland,' by John T. Reid; illustrated.——Roberts Bros.: 'Memoir and Letters of Charles Sumner,' by Edward L. Pierce; Paul de Musset's 'Biography of Alfred de Musset,' translated by Harriet W. Preston; and Swinburne's 'Later Poems and Ballads.'——Estes & Lauriat: Haydon's 'Correspondence and Table-Talk.'——Lee & Shepard: 'Charlotte von Stein,' by Geo. H. Calvert; 'A Popular History of the United States,' by Charles W. Hall; and 'The Telephone,' by Prof. A. E. Dolbear.——Lockwood, Brooks & Co.: 'Life of Rev. Edward N. Kirk,' and the following juveniles, viz., 'All Around the Palette,' by Mrs. Lizzie W. Champney, and a new version of 'Mother Goose,' by Alice Parkman.——Porter & Coates: 'Dolly,' by Mrs Burnett; and 'Battles of the Republic by Sea and Land,' by Henry W. Harrison.

—A local antiquary of St. John, N. B., Mr. George Stewart, jr., has hastily prepared for publication 'The Story of the Great Fire' of June 20 (Toronto: Belford Bros.; Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) Mr. Stewart was himself one of the early sufferers by the fire, and authorship under these circumstances must have seemed to him quite as much a duty as a commercial opportunity. Few other men in St. John could, on the heels of the almost universal destruction of records, have produced so many historical facts as this narrative contains. The volume is well illustrated with etchings, after photographs, of the burnt district before and after the catastrophe, and a good map leaves nothing to be desired. The lesson of the St. John fire is that it was but one of a series, some of which were relatively almost as disastrous; and that there is no assurance that the series ends here. If it costs too much to put up fire-proof buildings in ordinary times, much more costly is it when the community has been impoverished by a complete burning out. Moreover, St. John is and will long remain a great lumber port; and the tide there will continue to rise and fall twenty-six feet. Mr. Stewart enumerates the previous fires which have done significant injury to the city, and prints a curious subscription paper offering a voluntary loan to the corporation in 1787, to procure two suitable fire-engines from London. Forty-five citizens and firms compose the list, of whom nearly one-half were Loyalists from the United States and furnished considerably more than half the total amount subscribed. Every office-holder mentioned, with possibly one exception—the mayor, the recorder, the attorney-general, the collector of customs, etc.—was a Loyalist. Among them were Dr. Paddock, son of the major who set out the row of elms in Boston that long bore his name; and three graduates of Harvard, including a brother-in-law of Hon. Wm. Gray, a brother-in-law of Fisher Ames, and Judge James Putnam, the eminent lawyer with whom John Adams studied. Benedict Arnold subscribed ten pounds, and it is to be hoped the town got the money. Arnold's store caught fire the very next year, and his former partner charged him with being the incendiary. Such was Arnold's reputation in St. John that on suing his accuser for slander he obtained a verdict of twenty shillings.

—The appearance of yellow fever in Florida lends fresh interest to the question whether that dreadful disease is of necessarily exotic origin or whether it may find in certain parts of the United States the requisite conditions for its production. With the right solution of this question our sea-coast towns are specially concerned. The sense of security which the prevalence of the doctrine of importation has hitherto inspired, perhaps to our great cost, will be rudely disturbed for readers of the July number of the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*. The leading article is an official report to the Surgeon-General by Surgeon Alfred A. Woodhull, U.S.A., on the causes of the yellow-fever epidemic at Savannah last summer. Surgeon Woodhull was at the time of the outbreak stationed at Oglethorpe Barracks, and he began his investigation as soon as practicable and pursued it with all possible diligence, and arrived at perfectly authentic conclusions as to the course of the disease in the earliest known cases. Himself a believer in the importation theory, he was led by the data which he collected to conclude "(1) that there is no evidence of importation of the yellow-fever poison in this epidemic; (2) that, if it was imported, no system of quarantine could have guarded against it; and (3) that the spread and virulence of the epidemic were closely connected with air and soil pollution, whether this pollution be considered as a sufficient explanation of the origin of the disease or not." While it was a very general belief in Savannah that the mischievous agent was the ballast brought in Spanish vessels from Cuba and used for a railway embankment, Surgeon Woodhull shows the baselessness of this opinion, and contends that the open sewer known as the Bilbo Canal was, if not *the* cause, a far more probable cause than any single one that has been suggested. His account of the sanitary conditions of Savannah is of the deepest importance to the inhabitants of that beautiful but ill-regulated city, and is enough to fill even transient visitors with alarm. To go into details of its unpaved streets, defective sewerage, contaminated wells, neglect of garbage, and other filthy practices, would be out of place here; but inasmuch as this recklessness largely arises from confidence in the sandy soil on which the city is built, it may be well (for the benefit of similar foundations) to quote this passage: "Permeable soils like this allow from 60 to 90 per cent. of falling water to penetrate, and also allow effluvia from contained decomposing matter to pass through them for long distances. The cleanliness of sandy places is, therefore, often greater in appearance than in fact; and I believe these characteristics may have an appreciable effect upon the public health." The thoroughness and scientific impartiality of Surgeon Woodhull's report give great weight to his conclusions, and deserve the grateful acknowledgments of a people not accustomed of late to return thanks to U. S. Army officers.

—Nothing in *Harper's* for October is better worth reading than General McClellan's article on the Regular Army of the United States. His argument for maintaining our army (as long as we do not consent to dispense with it altogether) in the highest state of efficiency is not new, but it is timely and well stated, and he illustrates the costliness of parsimonious economy in a very striking manner. He shows from the Modoc, Sioux, and Nez-Percés wars how "too great a reduction of the regular army often results in an increase of the transportation expenses more than sufficient to maintain a much larger number of troops"; and, from the earlier Indian wars and the Mexican and Civil wars, how this reduction prevented our "nipping in the bud difficulties which resulted in long and costly wars, with vast augmentations of the regular force." If General Taylor had reached the Rio Grande with 10,000 instead of 3,000 men; if the Federal force at the first battle of Manassas had had 15,000 regulars instead of less than 2,000, the campaign in either case, General McClellan thinks, would have ended then and there; or, in the case of the rebellion, we should certainly have been enabled to redeem Virginia as Western Virginia had been already redeemed from Confederate occupation. The cost of keeping these 15,000 additional troops from the close of the Mexican war to the outbreak of the rebellion "would not have amounted to one-fiftieth of the war-debts of the General Government, the States, counties, and municipalities." More than that, "the interest at five per cent. upon the debt of the U. S. Government at the close of the war would, according to the cost of the present establishment, support an army of 140,000 men in perpetuity"; and "the amount we have already paid in pensions would have supported 30,000 additional men from the Mexican war to that of secession." General McClellan favors an increase of the regular army to somewhat more than 40,000 men, and enters into the details of its organization, with a view to its most economical enlargement

in time of emergency. He concludes with a pungent communication "from a distinguished officer," who, in 1854, was refused insurance on his life by an English company having a branch in New York, although it insured British officers. The reason for this apparent inconsistency was—"Because, while *we* keep up a force proportioned to the work required, *you* do not. . . . You therefore lose in time of profound peace—that is, while your President says in his messages that you are at peace with all the world—a larger proportion of officers killed than *we* lose in peace and war together." In fact, from 1867 to 1877, out of 291 deaths among army officers on our active list, 41 were killed, or one in seven; and all that time Congress has been cutting down the army; so that, as this officer says, "killing us off at this rate *in a time of profound peace!* and at the same time accusing us of 'idleness and uselessness,' *because* it is peace, is a little too strong."

—In *Lippincott's* for October Mr. Henry James, jr., writes in his well-known manner, in which acute observation and poetic imagination are charmingly combined, about English "Abbeys and Castles." He approaches his subject through a vestibule of considerable length, but not too long, which is an expansion of the *motif*, "If, therefore, one talks of anything beautiful in England, the presumption will be that it is private; and, indeed, such is my admiration of this delightful country that I feel inclined to say that if one talks of anything private the presumption will be that it is beautiful." His illustrations on the present occasion are Stokesay Abbey and Ludlow Castle, and at the latter ruin he is reminded not only that Milton's "Comus" was acted in its great hall, but that its dungeons had also their use. "There is nothing, surely, that paints one side of the Middle Ages more vividly than this fact that fine people lived in the same house with their prisoners, and kept the key in their pocket. Fancy the young ladies of the family working tapestry in their 'bower' with the knowledge that at the bottom of the corkscrew staircase one of their papa's enemies was sitting month after month in mouldy midnight!" Another agreeable article, likewise characteristic of the writer, is Mrs. S. B. Wister's *précis* of Paul de Musset's life of his brother Alfred. She makes a wholesome application to the poet's brilliant but melancholy career of a standard of morality which a brother could not be expected to apply, and which few Frenchmen would apply of their own accord, and her review may be recommended alike to those who have and those who have not read the biography.

—Some time ago (in No. 597) we gave an account, derived from its published circular, of Neophogen College, at Gallatin, Tennessee. It may interest those who remember it to learn that they will find the portrait of Dr. John M. Walton, the president of the college, in the October number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, accompanied by woodcuts of four of the "honor students." They are given as illustrations of an article on "Specimens of Educational Literature," by Prof. F. W. Clarke. The writer has not met anything that surpasses the catalogue of Neophogen, which, indeed, he believes "has no rival; it can never be excelled, and probably will never be equalled." But he furnishes several entertaining extracts from different school circulars; and from a pamphlet issued by a school at Faribault, Minnesota, he selects the following from "about twelve pages" of wise regulations:

"Scholars with any contagious trouble or disease are not allowed in the school till cleaned or till their disease is beyond danger.

"If a snow-storm is up, the teacher takes the privilege to dismiss the school earlier in the afternoon than it otherwise would have been.

"It is not allowed to scholars to jump on or to hang to teams except on the way to or from school, and then only with the permission of the driver.

"Anything belonging to the school-house or to the scholars, broken, torn, or damaged, must be paid or restored by the scholar or scholars who have done it, as well as by those who were accessory to it.

"Where a punishment is in order it will be applied whether a scholar's parents or any visitors are present or not."

—Among the many books and dissertations written or otherwise produced in aid of the celebration of the fourth centenary of the Tübingen University, Aug. 8–11, is a photolithographic reproduction of 'Conradi Pellicani De modo legendi et intelligendi Hebræum,' from a copy recently discovered by Dr. E. Nestle in the British Museum. This was the first Hebrew grammar written by a Christian, and also the first book printed with Hebrew type in Germany. Several bibliographical facts of interest in relation to it we condense from the *Academy*. Heretofore bibliographers of Hebrew grammar have always described it as published in Basle in 1503, but nobody appears to have seen it; and, indeed, Bresch, in his 'Esquisse Biographique sur Conrad Pellican,' in 1870, and Dr. Ludwig Geiger, in the *Jahrbücher für Deutsche Theologie*, last year, argued conclusively that the work had never been printed at all. Now, however, that it has been at last discovered, it is ascertained that it was not a separate work, but formed part of the famous 'Margaritha philosophica' of Gregorius Reisch, the encyclopædia of the sixteenth century, and, indeed, is to be found in only one of the many editions of this work, namely, that printed at Strassburg, by Grüninger, in 1504. Its discovery has also solved another bibliographical riddle. Two other books of Pellican have been mentioned by bibliographers—viz., 'Grammatica Hebraica' and 'Dictionarium Hebraicum,' each with the ascribed date of 1540, although Wolf and Geiger both confessed that they had never seen them. There was good reason for this confession, for it now appears that the three works, 'De modo,' 'Grammatica,' and 'Dictionarium,' are identical. The misprint of 1540 for 1504 passed without discovery for nearly two centuries, and the error with regard to the date and place of publication of the 'De modo' (Basle, 1503) proceeded from a Swedish traveller of the last century, who saw a copy of it in the library of the Benedictines, at Cologne, and mistook the date of Pellican's dedicatory letter for the date and place of publication. The grammar covers 39 quarto pages and includes two wood-cuts, one representing the bringing of the alphabet to the Hebrews by Moses, to the Greeks by Cadmus, and to the Latins by Nicostrata, the wife of Evander; the other, Isaiah sitting at a desk and waiting for inspiration. The selling price of the reproduction, in Germany, is five marks, and only ninety copies are for sale.

RECENT NOVELS.*

THE number of readable American novels appearing within the last few years is certainly worthy of note. Most of them are published anonymously in a "Series," which is the prevailing form of temptation set before the novel-reader, and each story has its following of warm admirers who for ever leave the author far behind in their untiring analysis of the characters. Why was Mercy Philbrick a widow? Was she morbid? If so, to what extent? Was her lover manly or weak? Such are some of the matters anxiously debated by readers who can ask more questions in five minutes than the author, who is fortunately unknown, could answer in as many hours. This shows that the public looks with kindly feelings on these beginners, as many of them are, and certainly after so much dreary fiction as has been thrown upon the market, little tales like 'One Summer,' 'Kismet,' etc., deserve generous treatment. A new candidate for favor is the opening volume of the "Wayside Series," 'Nimport.' In many ways this belongs to the better class of light stories, and it is quite as entertaining as those which with time have decidedly won success. It is the record of a family who lose their money at their father's death. One girl goes off to be a governess, another stays at home with her brother; and their adventures make up the story, or at least they would make up a very readable story if all sorts of superfluous tragedy had not been lugged in. It would seem as if the scheme at first consisted of the career of the governess alone, which is the choicest part, and that in order to swell a moderate-sized novel into a bulkier form the other part had been written to order. Why else so much unnecessary material was added it is hard to see. One little boy is brought in, and then is pushed out of the story so violently that his skull is fractured and he dies; at least there is no other explanation of the accident. There is one member of the family, a brother Philip, who goes out West and dies in a hospital at Chicago; the hero, who writes in the first person, hastens thither to be with him in his last hours, but arrives too late, and that is all. It makes no perceptible difference to the rest of the family, and the reader certainly had never received any strong impression of Philip's being alive. Towards the end of the book new and superfluous characters are introduced in great numbers, and although this may be the extravagance of a beginner who, so to speak, puts all his eggs in one basket, and wastes the observations of years and material for a shelf-full in a single volume, it also suggests padding. But where this fault does not exist the book is full of cleverness. The way the governess describes the Bligh family is as bright as could be desired, and there is much else that is decidedly entertaining. The episode of Aunt Bangs, for instance, could not be improved upon. The humor throughout is natural and easy; the people are described as a clever woman sees them. In a word, it must be said that the author has certainly shown considerable ability in writing this readable novel.

But not all the new American novels are as good as this one. 'Her Lovers,' for instance, has the advantage of a name which one might think

* 'Nimport.' Wayside Stories. Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1877.
'Her Lovers: A Romance. By Sue Harry Claggett.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

had been copyrighted long ago ; but here its merits cease. The heroine is carefully studied, to be sure, and is in some respects a life-like flirt ; but her manners and those of her facetious rival, Carlotta, are not deserving of praise, nor yet of record. Carlotta, a young girl whose "complexion had evidently owed its comparative beauty to the liberal and artistic use of cosmetics," talks in this way to the heroine, before their acquaintance is twenty-four hours old : "Don't I masquerade every evening in a false complexion and false hair ? So would you, for that matter, if you needed to. Every woman of sense is an actress. It takes hard labor to learn the tricks, but when you have them, ah ! then the guile is worth the while. Why, my natural, merry, fascinating laugh cost me three years' toil," etc., etc. They are all a distasteful set, with their chatter about their "beaux," who say, "Yes, miss," and "No, miss," and their coarse flirtations. As for the heroine's final adventure in the garden, whether it was "mesmeric influence" or "unconscious cerebration," as the physician suggested, or downright foolishness, the less said about it the better. And surely life is too short for much of it to be wasted over one young man, whose "articulation was measured and deliberate, but he never hesitated an instant for a word that pointedly expressed his meaning, and by the intense energy of his manner he seemed at times to fill the whole room with his presence," and over the other noisy people whose words and deeds fill this book.

'Other People's Children' continues the story of those ill-bred young people whose "impertinence" is immortalized in the pages of 'Helen's Babies.' It is almost proverbial that other people's children are badly brought up, but it would be hard to find any worse instances of parental neglect than the infantile heroes of this childish book. They are represented as staying with a newly-married uncle and aunt, during a period of domestic anarchy at home consequent upon the birth of a sister, and their wild revels are narrated at great length and with considerable glee by the accomplished author. As to punishment for their evil behavior, it never seems to occur to any one that it is possible or desirable. They are as impudent as only ill-bred children can be, and with perfect impunity, as if it were desirable under the new dispensation to treat children like responsible beings, whose assured position forbade the interference of their elders. The only thing left would seem to be to give them the right of voting in all elections. The duty of parents is much simplified ; it is only necessary for them to provide their children with a roof over their heads, parlor furniture to break, and with food at all moments that it is called for, and to endure their sallies of wit with cheerful martyrdom. But there is an old saying of a wise man : "Spare the rod and spoil the child" ; and although this has doubtless been the excuse for a great deal of brutality, certainly the kindness which is glorified in this book is of the sort that kills.

There will be some readers who cannot fail to be more or less displeased by the freedom with which the children in Mr. Habberton's books prattle about religious matters. Their puzzling questions are very natural, and the feeling of dissatisfaction may be mere squeamishness, but any one who does object to what may be considered facetious irreverence will find frequent cause of offence. The same criticism may be made on his 'Scripture Club of Valley Rest ; or, Everybody's Neighbors.' Here we find recorded the history of a club formed in the suburbs of a large Western city for the purpose of discussing Biblical texts. The members begin with the Sermon on the Mount, and indulge in various forms of crude theological discussion, varied by that singular public confession of sin which is the habit of those who are loudest in denouncing the same thing when privately done. The exact measure of ridicule poured out upon these men it is not easy to determine, nor yet whether the author is trying to condemn the habit which laymen have of carrying on independent discussion about matters which spiritual teachers may think belong to themselves alone, nor yet, finally, whether this is a serious report of pious conversations ; in which case it does not seem in the best taste. A book that does not give the reader any notion of the motive which prompted it cannot be considered a perfect success, although of course this may be the reader's fault.

It is possibly a violent use of language to call so slight a sketch as 'Brief Honors' a romance. The book is called a 'Romance of the Great Dividable,' the Great Dividable being an imaginary life-insurance company ; and the public is treated to an account of the pitfall which those huge corporations have been preparing for their victims by means of the devices which have recently made the newspapers such painful reading for so many worthy and dependent people. The hero comes to New York in search of occupation, and is quickly given the position of chief auditor of the 'Great Dividable,' but by means of a good deal of encouragement from his friends he manages to be honest ; and being averse to muddling the accounts entrusted to him, the president of the company has no further use for him, and he receives his discharge. A rich merchant is charmed by him, and gives him another and better place. A simple love-story runs along by the side of this narrative, and a more guileless romance than that which treats of William Morgan's impassioned love for Juliette Ramsey, its swift decadence, and his prompt devotion to Lucy Wilting, was probably never written. It should be said in his praise, however, that the author draws a fair caricature of an overbearing business-man in the president of the insurance company. This story will prove but a meagre sop to the devourers of fiction, but falls into line very well with Mr. Habberton's tales.

It would be only too easy to turn 'Blue Blood' to ridicule. There is hardly a page of the eight hundred and twenty-two that compose the book from which some instance of almost incredible inaccuracy, or affectation, or unnatural writing cannot be taken. The characters often talk as if they were intending to apply for the position of hero in the stories of the illustrated weekly papers. The French and Italian quotations that frequently ornament the pages are quite as bad as the English in which the book is written. The proof-reading was apparently done by a child of three, if done at all. Here is a specimen of life-like conversation :

"'My dear Claude,' said his wife, leaning upon his arm, and fixing the idolatory (*sic*) of her blue eyes, swimming in tears, upon his face, 'My dear Claude, with you by my side, my taste for the beautiful in art and nature returns. Your presence is like a golden dawn, which gilds and permeates every object with its glory. Without you, Claude, the master-pieces Raphael, Titian, or Angelo are meaningless and lack-lustred,'" etc., etc.

And yet, in spite of every literary fault which can arise from ignorance, carelessness, and the following of bad models, the author is so much in earnest, and so full of his subject, that his enthusiasm "gilds and permeates every object with its glory," and makes the book not only readable but interesting. The story is really nothing more nor less than a recital of the horrors of slavery, with various instances of the cruelty of masters and the sufferings of the blacks. The Southerners are, many of them, caricatures, and the slaves themselves are at times the creatures of a melodramatic imagination ; but there is still enough truth hidden beneath these strange disguises to make even a middle-aged reader wonder that such things could have been possible only twenty years ago. A good part of the story is laid in the North, which fortunately is not held up as the home of every virtue in antithesis to the faults of the South. The hypocrisy which some keen-eyed people have fancied they have detected in New England, the former general deference of Northerners to the wishes of the slave-owners, the popular detestation of abolitionists, are all clearly set forth in this story, so that the reader gets a tolerably exact impression of the condition of things before the war. If the writer's success is almost in spite of himself, it is because he had the advantage of speaking from a full heart as well as from a full knowledge.

'Gretchen's Joys and Sorrows' were, for the most part, such as are not recorded in fashionable novels. Her sorrows were, in good measure, the result of her not knowing the use of sponge, soap, etc., and so having to be taught them by a careful aunt. When she had acquired these important rudiments of education she went into the gay world and was married. It is interesting to observe that the author, a German lady, throws the weight of her authority in favor of helping one's self to salt with a knife. It should be said in justice, however, that the only other alternative suggested was the employment of the human hand. The translation cannot be commended. The title of Kotzebue's play, "Der gerade Weg der beste," is not properly given in English by "The Right Way is the Best," and elsewhere we find too literal rendering of the German idiom. Those who are casting about for a book on etiquette will probably be delighted with this one, which should have elements of popularity, for it is translated from the eighth German edition.

'Other People's Children ; containing a veracious account of the management of Helen's Babies by a lady who knew just how the children of other people should be trained ; also a statement of the exact measure of success obtained. By the author of 'Helen's Babies.'' New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

'The Scripture Club of Valley Rest ; or, Sketches of Everybody's Neighbors. By the author of 'The Barton Experiment,' 'Helen's Babies,' etc.' New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

'Brief Honors : A Romance of the Great Dividable.' Chicago : Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1877.

'Blue Blood ; or, White May and Black June. By Leon Dande.' Boston : Henry L. Shepard & Co. 1877.

'Gretchen's Joys and Sorrows. Translated from the German of Clementine Helm. By Helen M. Dunbar Slade.' Boston : A. Williams & Co. Plymouth : Avery, Doten & Co. 1877.

Gail Hamilton has for a long time so dexterously embroidered with fiction the facts she has undertaken to write about that it cannot surprise any one that she should at last follow her true bent and give the world a novel. 'First Love is Best' is the sentimental title, and this thesis is established by the record of the life of a young girl who, after being disappointed by finding one betrothed lover worthless, marries a much better man, and in time learns to love him. The whole story is told with considerable skill and, of course, with abundant humor. Fortunately, the author has omitted all reference to politics, except so far as in the bitterness of her heart she speaks of the degradation into which the bad lover fell when he had "leisure for the cultivation of his mind and the acquisition of liberal, unpartisan views, in which he was so successful that in any emergency he could always be relied on for deploring and even denouncing the savagery of American manners, the poverty of American literature, and the corruption of American politics, and so became a valuable member of society." Indeed, it is surprising to see how a writer whose shrewishness—if we may be allowed the term—has become notorious, should be able to write a story so full of good-humored satire and real sentiment. It is, of course, not a great novel, but it is bright and readable, and proves that this author is much better qualified to write about imaginary than about real people.

'Olivia Raleigh' is a pleasing, innocent tale, of which the scene is laid in England. It is light, and can be read through in half an hour, but it cannot fail to leave an agreeable impression. This is but little to say about a book, but it is more than nine-tenths of the novels published deserve, and applies with justice to this story, which is neither remarkably clever nor by any means thrilling.

'Vineta' is a translation from the German, and is entertaining, although not free, in the drawing of the characters, from the exaggeration which is so often to be noticed in novels written by German authors. The story deals with the Polish revolution of 1863, with no intention, however, of contributing to modern history. The intriguing of conspirators is only dwelt on so far as it has to do with the more interesting complications going on within the breasts of the distracted young men and young women. It should be said in praise of 'Vineta' that it has little of the meagreness which so frequently mars the fiction of other than English and French novels. Let almost any of the better class of English novels which are reprinted in this country be compared with, not the best, but some of the ordinary run of American novels, such as the majority of those mentioned above, and the difference at once becomes clear. The English novels have something which corresponds to perspective, they are full of life; the characters, though often petty, have a certain rotundity and many-sidedness which differs from the single quality impressed upon the heroes and heroines of less skilful authors. In German novels of the poorer sort this deficiency is even more noticeable.

Mr. Cooke's novel, 'Canolles,' is a readable contribution to both fiction and what may be called Centennial literature. It describes the fortunes of a freebooter in the Revolutionary war, bringing in a number of historical characters who seem generally life-like, and with no lack of incident. The hypercritical reader will perhaps object to the frequency with which his sympathies are racked by an impending execution at sunrise the next morning, but he will have to ascribe this frequency to the fortune of war, and there is enough fighting and love-making to atone for whatever defects the book may have. It is a good, old-fashioned novel, without the subtleties of the modern novel, but telling its story with commendable distinctness and simplicity.

ALLEN'S PHYSIOLOGICAL ÆSTHETICS.*

IF a tramp exhausted with hunger, cold, fatigue, and wet be brought into a comfortable room, set before a warm fire in a luxurious arm-chair, and furnished with beer and soup, roast beef, pudding, and coffee, and then asked *why* he enjoys so much all these gifts, he will probably reply that his enjoyment is due to his feeling that they are doing him so much good—the beer goes to "the right spot," the warmth is life-restoring, the beef fills "an aching void," the coffee smoothes the wrinkles from the mind, and the cushioned seat permits the stiff joints and weary muscles to rejuvenate themselves. If, however, a young woman eating candy be asked why she enjoys that, she can give no such utilitarian reason, but must content herself with the pleasure of the taste as an ultimate good, she knows not why. Finally, if the reader be asked to explain his admiration for a Beethoven symphony or a design by Michel Angelo, he will find it even harder to reply. But probably his answer will in every case include as one of its ingredients a reference to an ideal of objective perfection of some sort. The particular work of genius awakens in us a pungent glimpse of this ideal—it "sweetly torments us with invitations to its inaccessible home"; and under the influence of this quickened apprehension we judge the work to have an affinity or consanguinity with the perfection it suggests. In a word, our feeling seems to involve a sort of objective cognition different from the mere subjective satisfaction which sugar gives to the tongue.

Mr. Grant Allen attempts to give the same utilitarian answer to all three of these cases which our tramp gave to the first one. We like Michel Angelo's work better than John Tenniel's, because the nutrition of our visual apparatus is furthered by the former and injured by the latter. Destructive or disintegrative changes in sentient tissues cause pain, as in wounds and bruises; changes less destructive, but in which waste still predominates over repair, cause displeasure; whilst changes in which the nerve wastes neither more nor less than enough to enhance the concomitant or subsequent process of repair, produce pleasure in all its various degrees and kinds. Pleasure is thus the subjective concomitant of "the maximum of stimulation with the minimum of fatigue or waste"; and when the nerve processes involved are not directly connected with the vital functions, we call the pleasure æsthetic. But as all these differences shade into one another, so useful and agreeable, pernicious and unpleasant, delight and pain, are words merely of degree, and the common ground of fact to which they all relate, the only "truth" to which they really testify, is the state of nutritive prosperity of the nerves.

Mr. Allen thinks that the "enthusiastic" feelings of the "worshipper of art" will be shocked by such a simplification. It need not shock him, we think; for if once admitted *in limine* that all consciousness whatever is attached to some form of nerve process, and yet that the form of the consciousness in hardly any degree repeats or reveals the form of the process (if it did, our sole intellectual capital to-day would be an intimate knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of the brain); if, we say, this be once for all admitted, all truths must stand or fall alike, as far as this nerve-forum is concerned. Mr. Allen's science and Mr. Ruskin's enthusiasm both owe their utterance to certain cerebral events, but they both *treat* of something different from these. The ethical delight of the latter in Turner's "Slave Ship" seems alien to the fact that that picture benefits peculiarly the nutrition of his nerves. But no less alien is one of Mr. Allen's theories (that, for example, of Dissonance being due to the too quick re-excitement of hardly-rested nerve-fibres by "beats") to the particular processes among his cerebral convolutions which go on as he excogitates it. The philosophy of the future must clear up these paradoxes, and we, while patiently waiting the solution, ought to be glad of any partial contribution like the present, which, by emphasizing a single difficulty, may suggest thoughts which will accelerate the comprehension of the whole.

The main principle of the work is that of Spencer: Since what feels pleasant will be pursued by the animal, those animals in whom beneficial things are pleasant will survive, those in whom pleasure is attached to detrimental experiences will die out. If an apple is wholesome food, a fondness for apples is clearly a desirable idiosyncrasy. And since the same apple in the environment may affect nose, eye, and tongue as well as stomach, it follows also, from the necessity of functional harmony between these organs, that the most perfect animal will be the one in whom the pleasantness of the fruit to the premonitory senses is best proportioned to its beneficence to the tissues in general. Accordingly we, descendants of frugivorous apes, find that our optic nerves have been so "selected" as to be more excited by the red of the apple than by any other color, our nose flattered by its perfume, our palate by its sweetness; and all this comes from a consensus between them and the alimentary canal growing up in the course of generations through the weeding out of creatures whose ocular and lingual interests happened *not* to lie in the line of their gastric advantage.

In a word, we have three stages of æsthetic development. First, vital organs have pleasures connected with their due functions (rather pains with their disturbance); second, accessory organs have their tissues so selected that the very objects which most benefit the vital functions produce also in them the maximum of benefit with its concomitant pleasure;

'First Love is Best: A Sentimental Sketch. By Gail Hamilton.' Cobweb Series of Fiction. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1877.

'Olivia Raleigh. By W. W. Follett Synge.' The Star Series. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

'Vineta, the Phantom City. From the German of E. Werner, author of 'Good Luck,' 'Broken Chains,' etc. By Frances E. Shaw.' Cobweb Series of Fiction. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1877.

'Canolles. The Fortunes of a Partisan of '81. By John Esten Cooke.' Detroit: E. B. Smith & Co. 1877.

* 'Physiological Æsthetics. By Grant Allen, B.A.' London: Henry S. King & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1877.

and thirdly, these pleasures of eye, ear, brain, etc., may be incidentally aroused by facts of the environment (such as works of art) with which the vital functions have no concern. Finally, in every case the immediate physical condition of the pleasure is, as stated previously, the "stimulation" of the nerves of the organ with the minimum of waste.

Long ago, in his 'Medical Psychology,' the subtle Lotze elaborated a theory which, barring the element of natural selection, was almost identical with this. He too, like Mr. Allen, rebutted the obvious objections drawn from noxious pleasures (*e.g.*, the sweetness of sugar of lead) by falling back on the imperfect consensus of the organs with each other. The lead salt is beneficial to the tongue it is true, but its other properties are destructive to the stomach, etc., and the unison of tongue and stomach is only yet complete so far as the ordinary facts of the environment are concerned. We are not yet "adapted" to such unnatural minerals as sugar of lead. Vegetable bitters, however, are frequent in the environment, and in large quantities always noxious. The glossopharyngeal nerve has been expressly selected therefore, so as by its premonitory repugnance to the bitter to warn the animal against swallowing the poison-stuff. To the benefits of bitters, etc., in disease, the reply may be made that the *consensus* has only been elaborated for healthy states, and that the pleasure and pain may fail egregiously to be sign-posts when the workings of the organism wander far from the standard paths. In like manner the painlessness of scooping out the brain, the insensibility to cutting, etc., of the liver and intestines when freshly laid bare are explicable by the fact that nature has protected these organs, not by giving them the warning cry of pain to awaken the vigilance of their possessor, but by shielding them from harm by skull and flesh and hide. There has therefore grown up no "correspondence" between their danger and their sentient life.

The pleasures of smoothness to the touch, of harmony to the ear, of complementary colors to the eye are all explained by Mr. Allen by the balance between function and waste, on the one hand, and rest and repair, on the other. The composite æsthetic pleasures of art proper are mainly explained in Spencerian fashion to be *sums* of the simple pleasant feelings. In much of this detail we think the author has been far from happy. He has taken advantage of the fact that we have no objective test of "stimulation" or repair, and of the vagueness of the former term, to assume that wherever we have pleasure, there we have improved nutrition. He has in doing this made a series of hypotheses (*e.g.*, that stinks immediately disintegrate the olfactory nerve) which are not only highly improbable, but mutually inconsistent. His explanation of dissonance, for example, is incompatible not only with his explanation of chromatic harmony, but with the fundamental law of hearing. His account of "grittiness" and smoothness, in taste and touch, is not only absolutely wanting in anything like physiological precision, but is æsthetically untrue. For although we may sensually more enjoy an absolute smoothness, we æsthetically approve more a granulated sensation, or one with an element of tickle in it. The flowing of water over the skin is lower than the feeling of velvet or fur, just as blanc-mange is lower than strawberries, and maple syrup than maple sugar. The flickering of lights, or of the view as we pass a paling fence, is disagreeable surely not because of the greater waste of nerve—on the contrary, the nerve wastes less—but because of the baffling of the attention. It irritates as much as does a magic-lantern view out of focus. In general we may say that the author has far too much neglected this co-operation of the intellect in all our pleasure-experiences. The pleasure seems often to depend on the way in which one existing feeling is affected by another existing feeling, and to be itself a third feeling conditioned simply by the form of this affection. Though in the last analysis this may be a phenomenon of mere amount of waste, we cannot yet "scientifically" call it so, so long as we know nothing of its particulars. Mr. Allen's omission of tickling, of the comical, of the bliss of incipient anæsthesia, of various intoxicants, of the pleasures of a slow crescendo simply as such, and of mere distinctness ; of the intensely disagreeable shock of suddenly interrupting any sensation, or any voluntary or habitual tendency to motion ; his neglect to consider the effects of habituation in blunting some enjoyments and in increasing others, of acquired tastes, etc., are all grave shortcomings in a book of such pretensions.

In short, we may say that his intention is better than his performance. In trying to make one single principle do duty for the explanation of every possible case, he has fallen into the vice which is the curse of the Spencerian school—the vice of an illusory simplicity gained only by leaving out essential data, by masking incoherence with vagueness, and by sedulously deducing results in so airy and superficial a style as not to lay bare the fatal want of scientific precision in fundamental principles. The real hope of psychology to-day lies in true monographic work, in essays to determine by the minute analysis of phenomena the precise limits of particular principles of explanation. Its bane lies in the pretence to make one or two principles pass for omnipotent, by using them in a vague, slap-dash, showy way. But Mr. Allen is precision itself compared with Spencer. He is, moreover, so well-read a man, his style is so clear and strong and flexible, his wealth of illustration so exuberant, and many of his special suggestions so ingenious, that we cannot but express the hope that after this first flight he will settle down to some more limited and exact investigation, and end by becoming one of our best psychologists.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 1877.

The Week.

THE President, in his address to the colored people at Atlanta, told them that, after reflecting upon it, "he thought their rights and interests would be safer if the great mass of intelligent white men were let alone by the general Government," which called forth immense applause. He said to them, also, that we had been trying this experiment for six months, "and in his opinion for no six months since the war had there been so few outrages and invasions of their rights, nor had they been so secure in their rights, persons, and homes as in the last six months." We suppose this is strictly true, but one cannot help wondering what the eminent men who conducted the last campaign on the "bloody-shirt" cry think about it—the Wheelers, Daweses, Chandlers, Blaines, Mortons, Tafts, and the like. The dilemma presented to these estimable statesmen is a very disagreeable one. If President Hayes is wrong in all this, they were, when recommending him to the American people as a "bloody-shirt" candidate, either guilty of gross fraud or the victims of a very sorry bit of imposture. In either case it does seem as if that familiar place of repose, "the back seat in the rear car," was now all they could claim from a grossly humbugged but indulgent public.

The Massachusetts Republicans have adopted a platform which, as regards five vital subjects—the President's course on Southern affairs, civil-service reform, subsidies, resumption, and the currency—satisfies the most exacting requirements. They "cordially approve the spirit and measures of the Administration as wisely adopted to hasten" the final and permanent pacification of the Southern section of our country; heartily endorse the President's recent order to office-holders, and upon the subject of civil-service reform in general adopt a long resolution specifying the methods by which it should be "persistently and resolutely carried forward," and calling upon all departments of the Government "to give the President their cordial and effective support in making the reform thorough and radical and complete." Their language is no less decisive upon resumption and the currency, for they "insist upon the adoption of all measures necessary to ensure resumption on a day not later than that now fixed by law," and affirm "the duty of the Government to maintain its coin and currency at all times at par with the gold standard of the commercial world." Money and land grants, as subsidies to private corporations, are firmly opposed, the assertion being made that in such grants Congress "has already passed a reasonable limit." The remaining resolutions are either of local application or less definite in purpose, but they agree with the Democrats in calling for the reformation and revision of Massachusetts' tax-laws. Governor Rice was renominated, though not without considerable opposition; and the chances of his election, which have without doubt been greatly increased by the excellence of the platform, will depend considerably upon the votes retained by the party from Judge Pitman, the candidate of the prohibitionists, and Mr. Phillips, who has been nominated by the labor-reformers.

The resolutions of the Maryland Republicans, at their State Convention Thursday week, upon the Southern "policy," the currency, and resumption, were as excellent as those of their fellows in Massachusetts, and their "labor" plank was an outspoken declaration in favor of law and order. Very decided resolutions were adopted also on various subjects of State importance. The platform of the New Jersey Democrats is extremely "thin," advising only a revision and reform of the usury laws, a reduction of official salaries, and "the enactment of such legislation as will enable us to collect statistical information relating to the interests of labor and capital, with a view to harmonize these interests and place our industries upon a more permanent and scientific basis." The Republicans have nominated ex-Governor Newell on a platform containing a moderate approval of Mr. Hayes's course, expressing much disgust at Democratic rule in the State, and pledged to speedy resumption, a gold standard, protective tariff, no further grants of land to corporations, a six per cent. usury law, and non-interference of religious sects in civil affairs.

The New Jersey Democrats, apparently owing to the failure of a number of bad characters to spend money in the Convention either with sufficient freedom or sufficient judgment, have nominated General McClellan for the Governorship, and he has consented to stand as their candidate. He doubtless owes this, in some degree, to the process of reconciliation. Now that people are trying to drown the animosities of the war, the general who made war with least vigor somehow rises in reputation. Then, too, he has always managed to retain a great deal of popularity with the rank and file of the first year of the struggle, and would have more if he had not been made Engineer of the New York Dock Department by the New York city government—a position in which he drew a very large salary and produced very little results. It is not likely that the candidate of the New Jersey Republicans will beat him, and his somewhat checkered career will have another distinction added to it, which he, perhaps, expected as little as he expected the command of the army in 1862. It is to be hoped, however, he will not be presented to the State, as he was in 1864 to the country, as a martyr in need of rehabilitation.

Mr. Thurman has made a speech at Marion, Ohio—the first in a long time. He once more asserted the claims of S. J. Tilden to the Presidency; condemned the Electoral Commission for refusing to hear evidence of some kind—it does not clearly appear what, from the report—as to the returns in Louisiana and Florida, and warned the people of the danger of a recurrence of such disputes. He said that Hayes's policy at the South was what he (Thurman) had been struggling for for years; castigated the Republicans for extravagance and corruption, which he said could not be cured without a total change of administration, and the putting in all the offices, high and low, new men who would have no interest in covering things up. This is, and always will be, a strong argument with the "outs" against permanency in the civil service. They will always say that you must have a "new deal" in order to discover the villanies of the party last in power, and the only way to meet it is to make appointments which have no partisan taint, and put the execution of the reforms into hands which have had no connection with the abuses. Mr. Thurman wound up with the customary eulogy on silver as the money of our fathers.

A suspicious letter from ex-Governor Chamberlain to Parker, once Treasurer of South Carolina, afterwards a jail-bird, and now leader of the temperance cause in Jersey City, has been going the rounds of the press. In it Mr. Chamberlain asks Parker the significant question, "Do the commissions foot up pretty well?" Precisely what this refers to, however, is as yet only matter of conjecture, although the letter is one which Parker sold to Dunn (Comptroller-General, now under indictment), and the reading of which was threatened at last year's Republican State Convention. But the *Sun* has made public a letter, which Mr. Chamberlain has since admitted may be genuine, which can leave no doubt in any candid mind of his true relations to the knaves with whom he was so long intimate, and which, so far as it goes, fully confirms Parker's testimony with regard to him. The tone of this letter, which i addressed to Kimpton, and which we regret we cannot quote in full,

closely resembles that of a "pal" to one of his confederates. Its chief matter is the details of a plan to buy up the Greenville & Columbia Railroad, then heavily mortgaged to, and partly owned by, the State, put a heavy mortgage upon it and then sell out the bonds. The profit of this transaction Chamberlain estimated would be "immense, over $2,000,000," adding, "There is a *mint* of money in this—or I am a fool." As matter of fact, a considerable part of this plan was subsequently carried out, the plunder (if there was any—Chamberlain declares that the speculation was a losing one) being shared by Kimpton, Cardoza, Parker, Waterman, Neagle, Hurley, and Patterson. At the date of the letter Chamberlain was Attorney-General of the State, and peculiarly, therefore, the defender of its interests. We shall probably return to this subject again.

The examination of Tweed before a committee of the Board of Aldermen was continued last Friday, but the revelations made were scarcely as exciting or important as those mentioned last week. He asserts that he was made a director of the Erie Railroad, although not really a stockholder, by Fisk and Gould, who desired to give him a chance to make money in return for his services in procuring for them a wished-for injunction from Judge Barnard, of the Supreme Court. Afterwards he acted as their agent at Albany in obtaining favorable legislation, receiving money from them for the bribing of legislators. He next gave a history of the New York Printing Company, which at one time did nearly all the city's printing. The company was composed of Cornelius Corson, James B. Taylor, and Tweed, to whom, later, were added Sweeny and Hugh Smith. Its bills were paid without being submitted to the Supervisors, a vote of the Board having directed the Comptroller to pay them upon certification of the clerk. Upon a capital of $10,000 the company paid annually a dividend of from $50,000 to $75,000 to each of its members. With regard to his testimony before the Wood Committee, in 1872, he admitted that it was mostly false, having been given "to save men and their families, and a great many were saved." Of the testimony thus far given, the only important denials have been made by Messrs. Kingsley and Murphy in regard to the East River Bridge. State Senator Bixby, whom Tweed accused of negotiating the sale to him of one-half of O'Brien's claim, has denied the transaction, but O'Brien admits it.

The fire by which one-half of the Interior Department building at Washington was destroyed on Monday was emphatically a public loss, of which the building itself was the least part. The fire began among or first involved the 20,000 rejected models stored in the almost unapproachable garret under a roof of wood and glass, and they were utterly consumed. These models had been selected from the mass of those rejected, as being too valuable to return to the inventors. They had, however, only a contingent value, for access to them was not permitted, and the public interest in them was therefore remote. Quite otherwise was it with the 87,000 patent models which subsequently shared their fate, and which happened to be far more valuable than the remainder of the whole collection, for they embraced the classes of metal and wood-working, civil and mechanical engineering, agricultural implements, mills, carriages, wagons, railroads, hydraulics, pneumatics, etc. Of all these it was true, but in a special sense of the older models, for which the drawings were very imperfect, that they were of the greatest importance in defence against suits for infringement, inasmuch as they often showed contrivances not figured in the drawings, and not mentioned in the specifications, on account of their novelty or importance having been overlooked. Herein lay a great protection to the public, which might otherwise have been debarred from using an old invention unless by paying for it, or been exposed to endless litigation. The extent and money value of this protection only experts can appreciate; the public would naturally console themselves with the fact that the drawings and specifications have been preserved intact. The head of the Office is now more than ever the public's shield against the patentee, and as the present Commissioner has understood his duty in this regard more fully than any of his predecessors, it is to be hoped he will do what he can to stay the mischievous consequences of the fire. As we have before pointed out, there is great danger that our patent system will topple of itself by excessive leaning in favor of the inventor. Something ought speedily to be done, yet after due consideration, to enhance the difficulty of taking out a patent. This will not only have the effect of diminishing both honest and blackmailing litigation, but will, of course, reduce the number of models to be stored. The question will still arise whether these ought not to be stored in a museum by themselves, beyond the possible risk of fire; and the narrow escape of the records in the Land Office might also suggest the question whether the Interior Department should attempt to house so much of itself under one roof (and that a wooden one!), and even whether the varied interests which it guards might not be advantageously divided between two or more portfolios in the Cabinet?

The harvests in all parts of the country fully come up to expectations, and the events of the week in Europe make it reasonably certain that the war will be protracted long enough to compel Europe to take all the breadstuffs which this country can spare. Very large "short sales" of wheat were made several weeks ago at Chicago and here, in the belief that the large yield would depress prices; the market was "oversold," and during the last week a "corner" was made, and the price of wheat was sharply advanced. The advance stimulated the movement to the lake ports, where the receipts have been larger in a single week than they were last year in the whole month of September. Transportation business has accordingly been excellent, and thus far the water-routes have derived more benefit from the increase than have the railroads. This large movement of grain has increased the demand for money, the rate of which at New York has advanced to 6 to 7 per cent. on call. Cotton has not yet begun to move, and later in the year currency will be required in large amounts at the South. Other branches of business than those directly concerned in the production and transportation of breadstuffs have improved, but only to a limited extent. Gold during the week ruled at 103 to 103¼, and at the close of the week the U. S. (legal-tender) note for $1 had a gold-value of $0.9685. At the same time the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar would have been worth $0.9203, bar-silver in London having advanced to 54⅝d. per ounce, English standard.

In England, the revelations which have been making at the police court of the corruption of the detective branch of the London police force have occupied, this being the dull season, more of public attention than anything else, after the war. Three chief inspectors and a superintendent of the force and a solicitor have been all committed, after a prolonged examination, for trial on a charge of conspiracy with certain thieves to defeat the ends of justice. One of them had been in the service for thirty-seven years; others twenty-two and fourteen. Their fall was gradual. A band of swindlers got into relations with one of them, pretending that they were going to open a betting-office, and got him to promise information if proceedings were going to be taken against them. A loan of money grew out of this intimacy, which put him in their power; then, when they proceeded to rob a French lady, they compelled him to aid in shielding them, and he gradually seduced other members of the force into the league. The moral which the London press seems disposed to draw from the affair is that the detectives nowadays are not up to their work in education or position. Thievery has grown greatly as an art, and has enlisted an order of talent formerly unknown in it, and needs to be combated by a much abler and more skilful class of men than are now employed. The fact is, however, as we have seen here in so many cases, the inspecting machinery by which we attempt to prevent fraud of all kinds is breaking down everywhere under the increased weight of temptation. We have not yet made up our minds to pay enough for the ability now needed not only to watch swindlers but to watch honest men exposed to great temptation—as in banks, for instance.

The French elections are fixed for October 14, and Marshal MacMahon has issued, in preparation for them, a most extraordinary manifesto to the electors, showing how completely the idea of personal government has taken hold of his mind, and how completely he has taken up the rôle of a "saviour of society." In it he "points with pride," as our Republican conventions say, to the history of his administration during the last four years, with its peace abroad and rapid recovery at home; says this happy state of things is, however, disturbed by the passage of the majority of the Chamber into the hands of the avowed leaders of the Radical party, "forgetting the share of authority belonging to him," and aiming at substituting for "the necessary equilibrium of the public powers the authority of a new convention." He declares that the constitution is entrusted to his guardianship, that he will protect it, and that he expects the electors to send up a Chamber which will attend to the public business and be "favorable to his policy." Hostile elections, on the other hand, would, he says, aggravate the conflict, impede business, maintain agitations, and inspire distrust abroad, and as to him, "his duty would increase with the danger." He would neither become the instrument of Radicalism nor abandon his post. He would remain, and, with the aid of the Senate, defend Conservative interests and protect the functionaries "who at a difficult moment have not allowed themselves to be intimidated by vain threats." In other words, if the country approves of his course, well and good; if it does not, no matter; he will persist in it all the same. The Republican press, which contains every paper of ability and weight in France, treats the manifesto as an open defiance of the majority of the electors, and declares that France is called on once more to defend her liberties. The Republican deputies have issued a counter manifesto taking up the Marshal's challenge, and calling on the electors to show that no man can impose himself on France; and finally a posthumous manifesto of Thiers's has been published, and the Government has interdicted the placarding or colportage of it. The removal of mayors and suspension of municipal councils for displaying Republican sympathies continue, but M. Fourtou has abandoned the attempt to restrain the sale of Opposition newspapers by the colporteurs.

The "decisive" defeat of the Russian Crown Prince's army, reported last week, turns out to have been a fiction, like the "capture of Plevna" some weeks ago. No fighting whatever seems to have occurred between the forces of the Tzezarevitch and those of Mehemet Ali on the day assigned for that defeat, September 17, or on the following three days. On the 21st, however, Mehemet Ali resumed the offensive, west of the Kara Lom, in the direction of Biela, with the intention, as is plausibly stated, of executing a reconnaissance in force or making a feigned attack, which should serve to cover an advance in a different direction. The impetuosity of the assailing troops turned the affair into a real battle, which prevented the designed advance—probably toward the upper Yantra—and ended with a repulse from strong Russian intrenchments. The troops engaged were not numerous, and the losses sustained may have been about equal, as each official bulletin declares the loss of the enemy to have been double. The Russians expected a renewal of the combat on the following day, but this did not take place. The headquarters of the Tzezarevitch are now at Dolni (Lower) Monastir, northeast of the former ones at Biela, which indicates either a cautious removal northward toward the Danube, or the showing of a bolder front to the enemy on the east. The re-establishment by the Russians of communication across the Danube at Pirgos, by means of a steam-ferry, is indicative of an extension of lines, made possible by the arrival of reinforcements from Russia. The announcement from Bucharest, just made, that the Turks have occupied "a natural stronghold" on the Rumanian bank of the river, under the cover of the guns of Silistria, is, as are the despatches from that locality generally, in need of confirmation. The Shipka pass is held by General Radetzky with the utmost tenacity against constant bombardment and desperate assaults by Suleiman Pasha. One of these, made on September 17, which, according to a despatch to the London *Times* from Shipka, was a repetition of the terrible conflict of the preceding day, is officially admitted by the Russians to have cost them upwards of a thousand killed and wounded. On the 21st the Turks renewed the bombardment of the Russian positions from fourteen mortars, and in the afternoon made attacks on both flanks, which were repulsed, the fighting lasting till night.

The attack on Plevna, as we presumed last week, has been virtually abandoned, though some sapping and trenching is done. The headquarters of the Grand Duke Nicholas have been removed from Poradim backward, and the positions of the blockading army are again where they were before the second great struggle with Osman Pasha began, excepting a few advanced points on the right, including the Grivitza redoubt. An unsuccessful attempt by the Rumanians, on September 18, to capture another work, and an equally unsuccessful Turkish attempt, on the 20th, to recapture the Grivitza redoubt are reported. What makes the Russians recoil from a new onslaught is made clear by the despatches of the correspondents of the London *News* and *Times*, both eye-witnesses and Russian "sympathizers." According to the one the Russian army lost twenty thousand men on the 11th alone, and the other, some ten days later, estimated its number, "with the reinforcements received since the battle," at "nearly fifty thousand," of course exclusive of the Rumanian allies, not including whom it opened the battle with seventy thousand. These two estimates agree very well with each other, but reflect an unfavorable light upon the Russian official statement of losses. The correspondent of the *News*, in stating his reasons for gravely doubting the possibility of Russian success before Plevna, declares with rough outspokenness that the Turks are better soldiers individually than the Russians, better armed with artillery and rifles, and as regards major and minor tactics, and especially engineering, "immeasurably superior." The expectation that Osman Pasha's resources in ammunition would soon be exhausted has also proved deceptive, as Hifsi Pasha, leading the vanguard of considerable reinforcements, sent by way of Sophia and Orhanie, has succeeded in entering Plevna with fresh supplies, after some skirmishes with Russian cavalry west of the Vid. Yet the spirit of the Russian army is acknowledged on all sides to be good, and the determination of the officers to "fight it out" to be unshaken, though ominous hints are made that the authors of the present mismanagement "may expect a stern reckoning." There may be some danger in this feeling of the army not only for the future safety of the members of the dynasty who now personally direct its management, but also for the army itself, we apprehend. Nor is the Grand Duke Michael earning laurels in Asia, where Tergukassoff's army, defending Russian Armenia, is hard pressed. From the confines of Montenegro the Turks continue to withdraw troops, embarking them at Antivari, and Prince Nikita is preparing for the blockade of Gatchko and Goransko in Herzegovina. Servia declines to re-enter the lists.

The talk of mediation between the belligerents has been pretty thoroughly disposed of during the week. Lord Derby, in an after-dinner speech, has distinctly stated that nothing of the kind is at present possible, though it may be near at hand. If near at hand, however, the demand for it will hardly come from Russia, which is evidently preparing for a second campaign. There has been a meeting of Prince Bismarck and Count Andrássy at Salzburg, which is, it is announced, a sequel to the former meeting of the three Emperors, and probably designed to renew the understanding then entered into with reference to the altered state of facts. It seems to have been settled anew that the policy of the three Powers on the Eastern question has undergone no change; that the war will not be allowed to go beyond its present limits, and that whenever the armed conflict is over, the basis of a settlement will be found ready or all but ready.

THE PRESIDENT'S SOUTHERN TRIP.

THERE are probably a good many honest Republicans who are still more or less scandalized by the spectacle of the President and Wade Hampton travelling through the country together, and making speeches in the same sense from the same platforms. There are many memories and traditions which are wounded or defied by it, and if the Government were simply an instrument for the perpetuation of tender or sacred emotions there is no question that it would be a spectacle, in many respects, blameworthy and repulsive. But government is, as Burke said, "a practical thing, of which the circumstances are infinite, are infinitely combined, are variable and transient; he who does not take them into consideration is not erroneous but stark mad; *dat operam ut cum ratione insaniat;* he is metaphysically mad. A statesman, never losing sight of principles, is to be guided by circumstances, and, judging contrary to the exigencies of the moment, he may ruin his country for ever." There could not have been a better description in a few words than this last sentence contains of President Lincoln; it is applicable also, as far as he has gone, in all that relates to his treatment of the Southern question, to Mr. Hayes. He has not lost sight of principles, but he is guided, within the sphere of his authority and influence, by circumstances, and judges by the exigencies of the moment. It is not his business to realize the dreams of philanthropists; it is his business to see that, as far he can contribute to it, the people of the Southern States enjoy as much happiness and security as is possible in a society made up as their society is. Any critic of his course who insists on his trying to secure for them by the use of force, or by hostile or angry demonstrations, as much happiness and security as is possible in *any* society, is not simply in error, but is mad—metaphysically mad. There may be method in his madness, but he is mad all the same, and there is not much use in arguing with him.

The President's journey marks the close of the experiment by which Congress, partly under the influence of the exasperation caused by Southern attempts to settle the negro status after emancipation, and partly under that of the irritation caused by Andrew Johnson's assumptions, sought to protect the negro in his citizenship. The bestowal of the suffrage on him without test or preparation of any kind was a bold experiment, but, in judging it, it has to be remembered that it seemed at the time the only substitute for protracted military rule at the South, and for this nobody was prepared. It has to be remembered, too—and, as we advocated it in these columns, we are competent witnesses to the fact—that its supporters produced it as in some sort a substitute for Federal police, an instrument by which the colored population might secure the protection of the Federal courts and the consideration of State officers, and a fair amount of influence on the State legislatures pending their natural and easy assimilation by industry and education to the more civilized portion of the community. That after it was bestowed on them the plan would be concocted of erecting the negroes into a distinct party, hostile to the whites and led by Northern adventurers encouraged and even put in office by the Government in Washington, was something for which we were not prepared; which, we confess, we did not foresee; and which we began to denounce as soon as it became plain—that is, about eight years ago. The attempt has, after a full trial, and after causing great loss and doing the negro much moral mischief, failed miserably; and, luckily, its evils have been made so clear and manifest that the whole country is ready to rejoice over its failure. President Hayes gave it the finishing stroke when he came into office, and the opposition, never very strong, which his "policy" met with at first, is now all but extinct.

That some good has come out of the experiment, however, it is impossible to deny. The enthusiastic reception which the President is meeting with at the South, and the highly conciliatory speeches of Wade Hampton and other prominent Southerners, may, without any want of charity, be ascribed in a greater or less degree to the trials which the attempt to convert the negro into a ruler has compelled the Southern people to undergo. Time has of course had on them the effect it has on all men, in quenching old hates, taking the sting and bitterness out of old memories, and awakening fresh hopes and aspirations, and reconciling them to the new order of things. But we may well doubt whether the change would have come so soon or have been so complete if the ordeal had been less severe. The delight which Governor Wade Hampton feels at seeing his State once more in the hands of those who own it, would hardly have been so deep if he had not had the bitter experience of negro rule; and surely to this also is due much of the gratitude and admiration he feels towards the President and expresses so freely. If the Southern States, in short, were not experiencing the sensation of deliverance, it is difficult to believe that their readiness for a more perfect union would be as strong as it now is.

As regards the negro, too, his political career as a statesman and legislator, and the colleague of the Carpet-bagger, has not been wholly useless to him. Twelve years' familiarity with him as an office-holder, judge, juryman, and policeman has undoubtedly helped to raise him in the eyes of the whites, make his fellow-citizenship at least seem a rational and bearable thing, and helped to secure his good standing in court, and make his social as well as political elevation through the proper channels easier to him. The energy, too, and persistence with which the North supported him in his rascally and corrupt government, and the reluctance with which the aid of the secular arm has been withdrawn from him, have served to convince the South of the sincerity of the Northern interest in him in a way for which nothing else would have sufficed. It has caused the Southerners, too, for the first time in their history to look on him seriously, and to consider calmly and soberly in what way he can best be incorporated in the commonwealth and made to bear a share of the public burdens.

Our belief is that at present the Southern whites are determined to accept him as a voter under white guidance, and, as long as he chooses to accept this guidance, to protect him in the fullest manner in the security of person and property. We have no doubt that as far as the free exercise of all his faculties goes—in buying, selling, earning, saving, suing and being sued—he is now as well off as any white man at the South, exposed to no more violence, and in no more danger of denial of justice than any of his neighbors. This result is not wholly satisfactory to those who cannot bear to think even of any curtailment, in any part of the country, of the freedom of election which exists in any other part; but those who remember that the problem which vexed us all after the war was simply how to procure for the negro protection for person and property—that is, the status even of a non-voting free laborer—must admit that his present condition is an enormous advance, that to have actually obtained for him all that we then ventured to hope for, and in twelve years, is no mean gain.

As to the future, unless there exists in him a radical and constitutional incapacity for the highest plane of civilization (and whether there is or not time only will tell), protection for his person and the fruits of his industry, and a fair provision for his education, which all or nearly all the Southern States are supplying, must result in increasing his social and political weight to such a degree as to liberate him without any special effort from the political control of the whites. That this control is possible in any Southern State is simply the result of his poverty and ignorance. It cannot be perpetuated over as large a body as the negroes after they acquire any considerable amount of property or develop any marked degree of intelligence and mental activity. It is the utter absence of these things among them, as a class, which condemns them to political inferiority. The "shot-gun Democracy" may be a very ruthless and unscrupulous body, but it could accomplish little against an educated and well-to-do black population; so that, if the negro has the seeds of civilization in him, we shall undoubtedly see him, in another twelve years, enjoying political influence, after attaining it in the only way that Lincoln and Andrew would have considered legitimate, and without a tithe of the struggle and suffering which it has cost the white race.

In short, to the calm and considerate, or, as Burke would call

them, the sane, the situation at the South must be considered full of hope; and to those who saw, as we saw with shame and foreboding, the Republican campaign last year opened by an attempt to revive the baleful passions of the civil war, the fact that the President whom this campaign produced should be travelling triumphantly through the South, pleading before joyous multitudes for union and conciliation, has all the look of a special Providence, and must fill the souls of those who supported him as a vessel of wrath with a strange confusion.

THE EFFECT OF THE RUSSIAN REVERSES ON WESTERN POLITICS.

THE strategic failure of the Russians, which accounts to a considerable degree for the sudden rise in the military reputation of the Turks, has already had an important influence on European politics. We mentioned last week that it had disposed completely of the long-standing English dread of a Russian attack on India. In view of the difficulty which the Czar experiences in bringing 100,000 men into line in Bulgaria, there is not much occasion evidently for alarm as to the possibility of his appearance in force south of the Himalayas, and there is little question that this will in a greater or less degree modify the course of English diplomacy whenever the time comes to resettle the relations of Turkey with Western Europe. It has already produced the suggestion that England might now take the lead in proposing mediation, as she would approach the whole subject with less prepossession and less bent of self-interest than formerly.

But the effect on the Continent of the Russian miscarriage has been much more marked than in England. The great disturbance in the European equilibrum caused by the French collapse in 1870 has since been somewhat remedied by the rapid industrial revival of France and the reorganization of her army, and by the belief, which has had a powerful consolatory effect on the French mind, that in a second collision with Germany she might count on a Russian alliance. What reason of a palpable sort there was for counting on anything of the kind has never been known, or, at all events, never been made public; but the expectation has for the last five years been in the air, and has, it has been supposed, made Bismarck cautious. It is safe to say now that it has disappeared under the influence of the late events in Bulgaria. However the war may now end, Russia is certain to come out of it greatly exhausted, with much financial and military reorganization to be undertaken, and with a longing for peace and repose which will probably last twenty years. She may, therefore, be safely counted out of any probable European complication. Germany is left face to face with France, with Italy friendly, and Austria filling to all intents and purposes the position of a protégé. What Bismarck's views about Russia may be, are, of course, mere matters of speculation. The only basis for any inference about them is to be found in the fact that, as Russian misfortunes in the field have thickened, the German tone towards Russia has grown more friendly, until a few weeks ago the Turks received a stern remonstrance from Berlin with regard to their non-observance of the Geneva Convention, which appears to have scared them. The war, in short, will leave Germany more than ever the preponderating Continental power. It remains to be seen what effect her release from the dangers which have seemed, since the French recovery, to threaten her on that side will have in making the Germans themselves restless under their present enormous armament. They have borne the burden thus far, though with increasing impatience, in the belief that it was necessary to secure the fruits of the struggle with France. The certainty that they can no longer be seriously threatened from any quarter might work a serious and rapid change in public feeling on this point.

As regards the prospects of the two belligerents, Russian strategists have shown all the special defects necessary not only to destroy Russia's military reputation but to rekindle the military ardor and efficiency of the Turks. Some newspaper critics of the operations maintain that the Russian misfortunes have been all due to their love of front attacks instead of resorting to the "wide turning movements" which they say are in use among the Germans, and have long been practised in all the great newspaper offices in this country. "Wide turning movements" are doubtless most efficacious when they are possible and not too "wide," like that of the Allies at Austerlitz, but it is a mistake to suppose that the Germans relied on them in the French campaign to the exclusion of front attacks. The campaign was opened by a successful assault on the fortified heights of Weissenburg; this was followed by the defeat of MacMahon at Wörth, following on the march of his army and the Crown Prince's right at each other without manœuvring or shirking. Then came the bloody storming of the heights of Spicheren by the old method of an attack at the point of the bayonet. There was some manœuvring before Mars-la-Tour and Gravelotte, but both these battles were stand-up fights of the most sanguinary kind, in which there was so little flinching that six thousand men of the Prussian guard went down in ten minutes on an open slope under a withering fire from the French chassepots. In fact, the Germans took just as many liberties with the French as the Russians have taken with the Turks, and did as little "wide turning." The difference is, that when the Prussians attacked they attacked in such overwhelming force that they struck like a thunderbolt. The fault of the Russians has been that, except at Nicopolis, they have everywhere assailed with an equal or inferior force, and thus in a few weeks lost their moral ascendency over the Turks, and raised the self-confidence and religious fanaticism and revived the reputation of their enemy in a way which vigorous blows delivered rapidly after the Danube was first crossed would have made impossible.

Of the Turkish strategy there is nothing to be said in praise except that Osman Pasha's descent on the Russian flank was a happy stroke, which was made possible through gross Russian negligence. Everywhere else there is inactivity or but feeble initiative, and Suleiman Pasha's fighting for weeks in the Shipka Pass when he might have been with Mehemet Ali, however gallant, is worthy only of the Middle Ages. The fact remains that for the Turks not to be driven back is victory; but the effect of victory is probably working them as much injury as reverses in the field might. The government of a caste is apt to be cruel and ferocious anywhere, but that of a religious caste, which makes hatred, or, if possible or convenient, the spoliation or extirpation of the vanquished a sacred duty, is, of course, likely to be what the Turkish Government has been, and is—the worst ever seen in the world. During the last half-century of Turkish weakness and decline its badness has been abated by incessant foreign criticism and threatening, and by the surveillance of the local authorities by the foreign consuls. But how little change had taken place in the real feelings of the Government towards its Christian subjects, and how little improvement in the relation of its Turkish and Christian population, was shown by the method of guarding against insurrection resorted to last year—namely, massacre, rape, and arson of whole villages by the troops, followed by plunder by the neighboring Mussulmans. Since the war broke out the letting loose on the Christian population of the savage Asiatic irregulars shows what an exceedingly thin varnish the Turkish civilization is. The result is that in one district a correspondent of the London *Times*, who is administering relief, reports that in a population of 20,000 there is not a male left alive. Now, the question which this spectacle is suggesting to the Western public is, What would be the condition of the Christians after a peace made by victorious Turks, elated by the new consciousness that they were able to defend themselves against a first-class power, and need not heed European remonstrances any more? There is, as everybody knows, nothing new in the present mode of Turkish warfare. The massacres, all told, which will have been committed by the time the present struggle is over, will probably not exceed the massacres of the Greek Revolution; but then public opinion in the West is more humane and sensitive, and intelligence from the seat of war is far more rapid and searching. It is hardly within the bounds of

possibility that, let the Russians fail ever so badly, the Turk will be allowed to set himself as an unbridled and irresponsible conqueror on soil drenched with the blood of his own unarmed subjects. He will be called to account and put under bonds, even if Russia alone is unable to dictate peace to him. But that she will eventually bring him to his knees it is still scarcely possible to doubt. If it comes, as it is coming, to a death-struggle between the two empires, the Russians—who, with all their defects, are a growing race, outnumber the Turks five to one, and have always displayed great staying power—must finally triumph. But they will undoubtedly triumph with immense loss of prestige, and, above all, with the loss of that powerful influence on the Western imagination which has come down from the war of 1812, which the formidable-looking armaments and stern military régime of the Emperor Nicholas helped maintain and even strengthen, and which the Crimean struggle only impaired. In that she was matched against four Powers, and gave them plenty of trouble.

THIERS.

PARIS, September 6, 1877.

THIERS is dead. No more will he be called Monsieur Thiers. He belongs to history. Death has treated him kindly, and struck him down in an instant. He had a few moments before worked as usual, walked quietly on that terrace of Saint Germain whence Paris is discovered in all its splendor, lying in the broad valley of the Seine. What were his thoughts on that last morning? Did he remember the time when he was busy erecting batteries on the west side of the hill and ordering shells to be thrown on the revolutionary city, when the bridge was broken in front of the terrace of Saint Germain, when the Commune added the horrors of the second siege to the horrors of the first? or was he meditating what he would say the next day to Gambetta, with whom he had an appointment in Paris at his hotel on the Place St. Georges, rebuilt at the expense of the nation? A few days before he had received a friend of mine, and he seemed full of hope and of confidence. He was sure of victory. France would vote for the 363 who had signed with him the protest against the 16th of May, and for a hundred Republicans more. He spoke of the Marshal with severity. His best friends were repeating everywhere that Thiers had no more personal ambition, that he had exhausted all that earthly glory and ambition can give, but that political morality required he should return to power, were it only for one day. He had suggested to Gambetta the two words which end the speech for which the ex-dictator is to be soon prosecuted, "se soumettre ou se démettre," meaning that there was no choice for Marshal MacMahon, in face of a new Republican majority, but to submit to its dictates or to resign. He felt that life was slowly ebbing; but the Republican papers gave news every day of his exuberant health, of his gaiety, of his long walks. I happened to meet him not long ago in a shop on the Quai Voltaire where old engravings are sold (he was a great fancier of Marc-Antonio's, Van Dyke's, and Dürer's engravings), and I was much struck by the great change which had taken place in him. His face, once so open, smiling, and cheerful, had now a concentrated expression; there was more solemnity, there was almost sadness on the waxen forehead, in the chiselled lines of the narrow lips. He appeared to me, as the Latin poet says, "jam pallidus morte futura." I doubt if he really believed that fortune would let him have a last drop of sovereign power, and let him die as an emperor, in the full possession of power. He knew better than anybody what dormant strength there is always in the conservative masses of France, and how they can be stirred by the Administration. He knew what hold a marshal of France will always have on this people; he once said, "Il ne m'a manqué qu' une chose: ce sont des pantalons rouges." He had described so many battles that he at times thought himself a general, but he could never inspire anybody with that belief. He was full of courage, of what is called in English pluck; and he longed all his lifetime for the noble emotions of war. He was nothing, after all, but a "petit bourgeois," as he once called himself. Read his history of Napoleon, and you will see with what eager envy he speaks of the triumphs of war. What is a tribune, with its glass of sugared water; what is an Assembly, with its Left, and Right, and Centre, made up of elderly gentlemen, noisy, disorderly; what is the noise of words compared to the roar of artillery on great plains, to the well-combined movements of brigades, of divisions, of corps d'armée, to the long struggle witnessed by the sun as it goes from one side of the horizon to the other, witnessed also by all the nations of the world? And think of the man who is the centre of this great and terrible spectacle! Such was Napoleon, and such Thiers would have liked to be—a worker, not a writer, of history.

But he did not merely write history, he also was a worker of history: his hand has been in all the revolutions of France in the past fifty years. When his life shall be written, and it certainly will be, it will be to a certain extent the history of France. The time is not yet come to write it; the perspective of time is necessary to such biographies. The part which Thiers has played since 1870 can only be well judged by the future development of the situation which he has in a great degree created. If France becomes a republic; if this republic can exudate, as it were, all the virus of the past, and become at the same time conservative and liberal; if it can promote all the serious and permanent interests of the country, Thiers will go down to history as the founder of a new era. If, on the contrary, the republic becomes a mere name, a mere covering of personal or despotic government; if, after having been for a while an "empire without an emperor," it should become a real empire; if we should slide again into Cæsarism, be robbed of all our liberties, and see the property, the honor, the life of the citizens at the mercy of an unscrupulous set of men, "ære alieno et vitiis onustos," as Tacitus said, then the responsibility of Thiers will be heavy indeed, as there is no doubt that he forced the republican form of government on a National Assembly which was inclined to restore the old hereditary monarchy. The Bonapartist party was annihilated after Sedan, the vote which excluded the Bonapartes from power at Bordeaux was taken almost unanimously; and now it cannot be denied that the Bonapartists are openly declaring that the Empire will be legally reinstated after the term of Marshal MacMahon's power.

The problem which was placed before Thiers when he was entrusted at Bordeaux with a sort of moral dictatorship was this: This country has supported the arbitrary rule of Napoleon III. for eighteen years; it is now angry with a régime which has ended in a disastrous war, but in the long run it may, perhaps, only remember the more prosperous years of the Empire, and regret its quietude; is it better to oppose to the memories of the fallen monarchy a real monarchy, the old traditional monarchy, or must I go with the men of the 4th September, and try a republic? It was a difficult problem to solve; I can quite conceive the embarrassment of a statesman in this terrible alternative. Thiers did not solve the problem immediately; he invented what he called the truce of parties. I shall never forget the great speech he made on this occasion—how he tried the pulse of the Assembly, how he gave a hope to the Monarchists, and a hope to the Republicans. I have always maintained, and I believe now, that it would have been more manly, and at the same time more prudent, to fix immediately at Bordeaux the form of government. Any choice would have been better than no choice, and the circumstances were so critical that every man would have found it his duty to stand by the decision of the Chamber. With the Prussian army still threatening and the Commune in Paris, who would have wavered? It was one of those occasions which once lost are never found again.

It is my belief that Thiers, at that moment, was sufficiently strong to impose his own will on the Chamber, on the Republicans as well as on the Monarchists. All the hopes of the country were bound up in him. It is also my firm conviction that *his* choice was made, though he did not say so to the Assembly. He wanted all the energy, all the respectability, all the influence of the Legitimist party to remain on his side, and he allowed them to believe that he was paving the way for the monarchy. His choice was made. *Before* the 4th September he told somebody, "I will never more be the minister of a king." In his diplomatic tour through Europe he showed his republican propensity in all the courts; and some day this assertion will be proved by the publication of documents. A shrewd moralist would have seen, even better than a politician, what his sentiments were when he took severe measures against the sons of his old king, Louis Philippe. This part of our history is not known in all its details; when it is, it will be proved that Thiers had made up his mind, before the fall of the Empire, on the future government of his country. We cannot blame him for this; we may blame him for concealing too long his sentiments from those who had a right to know them. Thiers's ambition under the Empire had taken a new form. One of his most intimate friends often said to me, "Thiers is not a party man; he is a great citizen." To be a "grand citizen," to be a sort of arbiter of parties, to speak from a tripod, and to give great lessons to kings, emperors, and peoples—this was the attitude chosen by Thiers towards the end of the Empire. More and more did he feel inclined to-

wards republicanism ; not only, I may say, by ambition, but by a sort of senile return to the instincts and sentiments of his youth. Who was he ? A poor boy of Marseilles, born in a shabby house of the Rue des Petits Pères. Who was his father ? A clerk of the revolutionary tribunal, who was obliged at the Revolution of Thermidor to conceal himself in order to save his life, who afterwards fled to Italy, who was forced by misery to accept a place in the Milan lottery, to go to Spain, and who then vanished out of sight. His grandfather had kept the archives of the *mairie* of Marseilles. His great-grandfather was a cloth manufacturer. Thiers himself entered the *lycée* at Marseilles in 1808, with a *demi-bourse*. The other half of the expense of his education was paid by a friend of his family. He felt early that he would have to make his own way ; he studied hard. In 1814 he was still living in a garret with his mother and his grandmother, so poor that he was obliged to borrow books from friends in order to continue his studies. He was even then a true son of the South, a born orator ; he tried his first speeches in an empty room, to four wooden chairs. He studied law at Aix, where he made the acquaintance of Mignet ; and let me say here that Thiers, whatever may have been his defects, always showed himself the most faithful of friends. Nobody, probably, at this hour mourns him more sincerely than Mignet. He was tyrannical to his friends in one sense only—he absorbed, so to speak, their soul. His nature could not understand opposition. But Mignet had given away his liberty ; he had ceased to think otherwise than like Thiers ; so Thiers regarded him as a second self. It may be not very generous to be generous to one's self ; still, so many men have shown little gratitude for the most disinterested affection, that we must give credit to Thiers for the delicacy and the fidelity of his friendship for those who had adopted him as their spiritual leader.

Thiers came to Paris, as the young Gauls of the Narbonensis used to go to Rome. He was sure to find in the great capital some field for his untiring activity. He was bold, agreeable, ambitious. Like Gambetta, he long vented his eloquence in the offices of Opposition papers. Under the Restoration, he dared to make the apology of the great Revolution ; he became one of the leaders of the movement which ended in the Revolution of 1830. I shall not here even attempt to give the briefest account of his political life. I have before me a pamphlet which he wrote against the Republic in 1830, called 'La Monarchie de 1830.' He was one of the instruments of the downfall of the monarchy which he celebrated and served. In 1851 he took sides with Napoleon against the Republic and General Cavaignac ; and Napoleon III. threw him in prison, exiled him for a while, and kept him out of power till 1870. Thiers opposed Italian unity, and saw the accomplishment of this unity. He had been the advocate all his life of the theory of the "natural frontier" of France ; he tried to make war in 1840 in favor of this theory ; and he had to sign the treaty which deprived France of Metz and Strasbourg. His life will one day seem like a long series of contradictions and failures ; still, what gives unity to it is what I will call the revolutionary spirit—the spirit of 1789. Thiers was essentially a representative of the French *bourgeoisie ;* he was hard-working, frugal, jealous of the past, jealous of all the powers of imagination, unpoetical, sensible, armed with an inexhaustible resolution. He loved power, and the fruits of power—authority, wealth, influence. He was not an epicurean, and his refined culture placed him above the temptations of the mere egoist. He was too ardent and too ambitious for a second post, even for the post of a minister ; he was too unruly, too revolutionary, for the first post. He went *through* power—he could not keep it.

Correspondence.

THE PINCH OF RESUMPTION.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : My subscription to the *Nation* will not be renewed after expiration of present subscription, September 13, 1877, and you may discontinue the paper after that time. We are too impoverished by forced resumption to further support your ruinous teachings at luxurious prices.

Yours truly, M. W. Robinson.

Law Office of Robinson & Ferris,
182 Clark Street, Chicago, September 8, 1877.

[Mr. Robinson has supported so well the fall of gold from 285½ in 1364 to 103½ at present that we were in hopes he would be able to pull through to the finish, and forgive us our folly. We are sure the Resumption Act has impoverished him as much as it can, and that he has no worse suffering to fear than he has already undergone. If he could only see his feet, he would perceive that his toes are within an inch of the ground, would stop his groaning, let go the window-sill, take his *Nation* for another year, and laugh with us over his fright.—Ed. Nation.]

INVESTMENTS FOR RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The only conclusion of practical importance that Mill and Cairnes are able to reach in their discussions concerning labor is, that the laborer must become a capitalist. Certainly no politician can see without apprehension the headlong race to the central Government that so many reformers and demagogues have engaged in ; at least, if the principle be recognized that Government is the most wasteful manager of capital. Nor can any intelligent man see without pleasure the suggestions in your columns that railroad employees be attached by motives of interest to their employers. The French and Austrian plans may well be adopted ; and yet those who believe in *laissez-faire* would be glad to have a way provided whereby the laborer might become voluntarily, as well as involuntarily, a capitalist. Doubtless many railroad hands in New England are capitalists, in great part because of the sound management of the savings-banks ; whence, perhaps, the general freedom from violence that is notable even during strikes. In other States the train-hands may be perplexed to know what to do with their earnings. The trackmen may get their cabins and patches of land from the railroad, and thereby easily develop a feeling of loyalty to the company ; but the train-hands are necessarily so long away from home on their trips that they cannot take care of land.

The savings-banks, however well conducted, although they improve the character of their depositors, cannot develop the feeling of loyalty that is desired. Would it not be well for a railroad that wished to bind its employees to its service to buy in a certain quantity of its first-mortgage bonds and issue these in denominations as low as $50 to any of its hands that had allowed their wages to accumulate with the company ? Against this it might be urged that even first-mortgage bonds are not beyond suspicion. But, in case of foreclosure, the standing force of the road would be the most suitable body to assist in taking possession of a property with which they were so familiar. Probably the ordinary railroad man would feel more security in knowing that the road he worked on was pledged to him than in the reputation of any bank. It might be objected that it would be a piddling business for a railroad to engage in ; but the railroad must, in any event, keep its wages account, and in case a workman chose to leave the service, the amount to his credit could probably be paid without inconvenience. In favor of such a plan may be considered the advantage of avoiding the risk to which weak resolution subjects wages destined for the savings-bank. It is one thing to let $10 a month lie in the employer's hands and a much harder thing to draw the $10 and carry it by the liquor-shops until it can be deposited in the savings-bank. Furthermore, this plan might secure one advantage claimed for co-operation—viz., the interest of workmen in the prosperity of their employers, and avoid the disasters which co-operative (productive) enterprises generally suffer from the ownership of the stock by those incompetent to guide its management.

It is obvious that, with our system of railroad management, some guarantee for the safety of any insurance fund would be required. Nothing stronger than a first mortgage could be offered, so that the plan here suggested would seem to afford as good security as the insurance fund. Insurance is desirable, even if compulsory ; but it is more desirable that laborers should be encouraged to save for themselves.

D. McG. Means.

Middlebury College, Sept. 10, 1877.

[Every suggestion relating to a better adjustment of the relations between the railroad companies and their employees, without Government intervention, seems to us at this time entitled to respectful consideration. We accordingly print the foregoing. For railroad companies to offer a proportion of their securities in small denominations as a form of investment to their employees seems to be open to no objection. Of course the employee will be free to adopt that as an investment for his savings or not, as he sees fit. Meanwhile, the most singular feature of this whole discussion is the

mad way in which certain railroad interests, and their organs among the railroad journals, are following the lead of Thomas A. Scott in the cry for more Government meddling. In view of the late Granger legislation and decisions one would certainly suppose that the railroad companies would ask only to be let alone in future. They may, we can assure them, feel very confident of one thing—they will find Government assistance a very costly luxury. It implies a great deal. We don't for a moment doubt that, in the long run, the astute railroad men can control the "machine," and work it to their ends. At the same time, we have no desire to see the "machine" controlled by them, and we think they will find it a costly and troublesome ally. We therefore commend the suggestions of our several correspondents to their serious attention, and earnestly advise them to try a little while longer yet to take care of their own households, and not to excite the dangerous sympathy of the "Great Father" at Washington by too fervent adjurations.

"Non tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis
Tempus eget."

—Ed. Nation.]

THE BLACK LIST OF REPUDIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read a letter in your last issue, entitled "The Black List of Repudiation." I will contribute fifty (50) dollars to the proposed fund, and will name "Gallatin County, Illinois," as one county which, in my experience, repudiates its bonds. J. C. D. B.

134 Allen Street, Hudson, N. Y., September 13, 1877.

[We have received an offer of an equal sum from a Philadelphian, and also from a subscriber in Cedar Rapids, Iowa.—Ed. Nation.]

TRADE AND DICKER.

[Although "Merchant's" letter appears to have been called out by our "tacit assumption that Mr. Wells's argument was irrefragable," we have thought it best to hand it over to Mr. Wells himself, so that our readers might see the combatants "lock horns," as Horace Greeley used to say, in the same number of our paper.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for September 6, I observe a notice of Mr. Wells's recent essay on "How shall the Nation regain Prosperity?" in which you quote at some length his remarks on our commerce with Chili, tacitly assuming his argument to be irrefragable. The "process of exclusion" which you thus endorse is usually the last resort of dialectics, and is a virtual confession that the reasoner can find no more trustworthy method. It is a process requiring hands more careful or more skilful than those of Mr. Wells, and is only conclusive when every alternative is examined and shown to be insufficient to explain the conditions of a problem. In the present case, Mr. Wells's argument appears to me to be a happy example of that general looseness of thought and largeness of assumption which characterize the school of which he is so distinguished a disciple.

To any one having even a rudimentary conception of modern commerce, the idea that two nations must revert to the primitive system of barter is even more absurd than if it were predicated of two individuals. Mr. Wells is careful to assume this fallacy as a premiss, for his argument is based upon it, and in so doing he practically admits his position to be untenable, however vigorously he may seek to becloud the question with figures and words used as fallaciously as those in which he argues for Canadian reciprocity. Take, for instance, his own illustration of the purchase of a pair of shoes. If his theory be true, the purchaser must pay for his shoes with some article of his own production—cabbages, or leather, or bricks. The absurdity of this is seen at once, for we all know, in our daily transactions, the functions of money, which Mr. Wells with such airy *insouciance* eliminates from the problem, as though it were a mere incident in place of the most essential factor. The function of money, or its representatives, is that of enabling indirect exchanges to be made. The shoemaker buys his cabbages from one man and sells his shoes to another. Trade in place of being a right line between two points becomes, so to speak, triangular and polygonal.

This applies pre-eminently to nations, which are aggregations of individuals, each of whom acts according to his individual interest, in place of being, as Mr. Wells assumes, units actuated by a common purpose, and asking, before they buy a yard of calico, whether a half-pound of copper regulus will be taken in barter. If a Chilian merchant can buy a salable bale of Fall River cloths cheaper than a similar bale from Manchester, he will not reject it because the Fall River mill cannot buy Chilian copper. He knows that the copper will be sold to Swansea, and that the resulting bill of exchange on London will settle his debt at Fall River as readily as at Manchester. He knows, moreover, that if he patriotically refuses to buy the Fall River goods, his competitor across the street will do so and will undersell him. All this is the A B C of trade, and no pathetic groaning over the 55,000,000 yards of cottons supplied by England, in comparison with the 5,000,000 yards supplied by the United States in 1874, will get rid of it. Mr. Wells, indeed, seems to count largely upon the short memory of his readers, for in a subsequent paragraph he informs us that prior to 1869 our duties on copper and copper ore were but 5 per cent., and our importations of them were large—but he does not tell us why, under his fundamental principle of barter, we did not then pay for our copper with a share of the 55,000,000 yards of cottons. Then, again, he tells us that since 1870 nitrate of soda has been admitted to our ports free of duty, with the result of nearly doubling our imports of that article from Chili; but still his principle of barter has somehow worked wrong, for those 55,000,000 yards of cotton continue perversely to be supplied by Manchester.

After thus exhausting Chili, Mr. Wells skips nimbly across the Andes to the Argentine Republic, and pathetically points out that the grower of mestiza wool has no coin wherewith to pay for American cottons, just as though the American manufacturer would not be perfectly content with a bill of exchange drawn against mestiza wool shipped to England. Mr. Wells then takes a long leap across to Australia, having carefully avoided, in his rambles through South America, to cross the borders of Brazil, whose coffee we consume in enormous quantities, in wilful disregard of the great principle of barter, which teaches us that we must necessarily pay for it in cottons.

Thus both the facts which Mr. Wells puts forward and those which he keeps back equally show the thorough unsoundness and transparent unfairness of his whole argument. He suppresses, moreover, the one bottom fact—that, while he is parading our exports of 1874, it really is only within the last two years or so that the shrinkage of values in this country, combined with improved processes and manufacturing skill, has enabled us to produce goods at prices to compete with England in the world's market. That we are beginning to do so at all is owing purely and simply to the protective system which Mr. Wells reviles. Without it we should have had no mills to produce the cottons which ought to take the place of the 55,000,000 yards supplied by Manchester to Chili; with it, domestic competition, as protectionists have always prophesied, has so diminished prices that Mr. Wells is forced to admit that we can now undersell Manchester. But that during the last two years of low prices we should not have as yet ousted Manchester from furnishing those 55,000,000 yards is easily explicable by reasons which Mr. Wells has carefully omitted in his "process of exclusion." Commerce moves in ruts, and possession is nine points of the law. A course of trade once established is hard to divert, and those who control it can only be driven off by time, labor, money, and brains. Especially is this the case when at one end of the rut is Manchester, resolved to hold its own by fair means or foul, and at the other end is a nation of Spanish descent—of all races the most conservative and averse to change. Manchester possesses and understands the market—the style of goods in demand, the colors, the patterns, the mode of packing, even the labels—all minutiæ which any merchant who has dealt with a Spanish community knows to be of the greatest importance. All this we have yet to overcome, and if any one supposes that Manchester is going to surrender a market of 55,000,000 annual yards of cottons without a severe and protracted struggle, it can only be an American member of the Cobden Club, who innocently believes that when Manchester prates about universal brotherhood it means more than the brotherhood Jacob recognized in Esau.

There are various other little bladders in Mr. Wells's essay which I would like to puncture, but your readers are not much accustomed to this style of talk, and I fear that I have already occupied more space than you will willingly afford me. If I am over-warm, pray accept for excuse the indignation which, as an American, I cannot help feeling at the efforts to overthrow the American system just as it is beginning to produce the results which we protectionists have claimed for it, and which are seriously

threatening the commercial domination of England. It stirs the blood somewhat, moreover, to see a set of idealogues endeavoring to force upon us the theories which Europe (Manchester excepted) has cast off, even as another equally profound set of philosophers are busy in seeking to force upon us the cast-off silver currency of the same part of the world.

Respectfully, etc.,

MERCHANT.

PHILADELPHIA, September 8, 1877.

REPLY BY MR. WELLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Avoiding all personalities, as something in which the interest of the public extends no further than to laugh at those who resort to them in the place of argument, it is evident that the above criticism of "Merchant" is based mainly on a denial of my assertion, "That all trade is at the bottom barter," in respect to which he says : "To any one having even a rudimentary conception of modern commerce, the idea that two nations must revert to the primitive system of barter is even more absurd than if it were predicated of two individuals." To this I reply, first, that for one making pretensions of capacity to discuss economic questions in the public journals to assume that, by the broad term *barter*, used to characterize either the dealings of commercial nations, or the transactions of the Jersey farmer selling his cabbages in Washington Market for greenbacks, and buying his shoes in the Bowery—giving the very same greenbacks in exchange—is meant the primitive system of barter, is simply a reflection on the intelligence of his readers ; certainly on such as have had any experience in business. But as the circumstance that a question or assertion is silly is not always a good reason for refusing to answer it specifically, let me further explain by an illustration. Had I said that Wellington beat Napoleon at Waterloo, "Merchant" could as well have rejoined that the two antagonists never drew sword in the field, and personally were miles apart during the entire battle. Yet for more than sixty years thousands of writers and millions of people have said, and to the end of time will say, that "Wellington whipped Napoleon at Waterloo."

But let us briefly consider what actually does take place in international trade. If a vessel loaded in New York with American products to the value of $100,000 goes to Valparaiso, and there sells her cargo to fifty different merchants, and in return buys from other merchants in Chili (to whom not a dollar of the imported American goods has been directly sold) $100,000 worth of copper and wool, and returns with such a cargo to the United States, *such a trade in its broadest sense is a barter;* nor can a thousand pages of the broadest sophistry make it anything else. The same principle becomes equally apparent when we analyze an individual, in place of an international, act of buying and selling. The shoemaker sells the product of his labor expended on some leather. The purchaser of shoes, on the other hand, in the first instance gives money ; but, unless the money was a gift, was stolen, or picked up, he obtained it in exchange for his bricks, cabbages, leather, or some other equivalent of labor or service. The fact that this exchange takes place indirectly does not alter the principle. Trade existed before money, and would continue though all money was swept out of existence. The whole tendency of modern civilization is to diminish the amount of money used for effecting exchanges. The whole clearing-house system is merely setting off the results of the sale of one class of commodities against the sale of another class, without employing money as an intermediate instrumentality. No nation or community ever has sufficient money to pay for its outside or foreign purchases, or, if it knew its own interest, would use it if it had. The amount of money employed in international exchanges, furthermore, is the merest fraction of the value of such exchanges. The head of one of the great dry-goods houses in St. Louis stated the whole matter succinctly when he recently remarked: "St. Louis is now independent of New York or the sea-board cities. We export Illinois and Missouri wheat, and corn, and pork direct, and import our dry-goods direct ; our exports pay for our imports." Citation of authorities is not of much use in such a plain matter, but here is one which a good Philadelphia protectionist will probably not question : "Labor," says Henry Carey, "(or what is the same thing, its embodiment in the form of product), is the first price given for everything we value, and it is the commodity that all have to offer in exchange. The ship, the road, the mill, *and money* are all portions of the machinery of exchange, not the things exchanged." "Others mourn over the cost of maintaining the currency, while expatiating on the advantages of canals and railroads, not perceiving that the operation of the two are identical" (Carey on 'Money'). Exactly so, Mr. Merchant, and the man in purchasing shoes uses money in the place of a wheelbarrow, and to effect substantially the same purpose.

The next point in order of my critic is, that the Chilian merchant, if he could buy cotton cloth of American product cheaper than English cloth, would not fail to do it, irrespective of the willingness or unwillingness of the United States to purchase Chilian copper in return. On a small scale this may be true. On a large scale, the Chilian merchant would probably soon find out by experience what the people of the United States are now learning to their cost—that trade, in order to increase and be profitable, has to be reciprocal. No matter how much the farmer in Illinois may want cloth, and no matter how cheap the New York merchant may be willing to sell it to him, if there is an obstruction in the way of the farmer selling his wheat—or other product of his labor he has to pay with—whether that obstruction be in the nature of a bad road, an unbridged river or swamp, a range of mountains, a legal enactment like a prohibitory tariff, an expensive ship or railroad, or an unwillingness on the part of the cloth-sellers to accept anything from the farmer but coin—the tendency will be to reduce the farmer's consumption of cloth; and, if the obstruction be made sufficiently great, the farmer will not buy any of the New York cloth, no matter how cheap it may be offered in New York. Now, in the case of the Chilian merchant, the obstruction created has been sufficiently large to prevent his buying any considerable quantity of American cloth. The opportunity, practically, is not offered to him to decide whether he will purchase the American or the English fabric. Coarse American cotton cloth is cheaper and better to-day at the place of production—Fall River and Springfield—than its competing English product ; but when the American cloth gets to Valparaiso, the only thing the exporter can boast about it will be its quality, and not its price. But, why is this ? In great part because the American protective system, besides enhancing the cost of ship-building, has destroyed all reciprocal trade between the United States and Chili, and, reciprocal trade being wanting, there is no opportunity for the profitable employment of ships ; for ships, to be made profitable and carry freights cheap, have got to earn freights both ways—both in going *to* and returning *from* a market. While Europe sends on an average one large steamer every day in the year to some South American port, the United States has only one line, running bi-monthly, from Boston, established by a private firm as a matter of experiment ; and for this line to obtain return freights and live, it is obliged to take cargoes of copper ore and wool on British account, and transship them in bond at Boston for Liverpool, because the tariff practically will not allow of the importation of these articles into the United States. To transport goods from New York to the west coast of South America (via the Isthmus) is reported to cost $44 per ton, gold, and from England, $15 to $20. From Europe, by sail, to the west coast, the reported cost is from $3 to $6 ; and from the United States at from $10 to $12, gold.

But supposing that the American cotton manufacturer could offer his cloth in Valparaiso as cheap as the English, then, says "Merchant," "the Chilian knows that his copper will be sold in Swansea, and that the resulting bill of exchange will settle his debt at Fall River as readily as at Manchester." Now, this reads well and seems plausible ; but let us reason a little about it. If New York sells $100,000 worth of cloth to Chili there is naturally a profit on the transaction. If the $100,000 received are expended in Chilian copper and wool, and these commodities are brought to New York, there is or ought to be in the course of trade another profit ; and the American merchant gains both ways. On the other hand, if the Fall River cloth is sold in Chili, and a bill of exchange is bought with the proceeds of the sale, and the same remitted to the United States, there will not only be but one profit, but in addition a loss to the American merchant on the rate of exchange (which has to come through a third country) ; for exchange in Chili on London uniformly rules high—as high, we are informed, as from 12½ to 15 per cent. But from this latter tax the Englishman, because his commerce with Chili is reciprocal and in the nature of barter, is practically exempt. Technically, therefore, while a bill of exchange on London, bought in Valparaiso, will settle a debt as readily at Fall River as at Manchester, an American merchant who should undertake to sell cloth in Chili and buy exchange with the proceeds for home remittance and payment, would find himself "nowhere" in competition with his English competitor, and "Merchant," in implying that our manufacturers and exporters can profitably carry on trade with foreign countries on any such basis shows that, although he

signs himself "Merchant," he has practically little commercial information.

Again, as the policy our "Merchant" advocates has killed nearly all the direct trade of the United States with Chili, Australia, and the Cape, it so happens that the raw wool of these countries which we in the course of the year need is usually bought in England, and not directly from the countries that produce it. Hence it follows that we are obliged to pay to a third country another percentage or profit on the products of Chili and Australia which our manufacturers require, and which, if we had a direct trade or barter, could, of course, be avoided. Those who have studied most carefully the present conditions of producing the cotton fabrics which constitute the bulk of the world's consumption, tell us that the question as to what nation shall supply the world with such fabrics lies within the limit of a half a cent a yard on the cloth woven. If this be true, what chance has the American manufacturer in the present one-sided, imperfect, profit-destroying system of commercial transactions which the United States now maintains with foreign countries? There is but one answer. The American manufacturer-merchant is beaten in the race before he starts.

"Merchant" wants to know why, since we impose no duty on the principal export of Brazil (coffee), trade does not become reciprocal in amount between the United States and Brazil? If "Merchant" will enquire as to the relative rates of freight on merchandise between New York and Liverpool and Brazil, and study the influence of our navigation laws, and of our high tariffs and bad money in augmenting those freight-rates, and the prices of American products suited to the Brazilian market, he will be able to answer this question satisfactorily to himself and without my assistance.

In answer to his further enquiry, why, when the duty was low on copper ores a few years ago; and why, when we took off, in 1871, the duty on nitrate of soda, we did not begin to supply Chili with her annual need of 55,000,000 yards of cloth, I would reply, that just in proportion as we have made our trade reciprocal with Chili, in common with all other countries, our trade has increased; and just in proportion as we have sought to sell without buying, our foreign trade has decreased. We paid for what copper ore we bought of Chili, prior to 1869, in merchandise. We pay now for whatever of increased imports of nitrate of soda we take from Chili with increased exports of merchandise. But the fiscal system which the United States has maintained since the close of the war has so increased the cost of every species of manufactured product, and the cost of all the instrumentalities for effecting international exchanges—money as well as ships—that no large foreign trade for the United States or markets for the surplus of her industries have been possible; and until the past year, with all our increase in productive power, we have not sold—absolutely or relatively—as large an amount of our so-called manufactures to foreign nations as we did in 1859 and 1860, before the war. Inability to find foreign markets for our surplus has produced a glut of product at home, paralysis of labor, and reduction of wages. Prices under such circumstances having been forced down to an unnaturally low figure, exports, in spite of other adverse circumstances, revive. If "Merchant" is inclined to allege that all this is the result of the protective policy, I will agree with him. It is more responsible for the last three years of national distress than any or all other agencies. But for "Merchant" to declare that this is one of the anticipated results of protection—of protection working beneficially—is too absurd to attempt to contravene.

The Henry Carey school of protectionists, of which "Merchant" is evidently a disciple, are, and always have been, opposed to foreign commerce. Ellis Thompson, whose work is the standard text-book on political economy used in the University of Pennsylvania, teaches that the United States wants no foreign trade, and that the business of ocean navigation and the life of a sailor ought to be discouraged as contrary to American public policy. And Henry Carey himself has wished publicly over and over again, that the ocean between the United States and Europe was an ocean of fire, that could not be crossed for commercial purposes. I am sorry that the efforts of myself and others in the cause of liberty for trade excites the indignation of "Merchant." I can only say, as the boy remarked to his grandmother, who found herself kicked under the fence as the result of pulling the trigger of the old musket, which had been loaded ten times at the militia muster and never fired, "Lie still, granny; the firing is only just begun."

I am, yours respectfully,

DAVID A. WELLS.

NORWICH, CONN., Sept. 20.

Notes.

THE following announcements of forthcoming books should be added to those given last week:—J. R. Osgood & Co.: Rev. Joseph Cook's 'Monday Lectures' on Biology; a volume of sermons, 'Christianity and Humanity,' by the late Thos. Starr King, edited by Edwin P. Whipple; 'Lectures on the Centennial of American Independence,' by Dr. Joseph P. Thompson; a series of 'Choice Biographies,' edited by W. D. Howells; and 'Notes and Sketches of an Architect in the Northwest of Europe,' by Félix Narjoux. Scribner, Armstrong & Co.: 'Discoveries on the Site of Ancient Mycenæ and Tiryns,' by Dr. Henry Schliemann; 'The Beginnings of Christianity,' by Prof. Geo. P. Fisher; 'Faith and Philosophy,' by the late Prof. Henry B. Smith; 'The Final Philosophy,' by Prof. Chas. W. Shields; 'Surly Tim, and Other Stories,' by Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett, author of 'That Lass o' Lowrie's'; 'Hector Servadac,' by Jules Verne; and Charles and Mary Lamb's 'Poetry for Children,' of which the original edition has become so rare. Henry Holt & Co.: A new work on 'Money,' by Prof. Francis A. Walker. Harper & Bros.: 'Researches and Discoveries in the Island of Cyprus,' by Gen. di Cesnola; 'The Khedive's Egypt,' by Edwin de Leon; 'A B C of Finance,' by Prof. Simon Newcomb; and 'Art Applied to Household Furniture,' by Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford. Hurd & Houghton: 'California Pictures.'—We have received Part III. of the Supplementary Catalogue of the Public School Library in Adrian, Michigan. The works are entered consecutively according to their numbers, and an alphabetical index of authors (for the entire catalogue) is added. Bibliographical notes, drawn from various sources, and resembling Mr. Cutter's in his Lists of New Books, are liberally supplied. The collection seems very suitable for school children, and very fresh.

—"J. W. F." writes from Voiteur, France:

"It is very curious, in view of the recent discovery of the two moons of Mars by our astronomers, to read the following bit of pleasantry, written by Voltaire, more than one hundred years ago. You will find it in 'Micromégas, Histoire Philosophique,' a sort of imitation of 'Gulliver's Travels.' The enormous hero, who is an inhabitant of Sirius, rushes through space, accompanied by an inhabitant of Saturn, visiting several planets. On their journey, 'ils côtoyèrent la planète de Mars, qui, comme on sait, est cinq fois plus petite que notre petit globe; ils virent deux lunes qui servent à cette planète, et qui ont échappé aux regards de nos astronomes. Je sais bien que le P. Castel écrira, et même assez plaisamment, contre l'existence de ces deux lunes; mais je m'en rapporte à ceux qui raisonnent par analogie. Ces bons philosophes-là savent combien il serait difficile que Mars, qui est si loin du soleil, se passât à moins de deux lunes.' If this curious extract has not already been noticed by you, it cannot fail to amuse and interest many readers."

—The explorer Stanley began his journey across the African continent, which has just been concluded with such brilliant success, in November, 1874, at Bagamoyo, on the east coast. He was a year and a half in reaching Ujiji, but in the meantime he had surveyed the Victoria Nyanza, had crossed the intervening divide to the Albert Nyanza, and had explored the Alexandra Nile—the most southern tributary of the great river. He next, after his arrival at Lake Tanganyika, followed up the Lukuga, which Cameron had considered a veritable outlet to the lake, but which Stanley satisfied himself was such only in exceptional states of high water. Thence, pushing westward, he reached Nyangwe, on the Lualaba, Cameron's furthest point north, and in November, 1876, set out through Uregga, a district not found on existing maps, but presumably lying to the north, and perhaps identical with Balegga. The impenetrable forests encountered on this route compelled him to cross to the left bank of the Lualaba, into a country designated as Northeast Ukusu. The jungle again and hostile cannibal savages blocked his westward progress, and, having been deserted by the one hundred and forty natives engaged at Nyangwe, he was obliged, with the remnant of his original party, to take to the river in canoes and the boat *Lady Alice*. Fighting with the tribes along the shore still continued, and a series of cataracts met with just north and south of the equator could only be avoided by thirteen miles of forest-cutting, exposed to deadly attacks. Below these cataracts the voyage was somewhat easier. At 2° N. lat. the northerly course of the river bends to the northwest, then to west, and finally to southwest, when its width is from two to ten miles, and the stream is choked with islands. Hunger made a landing at length necessary, and fortunately a tribe was found acquainted with trade. They already called the river the Congo. Fighting was subsequently resumed with a tribe possessing muskets, and this lasted for twelve miles. On the 8th of August, 1877, Stanley arrived at Boma, at the head of the Congo delta; on the

14th, at Cabinda, on the coast; and on the 21st at S. Paulo de Loanda, where he was handsomely received by the authorities. His party (114 in number) was greatly reduced by dysentery, scurvy, and ulcers, and his last white comrade, Francis Pocock, had perished by being carried over one of the cataracts. His faithful body-servant, Kalulu, was also among the missing.

—The importance of Stanley's discoveries, in a geographical point of view, cannot be overestimated. They take rank among the foremost of the century, and are destined to give a new impulse and direction to exploration in Central Africa. Hitherto geographers had not conjectured that the course of the Congo approached the equator, but it is now evident that the river can be reached by a short cut from the Albert Nyanza, or from Schweinfurth's river Welle. This stream, if it should not prove a tributary of the Congo, may not impossibly be the upper portion of the Ogove, the last great river on the West African coast whose origin is a mystery. Stanley's conflicts with the natives about the Victoria Nyanza have been made the subject of much harsh criticism and pointed contrast with Livingstone and Cameron. His thirty-two battles from Nyangwe to the sea will probably invite a renewal of this censure. For our own part we have strong faith in his humanity, and his reluctance to make his way by force where tact might have succeeded. But there will be ample opportunity to discuss this when we have the printed record of his romantic three years' wanderings.

—That the people of India should live so close up to their means of subsistence that a single year's failure of the crops, or even a two-years' failure, should produce absolute destitution, has doubtless been unaccountable to many persons. A full explanation of the cause is given by Mr. W. G. Pedder in the September number of the *Nineteenth Century*. The agricultural class throughout India are in constant relations with the "saukars," a class having no counterpart in England or America, who combine the functions of general shop-keepers, dealers in agricultural produce, bankers, and money-lenders. They are very numerous in proportion to population, one village of 1,200 people containing nine, and another of 1,600, fifteen; they are found plentifully in the market-towns. They give the peasant a market for his produce, and supply him with necessaries not raised on his land. In bad seasons they lend him money, and in all seasons are ready to advance the cash required for the prompt payment of his taxes, for the celebration of a wedding, for the purchase of cattle, etc. The great majority of the peasants have a running account with the saukars. A peasant will begin perhaps by turning over to a saukar the produce of his farm for a year, and after the crops have been disposed of the saukar retains the money, against which the peasant draws according to his necessities or pleasures. This method becomes all the more convenient since the saukar is perfectly willing to allow his customer to overdraw his account, requiring only when this happens the execution of a bond bearing interest. Here, of course, is where the mischief begins. When an agreement of this kind has once been entered into, the saukar's interests are promoted by *not* having the agreement fulfilled. The original bond is then replaced by another for an enlarged amount, the interest charged being from 12 to 35 per cent., and regularly compounded. A peasant in a few years may thus pay many times over the sum originally borrowed, only to find himself at last still in debt for a larger amount than at first. It is very seldom that a peasant, once fairly entangled, manages to escape from a saukar's toils; but the increase of his indebtedness continues until all that he has, land, house, tools, and crops, is virtually the property of his creditor. The peasant in this condition is really the saukar's slave, turning over to the latter annually his entire produce and receiving back the merest pittance upon which to live. After a time, generally, the saukar forecloses and takes possession, the peasant remaining as his virtual slave or being driven off, as caprice or interest may dictate.

—In addition to such practices, all of which are legal and sanctioned by the courts, are the corrupt practices which inevitably arise from the extreme ignorance of the peasants, and their general inability to reckon involved accounts or to read the bonds which they sign. Their ignorance and poverty, moreover, incapacitate them from contesting in the civil courts the claims of their creditors. The ancestral lands of the peasants are thus passing into the hands of saukars, and the agricultural class each year becomes more and more poverty-stricken and hopeless. And all this, with much more still worse that we have not space to mention in detail, is taking place under British rule. Well does Mr. Pedder say that "British honor and the character, if not the stability, of our Empire in India are at stake. We justly reprobate Ottoman misgovernment and pity the unhappy peasantry of the Turkish provinces. It is a serious reflection that almost equal misery is being inflicted over a far wider area, under the best-meaning of governments and through the most scientific of systems." A commission appointed in 1875 to investigate the subject of agricultural indebtedness has ascertained that the creditors are generally unscrupulous; that the courts never enquire into the history of a claim; that no insolvency law protects the peasant; that the saukars do not bid against one another at land-sales, and that the peasants dare not bid at all, thus enabling the creditor often to secure very valuable land from perfectly solvent peasants at nominal prices; that under present laws a peasant borrowing 100 rupees may at the end of twelve years be liable for 1,139 rupees, whereas, under the law prior to 1859, to which the peasants were accustomed and which all classes considered just, not more than twice the amount of the original bond could be recovered; and that Government rigor with regard to the payment of taxes is a frequent cause of the opening of an account with a saukar. The action of the Indian legislature upon the report of the Deccan Commission will be awaited with deep interest.

—In the last number of the *Contemporary* an anonymous author discusses at some length, and with considerable vigor, what he calls "the newest thing in journalism"; in other words, the London *petits journaux* of the order of *Vanity Fair*, the *World*, and *Truth*. The writer, whoever he is, has not the lofty opinion of newspapers and the function of the journalist which we could wish to see prevail. Indeed, he declares that it is impossible to find "more than two or three newspapers such as honest men may read in patience and in some sort of endurance, if not of comfort. As to editorial writing, also, he entertains the most noxious heresies, objecting to the publication of "opinions" by the press, on the ground that better "opinions" can be gathered gratis "at any street corner, or in any bar-parlor, or on top of any omnibus, city or suburban." Holding this opinion himself of journalism in general, it is not surprising that the writer of the article should consider anybody who undertakes to increase the numbers of newspapers a grave offender. But it is not on this account that he objects to *Truth* and the other papers we have mentioned. His objection is a causal one. The persons who projected this new class of papers (new, at least, for England) must, he thinks, have been brought to the conclusion that the attempt was worth making by the following train of thought:

"These newspapers (*i.e.*, the old-established papers), in their attempts at the infinitely great, have altogether overlooked the infinitely little. They are bought, they are devoured, but their appeal is to the *gourmand*, not to the *gourmet*—to the cormorant in news, not to the epicure in scandal. If we divide a man into three portions, two at least of these portions are unutterably and mendaciously mean; in a word, such member of society, however he may attempt to disguise the fact, is a Snob *au fond*—a Snob not in the false sense adopted by modern society, and applied by it even to Mr. Gladstone, but a Snob in the sense used, with a power of dissection almost microscopic, by the late Mr. Thackeray."

He then goes on with an unusual force of irony to exhibit the journalistic processes of the new accessions to the ranks of the British press, and gives some of the choicest extracts (the "spiciest," as we should say) from their columns.

—It is needless to say that a very bad case is made out. The papers are evidently supported wholly by the love of scandal and gossip about well-known or titled personages which exists among unknown and untitled personages; worthless tittle-tattle, of the sort that it is generally a violation of decency to publish, even if true, and the truth of which it is, of course, absolutely impossible to ascertain. The article will, of course, do less than nothing towards correcting the evil which the writer attacks. Indeed, it will probably help *Truth* and her companions on their way. The surprising thing is that the whole tone of English opinion should have so changed as to permit their publication. There has probably always been in England quite as much love of gossip and scandal as there is to-day; and quite as many persons who would be ready to agree with the writer's Mr. Guppy that "by jingo, sir, it's pleasant to think that all those 'igh chaps 'ave their little weaknesses like one's self." But down to the present time the pride, sensitiveness, and reserve of "'igh chaps" have rendered it impossible for any one to get the opportunity of retailing the story of their private lives, and the scandals affecting them, *pro bono publico*. The editor, however enterprising, who attempted this a generation ago would have been made to suffer heavily in his purse or in his person. Now, however, there is not only no apparent objection, but the persons most concerned appear to like it. So long as this is the case there is no likelihood of the severest exhortation or reproof having

any effect in diminishing the sales of the scandalous sheets in question. It is fortunate that in America we are saved from the possibility of any imitators of them by the fact that the enterprise of our "great dailies" has already established so thoroughly the right of the journalist to explore every nook and cranny, however private and sacred, in the interest of "news," that a field which in England seems to be virgin soil has been already cultivated here almost to the point of exhaustion, besides which the difference of classes, which makes gossip about the "'igh chaps" so interesting in England, does not in our case exist.

—By one of those coincidences which biographers and the public are so fond of noticing, Urbain-Jean-Joseph Le Verrier died on September 23, the anniversary of the discovery of Neptune. Both his life and his character were more checkered than is usually the case among savants. By a curious paradox, although since the death of Hansen he stood by common consent at the head of the mathematical astronomers of the world, he was neither much versed in the modern mathematical methods nor possessed of great skill or experience in practical astronomy. The merits which made him so successful were a sound practical judgment, which included both scientific and business subjects within its scope; good executive ability, untiring industry, and great skill as a calculator—all directed in a single channel. His first considerable work, published in 1843, was a computation of the secular variations of the planetary orbits, a work exhibiting industry and skill in mathematical operations rather than originality. His next was that which made his name so celebrated—his demonstration that the observed deviations in the motion of Uranus could be explained by the action of an outer planet, a work which was fittingly crowned by the speedy discovery of the planet on September 23, 1846, so near the assigned place that it was impossible to have escaped detection. The merits of this work consisted in the combined boldness and soundness of the conception, the industry with which it was executed, and the brilliancy of the results, rather than in the mathematical power required for its solution. Indeed, the problem would not now be regarded as one involving serious difficulty; and that Le Verrier was not alone in ability to solve it is proved by the work of Mr. J. C. Adams, who really preceded Le Verrier in reaching an approximate solution of the problem. In 1853, Le Verrier succeeded Arago as director of the Paris observatory. Though he had probably never made an astronomical observation, he was the most successful director the observatory ever had. His plans for its improvement were good, and the éclat attending his scientific reputation gave him the public support necessary for their execution. He commenced the publication of a series of *Annales* devoted principally to those researches necessary to the perfection of exact astronomy, and especially of the tables of the planetary motions. Having almost unlimited funds at his disposal, he was enabled to employ all the calculators necessary for the execution of his work. Since 1854 twelve quarto volumes of the *Annales* have appeared, containing, in addition to a vast amount of other researches, improved theories and tables of all the larger planets, those of the two outer ones being, however, still incomplete. For these works he has twice received the gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society. A singular feature of all his researches is that he took as the basis of his work the methods invented by La Grange nearly a century ago, in seeming unconsciousness of the improvements which had been made by the mathematicians of the present century. Le Verrier's reputation for amiability of character was anything but good; indeed, there could not have been a scientific man in France so unpopular among those who surrounded him. In 1870 the dissatisfaction within the observatory reached such a height that the astronomers united in an elaborate address to the Minister of Public Instruction, accusing Le Verrier of every species of maladministration short of positive larceny, while about the same time he was imprudent enough to call the minister to account in the Senate, of which he was a member. In consequence, he was removed from the directorship, which was given to his principal scientific opponent, Delaunay. The latter dying in 1872, Le Verrier was restored after a long contest, and held his office up to the time of his death without causing further serious complaint.

—The contents of the first number of the *Anglia* augur well for the lasting success of the new enterprise. The first article is a brief but exceedingly pithy argument by Grein in favor of retaining the time-honored "Anglo-Saxon" as the technical designation of our language in its earliest stage. Grein shows, from a minute examination of Kemble's 'Codex Diplomaticus,' that in Latin documents between 889–1066 the word-combination "Anglo-Saxon" occurs no less than forty-four times. We hope, after such proofs, and after Prof. Lounsbury's article in the *New Englander* for January, 1876, that we shall have less harping upon "Old English." Zupitza gives a new text of the 'Poema Morale,' according to the Digby MS., and discusses the relations of the several manuscripts to one another, fixing the date of the poem at 1170. Köhler quotes several late German analogues to Chaucer's "Milleres Tale." Düntzer treats of the relations between Marlowe's "Doctor Faustus" and the German and English Faust-books. The legends of Celestin and of Susanna are reproduced from the Laud and Vernon MSS., and the language and metrical structure analyzed by Horstmann. The longest article is by Trautmann, one of the editors, who throws a good deal of light upon the much-vexed Huchown question. Henry Sweet offers a careful collation of Kemble's text of Salomon and Saturn with one of the MSS.; and Sattler a remarkably full collection of examples (from Shakspere to George Eliot) illustrating the use of "expecting from" and "expecting of." Among the book reviews, Leo's criticism of Elze's 'Shakespeare,' while correct enough in principle, strikes us as somewhat extravagant in tone. The editor-in-chief, Wülcker, reviews without mercy Arnold's recent edition (and translation) of 'Beovulf,' showing conclusively that it is of little value, and that it even ignores in places the best scholarship of Grein and Heyne. Wagner's review of Ward's 'History of English Dramatic Literature' pays a high but well-merited tribute to Ward's sound and liberal scholarship, and displays throughout the closest sympathetic study. The reviewer's emendations and suggestions will afford an invaluable companion-piece to the original. It would be premature, of course, to attempt to draw an elaborate and binding comparison between the *Anglia* and the *Englische Studien*. Both are good, there is room for both, and the professed student of our early language and literature cannot afford to dispense with either. So far as concerns the scholarship of the two reviews we fail to detect any marked difference, except perhaps that the *Anglia* is slightly more homogeneous in character. With respect to the substance of the articles, we hazard the prediction that the *Anglia* will aim more at comparative philology and grammar, and the Germanic side of the language, while the *Studien* will lean towards folk-lore, comparative literature, and æsthetics, and the Romance element. If so, they will divide the field between them very satisfactorily.

—A few months ago (see *Nation*, No. 601) we noticed some recent German monographs upon the history of the fourteenth century. We have received a few others relating to the same period. First is 'Die Auseinandersetzung zwischen Ludwig IV. dem Bayer und Friedrich dem Schönen von Oesterreich im Jahre 1325,' by Dr. Richard Döbner. It will be remembered that there was a double election in 1314, after the death of Henry VII., and that after an eight years' contest the Habsburger, Frederic the Fair, was defeated by his antagonist, Louis of Bavaria, at Mühldorf (1322), and taken prisoner. Dr. Döbner's essay is confined mainly to the events of the last year of Frederic's confinement; without bringing out any essentially new facts, he shows with great clearness, from Louis' own weakness of character, his controversy with Pope John XXII., and his inability to cope with Frederic's brother Leopold (one of the most capable of the German princes of the time), how vital a matter it was for him to come to some terms with his prisoner. The conditions upon which they at last agreed were very favorable to Frederic; but Leopold's unexpected death suddenly changed the aspect of affairs, and Louis is not without some taint of bad faith in his subsequent conduct towards his rival.

—One of the most thoroughly satisfactory essays of this class is 'Die Wahl Sigmunds zum römischen Könige,' by Dr. F. Schroller, published at Breslau. This election, at the death of Rupert, Count Palatine, in 1410, was disputed, like that in 1314; a portion of the electoral college choosing Sigismund, and a portion his cousin Jobst (Jodocus) of Moravia. Dr. Schroller shows clearly that the election of Jobst was valid, and that at any rate that of Sigismund was invalid—he having received but three votes out of the seven, one of them being his own vote as Margrave of Brandenburg, when Brandenburg was not fairly in his possession. Luckily Jobst died before the civil war, which was impending, could begin; and in the next year Sigismund—not venturing to insist upon his previous election—was chosen again without controversy and almost without opposition. This election of 1410 appears to have been distinguished in its class for intrigue and venality; even our American returning-boards would probably be no match in fraud for the holy archbishops of the German electoral college. Another treatise in the same field, although not of the same class, is 'Die Wettiner im XIV. Jahrhundert,' by Dr. Carl Wenck.

The family of Wettin was one of the great German princely families of the Middle Ages, and is almost the only one which has come straight down from the twelfth century, in uninterrupted occupation of the same territory. Their original seat was Misnia (the modern Saxony), and their capital Dresden ; towards the close of the thirteenth century they obtained also Thuringia (the Saxon duchies) ; in the fifteenth century, Margrave Frederic the Warlike (*Streitbar*) added electoral Saxony to his possessions, and thus became the founder of the modern house of Saxony. Electoral Saxony was, however, ceded to Prussia after the wars of Napoleon, so that the present territory of the house is in the main what it was five hundred years ago. The family was notorious in the thirteenth century for strifes between its members ; afterwards it became a peaceful and well-ordered house, producing a number of men of mark, especially Frederic the Serious (*Ernsthaft*), who was offered the imperial throne in 1348. Dr. Wenck treats of the history of the house in the last half of the fourteenth century, especially under Margrave William (1382–1407), whom he shows to have been a very able prince, and one of the principal founders of the power of his house.

GRIMM'S GOETHE.*

IN volume ii., page 296, of his essay the author utters the following opinion incidentally, almost casually :

"The career of this [namely, 'Faust,'] the greatest work of the greatest poet of all times and all peoples, has just begun, and we have taken only the first steps towards exhausting its substance."

The paragraph taken entire has the appearance of an innocent generality. But the single phrase, "the greatest poet of all times and all peoples," is one to make the thoughtful reader pause and consider. Is the author prepared to stand by his assertion ? We must bear in mind who and what he is. Hermann Grimm represents the second generation after Goethe's death. The circle of master-minds, the Grimms, Lachmann, Moritz Haupt, Savigny, the Humboldts, Richter, and the others whom we think of instinctively when we seek to revert to the brilliant period of the Berlin University, were young men when Goethe was slowly declining to the grave. They looked up to him as "the old master." Yet they have long since passed away, and now Hermann Grimm, the son of William, and nephew of Jacob Grimm, himself in the prime of life, comes forward with this latest tribute to "the old master," this greatest of all great poets. The unsparing art-critic, author of the standard life of Michael Angelo, has outgrown the flush of youth, and the hearers to whom he addresses himself are clear-headed, cool-blooded Prussians of the purest water. We can scarcely imagine him as wishing us to take his words otherwise than literally. Yet we do not cite his opinion with a view to defend, much less to controvert it. We cite it merely as a sign of the times, an index of that great revulsion of opinion which has taken place in Germany, and to which we have called attention more than once in these columns. Most of us are so misled by the empty Shakspere-cult in Germany as to take it for sober earnest. It is significant enough, therefore, to discover a Berlin professor lecturing to a Berlin audience and proclaiming Goethe king of Parnassus. This Berlin professor, let us not forget, has the entrée to the highest circles of thought, and to the sanctums where opinion is made, or at least forecast. His essay may be fairly regarded, then, as a summing up of the past and an outlook into the future of Goethe-criticism.

Yet it is set in anything but a dithyrambic key. It is rather analytic than sympathetic, rather explanatory than laudatory. Its aim is to unfold the growth of each of Goethe's great works, especially to lay bare the connecting link between the poem and its author's character, and to give the broad movement, but not the details, of Goethe's life. Those who approach the essay prepared to find in it a biography in the ordinary sense will be disappointed. On the other hand—and herein it surpasses all previous works of the kind—it gives the political, social, and moral atmosphere in which Goethe breathed and moved. We are made acquainted with the old, mediæval Frankfort of Goethe's boyhood, with the Weimar of Karl August and Frau von Stein, and with the Rome of the *Italienische Reise*. Comparisons are odious and also dangerous, yet we venture to assert that nowhere else, at least without making the most elaborate special studies, can one obtain such an insight into Rome of the eighteenth century and its inevitable significance for Goethe. We learn what Goethe meant when he wrote in the first outburst of enthusiasm: "At last I stand in this capital of the world!"

To attempt to give even an outline of a work that is by its nature concise and condensed, would be necessarily fruitless. Those who are at all familiar with Goethe's life know already what a complexity of elements it embraced, what a wealth of associations it embodies, what an array of names, talents, and achievements it suggests. Grimm has prudently refrained from characterizing every one whom circumstances placed in close contact with Goethe. He has discarded the accidental and unessential, and concentrated himself upon the "determining" characters and events. Hence the carefulness with which he treats of Herder and Spinoza, Karl August and Frau von Stein. On the other hand, he is the first, to our knowledge, to assert unqualifiedly the fact that Goethe, after his return from Italy, was a "made" man—that is, a man whose character was incapable of being further moulded by others. Prior to the Italian journey, Goethe had had more than one friend to whom he gave himself up unreservedly, with all his emotions, his intellect, his joys and doubts and aspirations. Friendship was to him in those days a blending of man with man, as marriage is a blending of man and wife. But from 1788 to his death, Goethe had no friend in this sense—no one whom he took into his entire confidence, no one to whom he vouchsafed more than a partial glance into his inner being. His world-renowned intercourse with Schiller, apparently a striking exception, is in reality none at all, according to Grimm. This intercourse turned upon literature and philosophy exclusively, and Goethe kept to himself his studies in art, science, and human nature. At best, Schiller only half possessed him. So far from "developing" Goethe, Schiller was the recipient, Goethe the giver ; and it remains an open question whether the copartnership was not for Goethe a disturbance rather than a gain—in other words, whether Goethe would not have moved on in his appointed career had Schiller never existed.

Grimm's essay is not more noteworthy in what it contains than in what it does not contain. We have been discouraged so often by so-called "defences" of Goethe from paltry accusations, that we are positively gladdened by the sight of any work that turns its back upon the chatter of scandal-mongers and leaves "the great heathen and sinner" to defend himself. Such accusations are of two widely different kinds. One is concerned with his relations to women, the other with his alleged want of patriotism. The former is touched upon by Grimm very lightly yet firmly, with what might be called a gentlemanly hand. Goethe's relations with Friederike Brion, Charlotte Buff, Frau v. Stein, and Christine Vulpius are placed in a light that is not only pleasing but informing, and that leaves the reader to draw his own inferences. There is also a respectfulness in Grimm's manner and tone that imparts itself to the reader, and renders it impossible to judge even the weaknesses of the great poet in a harsh, censorious spirit. As for the alleged want of patriotism, Grimm skilfully turns the attack by showing that it was begun, not by the men who suffered most from the catastrophes of 1806–1810, but by a much later generation, who misunderstood Goethe, and were led more by blind zeal than by discretion.

The general impression that Grimm's essay makes is one of power and insight, but not that of a perfectly finished work. The latter half of the second volume is too condensed and meagre. 'Faust' and the 'Meister' are sufficiently praised, but they are not analyzed as searchingly as 'Götz,' 'Werther,' and 'Tasso.' We are forced to doubt once more the possibility of doing justice to such a subject within such restricted limits, or the possibility in any case of securing the proper perspective. We are still too near the object. It is less than half a century since Goethe's death; Germany is in a transition state ; the dust of temporary political disturbance and the mists of traditional prejudice are still too dense. By the turning of the century we may look forward to clearer skies and that sobriety of judgment that comes only from great political experience.

* 'Goethe. Vorlesungen gehalten an der kgl. Universität zu Berlin. Von Hermann Grimm.' Berlin ; Hertz ; New York : L. W. Schmidt. 1877.

A HOMERIC DICTIONARY.*

AUTENRIETH'S 'Wörterbuch zu den Homerischen Gedichten,' published in 1873 and now just passing to a third edition in Germany, is a work well worthy of a translation into English, and a more competent hand for such a task could not easily be found than that of Dr. Keep, uniting as he does good judgment and sound scholarship with unusual opportunities for foreign study and culture. As long as American scholars are not ambitious to do original work of this character, or are unwilling to submit to the drudgery of the task, it is a matter for congratulation that the results of German patience and research are so often made accessible to our students in trustworthy English versions.

* 'A Homeric Dictionary for use in schools and colleges. From the German of Dr. Georg Autenrieth, Rector of the Gymnasium at Zweibrücken. Translated, with Additions and Corrections, by Robert P. Keep, Ph.D.' New York : Harper & Brothers, 1877 [1876].

We do not at all agree with the theory of many teachers that it is essential for the mental discipline of a boy that he should pick out the meaning of every word in the 'Iliad' from a ponderous lexicon, which ranges over all Greek literature and sets down all the varying shades of meaning which words assumed in different authors and at different periods. Whatever value this exercise may have is more than counterbalanced by its expense in time, and by the scholar's disgust at finding that all his needles are hidden in hay-mows. At a time when increasing importance is attached to the physical sciences, and when there is a growing inclination to criticise the laborious methods and inadequate results of classical study (even the president of our oldest university being understood to favor the exclusion of Greek from the required curriculum), it is incumbent upon the advocates of the ancient classical languages that they promptly adopt whatever is introduced to facilitate the learner's progress, provided it do not materially weaken his grasp of his subject or lessen the intellectual training of his work. After a boy has become well grounded in the rudiments of a new language, he should be encouraged to traverse its literature rapidly, so that he may pass over wide areas in a short time, and may get a comprehensive idea of the literary scenery through which he is passing. Otherwise there is danger that little interest in his journey or desire to continue it will be awakened in his mind. We are fully persuaded that a special lexicon to the complete works of a given author will greatly forward the scholar's progress, and that its use will not at all drive the general lexicon from its proper field of usefulness. Dr. Keep believes "that a pupil with this lexicon in his hands will easily read two pages of Homer in the time which, with the large lexicon, would be required for one page." If this be true, and it is no doubt substantially correct, no other justification need be sought for bringing this translation before the public.

But this book justifies itself in another way. It is, so far as the writer knows, the only Greek lexicon published in this country in which the etymology is based upon recent German scholarship. The American edition of Liddell and Scott is still misleading pupils and teachers with obsolete etymologies, and even the sixth Oxford edition does not follow its professed guide, Curtius, with entire consistency. Hence it is a real advantage to have at hand a book compact in form, moderate in price, and attractive in appearance, which may give even to school-boys the fresh results of linguistic study, and correct the false teaching of older and larger dictionaries. Of course, nobody will pretend that etymology is yet an exact science, and very likely the results hitherto reached will require in some particulars future revision, but they are at least based upon scientific methods of investigation, and further enquiries are likely to confirm them in the main.

If the Greek student of only a few years ago should now revive his acquaintance with Homer by means of this dictionary, he would find many new shades of meaning as the result of the new derivations of words. He would find, for instance, ἀδινός to mean *buzzing, restless, flurried,* instead of *crowded, thronged;* Ἀργειφόντης, a *swift messenger,* instead of the *slayer of Argos;* ἀτρύγετος, *unwasting, restless,* instead of *unfruitful, barren;* κερτόμιος, *sharp-cutting,* instead of *heart-cutting;* μέροψ (cognate with *mors*), *mortal,* instead of *dividing the voice, speaking* (still others connect it with the root of μάρπτω, and make it the *grasper, comprehender*). These examples will serve to illustrate the changes which have come over words since the comparative study of languages has become a science. In some instances both the derivation and meaning in the American edition will be found to differ somewhat from those of the first German edition, but all may be presumed to accord with the second edition, or at least to meet the approval of Dr. Autenrieth, as the proofs have passed under his inspection.

There is little occasion for adverse criticism of this book. In one or two instances the English words which the translator has selected to represent Autenrieth's Latin definitions do not apply to all passages. For instance, Autenrieth defines ποθέω by *desidero,* to which the translator adds *desire, long for,* neither of which is quite applicable to Od. ix. 453. Under νέμει the meaning *to drive to pasture* (as a translation of *weiden*) is assigned to Od. ix. 233; but in that passage Polyphemos is driving home his flocks from the pasture. The few actual errors of form or statement which a somewhat cursory examination has brought to light are mere reproductions of the errors of the German edition. In both editions κόπρος is made ὁ instead of ἡ; κυανοπρωρείους is found instead of -πρῳρείους, though πρώρα and -πρῴροιο are correctly given; under ὑμός it is stated that only ὑμή, ὑμήν, ὑμά occur, but ὑμῆς is found in Od. ix. 284. These are trifling defects, but all of them have been noticed while reading a part of one book of the 'Odyssey.'

The most of the German wood-cuts have been copied in the American edition, and they serve their purpose well enough of illustrating the articles to which they are attached, but as wood-cuts not very much can be said in their praise. For the folding-map of the Trojan plain given in the German edition the American editor has substituted a smaller but more useful plate taken from Kiepert's 'Atlas von Hellas.' Both favor Bunarbashi as the site of old Troy, but Dr. Keep is disposed to think that Dr. Schliemann's "discoveries go far to establish the fact that upon the hill *Hissarlik* the metropolis of the Trojan Plain, in prehistoric as well as in more recent times, must have stood."

This book is a noteworthy addition to the implements for classical study, and deserves to be placed in the hands of every reader of Homer.

Worthy Women of Our First Century. Edited by Mrs. O. J. Wister and Miss Agnes Irwin. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.)—This volume is a Centennial torso, one of many that have even less to show for the great design that failed of accomplishment. Lives of thirteen worthy women from the old thirteen States, written by women belonging in each case to the same State as the subject of the biography—such was the scheme of the Women's Department of the Centennial Commission. The difficulties encountered were what might have been anticipated; enough to say that the result is five individual biographies and one collective ("Women of New Hampshire"). The five worthy women were all living at the commencement of the present century, and were all born before it came in; their joint lives covered the period from 1735 to 1867. Jefferson's daughter, Mrs. Thomas Mann Randolph, had a great capacity for loving and suffering. The story of her checkered life is calculated to inspire respect and sympathy for her. Her education, begun in France in a conventual school from which, but for her father, she would have emerged a Catholic, was never carried very far; but her mind was naturally strong and well-balanced, she had seen much of the world before she retired from it to plantation life—if, indeed, the society of the distinguished visitors whom she entertained at Monticello could be called retirement—and her familiar letters are among the best which this volume contains. The anecdote which tells of her ordering a fine grove of tulips cut down without consulting her son, to whom they belonged, merely in order that she might thus secure a view of Monticello, perhaps does more than illustrate his filial forbearance. Mrs. Philip Schuyler shines chiefly by reflected light. Her husband's career supplies the bulk of her history; of her own deeds very few are narrated, and her one saying, "The General's wife must not be afraid!" does not, from a literary point of view, redeem the meagreness of the sketch. Mrs. Samuel Ripley, of Concord, Mass., has the most space conceded to her, and speaks abundantly for herself through a large number of letters. She was a lineal descendant of Governor Bradford, of Plymouth, and was born in Boston in 1793. Intellectually, she outranks all her contemporaries here celebrated. She was remarkable for her acquisition of languages and her general metaphysical and scientific studies, carried on amid a pressure of household and other cares which alone should have taxed all her energies. She began early with her books, it is true, but she afterwards became the mother of seven children, and aided her husband in teaching a classical school. The boys often in the summer recited to her under the shade of trees, while she went on with her sewing or shelling of peas. "Greek she especially delighted to read and to teach; but in her latter days botany was her favorite pursuit." At eighteen her appetite for theology was so intense that she learned German without the aid of a grammar. At forty, the only question of ethics which had a philosophical interest for her was one which Sir James Mackintosh did not settle, she complains, and Darwin had not yet begun to discuss—whether the moral element be original or acquired. The secret of Mrs. Ripley's acquirements seems to lie in her having neglected some absorbing practices: "She enquired little, and cared not much to concern herself, about the conduct of any social or public affairs; *she would never read a newspaper;* and she had little of the public spirit that gave so much character to the life of her contemporary, Mrs. Lyman, of Northampton."

Mrs. Deborah Logan had access in her own home to a library such as would have thrown Mrs. Ripley into raptures. She was never without thought of public affairs, nor ever free from domestic anxiety and occupation, but she was very fond of the study of history, and she played the part of Old Mortality in rescuing, deciphering, copying, and arranging a lot of old papers relating to the early history of Pennsylvania, which have since been published by the Historical Society of that State ('Penn and

Logan Correspondence'). Like Mrs. Randolph, she enjoyed the society of many eminent public men, both Americans and foreigners, to whom she extended hospitality in her noble home at Stenton. Among these was Washington, who afterwards mistook her at Mt. Vernon for the wife of a foppish French guest. His apology was couched in terms now obsolete: "Can you forgive me, Mrs. Logan, for supposing that you *belonged* to that man?" In the preface, by the way, we are told that "Mrs. Judson . . . *hailed from* New Hampshire, but was born in Massachusetts."

The least substantial chapter in this book is the sketch of Rebecca Motte, of South Carolina; the best, as a literary performance, is Mrs. Sarah Butler Wister's notice of Deborah Logan. Miss S. N. Randolph, Miss S. F. Cooper, and Miss Elizabeth Hoar are also excellent writers. Mrs. Francis W. Fiske's "Women of New Hampshire" is humorous and full of incident, but calls for a different standard of comparison. In conclusion, we would express our opinion that this collection of biographies fully justifies the pains taken to gather it, and will long be read with interest and profit.

History of the City of Belfast, in the State of Maine, from its first settlement in 1770 to 1875. By Joseph Williamson. (Portland: Loring, Short & Harmon. 1877.)—Belfast is about as far from Boston as New York is; or, more accurately, the spire of its Methodist church is in lat. 44° 25′ 29″ North and long. 69° 0′ 19″ West from Greenwich, as the Coast Survey has determined. Its title to be celebrated in a bulky volume of nearly a thousand pages is thus indicated by the author:

"A community of but six thousand inhabitants, which, within the space of little more than its last decade, sent over eight hundred of its sons to engage in the conflict for the Union; which, almost unaided, has built a railroad costing nearly a million of dollars; which has twice had the larger portion of its business territory swept over by fire, and which is to-day more prosperous and enterprising than ever before, must present some features in its history of more than a local interest, as illustrating the characteristic energy and persistence of the American people."

This is true; yet the features of more than local interest are not many. Belfast was originally settled by Scotch-Irish emigrants from Londonderry, N. H., as was most of the tract lying between the Penobscot and Kennebec rivers. The most remarkable thing about them is that they failed to transmit their Presbyterianism to the third generation, so that, as Judge Williamson says, "there is not now a single vestige of the denomination within our limits, which once contained a presbytery of twelve flourishing churches." The town's first settled minister was a Congregationalist, and the First Congregational Society lapsed into Unitarianism under its amiable pastor William Frothingham, who, as we are assured (p. 265), while averse to advancing "new or startling theories," was yet "no mere conservative. He did not fear to quote from Goethe, in his best discourses." There were no schools for nearly a quarter of a century after the settlement, and school accommodations are still behind the needs of instruction. There was a Social Library from 1800 to 1830, which, to judge from the first invoice of books, was bent on furnishing solid reading; and it gave way to the Lyceum, whose lecture courses have been maintained ever since, with occasional interruptions. The programmes here carefully recorded show a much stricter adherence throughout to the original idea of the New England lyceum than we ever remember to have met with. The risk of being frost-bitten in making the stage-journey to and from Belfast perhaps had the effect of keeping fancy rhetoricians at a distance. In January, 1857, the thermometer indicated —34°, and —32° in February, 1861. Nor was this extreme cold taken into account in the apportionment of earthquakes, of which Belfast's share in the fifty years 1821–70 was no less than eight.

The town was afflicted with a defaulting collector of taxes as early as 1804. The practice of selling paupers at auction to the highest bidder prevailed for many years, at least as late as 1818. "It was the custom to dispose of each one separately, like a slave; and the sum received was proportioned to the ability of the unfortunate person to labor. . . . Families were divided, precisely as in a slave mart." In 1813 it was "voted to sell Mrs. Bagley's two children at auction," which was done; the girl being struck off to Samuel Butman at four shillings per week, and the boy to Nathaniel Eells at five and ninepence. Belfast was abandoned by its inhabitants in 1779 in consequence of their participation in the unsuccessful attack on the British Fort George at Castine across the bay, after having taken the oath of allegiance to His Majesty. In 1814 it was formally occupied by the British for six days, but their behavior was unexceptionable. The militia had already fallen into contempt after the Revolution, and the influence of the war of 1812 in redeeming it did not outlast twenty years. The prejudices against musters and trainings "culminated in 1833 by the election of Asa Day—who is still remembered as an inoffensive, weak-minded old man—as lieutenant of the village company. He was chosen for the purpose of rendering the organization ridiculous—a method which succeeded. In attempting to exercise his command, a frolic ensued, and general insubordination prevailed."

Belfast has produced no great men, but Judge Williamson sketches the lives of not a few strong and interesting characters. He has culled out for this distinction the lights of the learned professions, and has also embalmed the names of civic officers and military heroes, of inventors, etc., with a fulness that leaves nothing to be desired. For the first century of the town's existence he has finished its history, and no gleaner can come after him. The numerous heliotype portraits and other illustrations scattered through the volume show good taste and add greatly to its value. The labor which this undertaking involved is beyond praise as it is beyond reward.

The New Revision of the Statutes of the State of New York. The Code of Civil Procedure. With Notes by M. H. Throop, etc. (Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.)—It is impossible to give the title-page of this work in full, for it is as long as an ordinary preface, while the preface and introduction and as long as an ordinary book. To sum up the matter in a very few words, it is the only authoritative edition of the new Code of Procedure of this State, which, after passing through as many strange vicissitudes as the lost will in an old-fashioned romance, has finally become law, and is "presumed to be known" by every man, woman, and child in the State of New York. It is safe to say that the work is a monument of painstaking accuracy, and its possession is for the bar an absolute necessity. The "layman" may dispense with it, as he does with most works on practice. This is the only official edition of the new Code, and contains a vast mass of valuable and semi-official notes (which must in a great measure guide the courts in future cases arising under it), all the unrepealed provisions of the old Code, and a table showing the correspondence of the repealed sections of the latter to those of the new Code.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*	
Allunde; or, Love Ventures, swd	(Charles P. Somerby)	
Ascension Day and Whitsuntide	(D. Van Nostrand)	$0 75
Ashworth (H.), Recollections of Richard Cobden	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	3 50
Bailey (J. M.), They All Do It	(Lee & Shepard)	1 00
Bowen (Prof. F.), Modern Philosophy	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Biblical Theology	(D. Van Nostrand)	75
Christmas and New Year's Day	" "	75
Edwards (Mrs. A.), A Blue-Stocking	(Sheldon & Co.)	
Fleischer (Dr. E.), System of Volumetric Analysis	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 50
Game Laws of Middle States, swd	(Fisher & Vanzandt)	25
Gautier (T.), Spirite: a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Good Friday as a Holyday of the Church	(D. Van Nostrand)	75
Hill (Prof. D. J.), The Science of Rhetoric	(Sheldon & Co.)	
Hodges (H. B.), Course in Scientific German	(Ginn & Heath)	
Huxley (T. H.), American Addresses	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Kempe (A. B.), How to Draw a Straight Line	(Macmillan & Co.)	50
Kingston (W. H. G.), Voyage of the *Steadfast*	(D. Lothrop & Co.)	
Kip (Rev. W. I.), The Church of the Apostles	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Krauth (C. P.), Vocabulary of the Philosophical Sciences	(Sheldon & Co.)	
Ladson (G. S.), Lotos Land, and Other Poems	(Peter G. Thomson)	
Littré (E.), Supplément au Dictionnaire de la Langue Française, Part 5, swd	(F. W. Christern)	
Mahan (D. H.), Industrial Drawing	(John Wiley & Sons)	3 50
Mayer (A. M.) and Barnard (C.), Light	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Mazade (C. de), Life of Count Cavour	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	3 00
McCoan (J. C.), Egypt as It Is	(Henry Holt & Co.)	3 75
Merriman (M.), Elements of the Methods of Least Squares	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 50
Morris (E. E.), The Age of Anne	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 00
My Mother-in-Law, swd	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	50
New Encyclopædia of Chemistry, Parts XXI-XXV., swd	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	50
New Schoolma'am: a Tale, swd	(A. K. Loring)	1 50
Palgrave (F. T.), Chrysomela: Selections from Herrick	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Parkman (F.), Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Perkins (F. B.), Devil Puzzlers, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	50
Pitman (R. C.), Alcohol and the State	(Nat. Temp. Soc.)	1 50
Phin (J.), Selection and Use of the Microscope, 2d ed.	(Industrial Pub. Co.)	
Ray (Prof. J.), New Practical Arithmetic	(Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.)	
New Intellectual Arithmetic	" "	
New Primary Arithmetic	" "	
Revelation of God	(D. Van Nostrand)	75
Sauveur (L.), Fables de La Fontaine	(Henry Holt & Co.)	
Schlegel (K. A.), Elementarbuch der englischen Sprache, Part I.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
First French Book	" "	
Scudder (H. E.), The Bodleys Telling Stories	(Hurd & Houghton)	1 50
Smith (Rev. P. B.), Fables de La Fontaine, Books I., II.	(Rivingtons)	
Smyth (N.), The Religious Feeling	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Sharp (J. C.), On the Poetic Interpretation of Nature	(Hurd & Houghton)	1 25
Spiritual Science	(D. Van Nostrand)	75
Spruner (Dr. K. von), Hand-Atlas für die Geschichte des Mittelalters, Part 18, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Stephen (L.), Essays on Freethinking and Plainspeaking	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 50
Turner (Prof. J. A.), Handbook of Punctuation	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Walker (W. L.), Rotation of the Earth, swd	(New York)	
Wylie (Dr. W. G.), Hospitals	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Wagner (Prof. W.), Plato's Apology of Socrates, and Crito	(John Allyn)	1 25
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Continued from page iii.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 4, 1877.

The Week.

THE Republican State Convention, which met at Rochester on the 26th ult., was looked forward to with considerable interest as being likely to reveal Senator Conkling's precise attitude towards the Administration. It was well known that he had taken considerable pains to procure the election of delegates faithful to himself, and it was suspected from Mr. A. B. Cornell's disregard of the President's order that his chief had hostile intentions. The public expectation was still further heightened by the report that Mr. G. W. Curtis meant on this occasion to take issue with the machine-men with regard to the President's "policy." When the Convention met it was found that three-fourths of the delegates were Conklingites, and that the programme had been arranged with great care by their leader. He draughted the platform; had Mr. T. C. Platt, an obscure but devoted member of Congress, made temporary chairman in order to enable him to open the proceedings by a violent and abusive attack on the Administration, and secured for himself (Conkling) the offer of the permanent chairmanship, but waived it in favor of Platt so that he might remain on the floor to do battle. Except a slight attack on Platt's flank by Mr. Forster, of Westchester, when it was proposed to make him permanent chairman, there was at first every appearance of "harmony," and, in fact, Mr. Conkling, on seeing the applause with which he was greeted, formally pronounced the Convention "harmonious." This happy state of things did not last long, however. Mr. Curtis put an end to it by moving a resolution by way of amendment to the platform, eulogizing the President and his course in the strongest manner, and followed it by a powerful speech calling on the Convention to support him both in his civil-service policy and in his treatment of the South.

In the evening Mr. Conkling replied, denying that the Convention, being a State Convention only, was called on either to approve or blame the Administration, while it had a full right to hold its peace about it; indulged in some gross abuse of Mr. Curtis, delivered with great vehemence of manner, and claimed for the New York Republicans the right to criticise Mr. Hayes if they thought proper. The platform, which he appears to have drawn up himself, is a characteristic document. It concedes to the President the right to decide when he shall use the military force of the country to protect a State government against domestic violence, and expresses the hope that the manner in which he has exercised his discretion at the South will turn out well; "insists upon purity, frugality, and efficiency in every branch of the public service," and offers the following plan of civil-service reform, which we venture to say will make all the "theorists" and "doctrinaires" hang their heads with shame. It bears every evidence of deep and protracted study, and does credit to "the great Senator." We reproduce the greater part of it:

"*First.* No needless office, or officer, or public agent should exist.

"*Second.* Compensation for official services should be fair and just, but in no case excessive.

"*Third.* Fit men, and no others, should hold public trusts.

"*Fourth.* Every official, high or low, should be required at all times faithfully to perform his duty and the whole of it.

"*Fifth.* No official or office-holder should be subject to political or partisan assessments, or to interference in any way with his political rights or action, and plain laws should forbid and punish all attempts to make or enforce such assessments, or to control or to abridge in any respect the absolute freedom in political action which in this country belongs to all voters alike."

There is only one thing needed to make this a complete instrument of reform and prepare it for immediate execution, and that is a sixth section, providing that every man in the United States shall do his duty in that station of life to which it has pleased God to call him. The platform further shows that no employer, whether private or political, should be allowed "to encroach upon or coerce others in the enjoyment of any of the rights or the exercise of any of the duties of citizenship" (*i.e.*, that the Custom-house men should be allowed to engineer conventions and caucuses as much as they please); that as there is only one Federal officer in the State to 152 voters, it stands to reason that this one cannot "dominate" the 152; approves of resumption; calls for co-operation and mutual consideration between capital and labor; castigates the Democrats; favors a State reapportionment and expresses interest in municipal reform, but refrains from any recommendation or even mention of the Constitutional amendments proposed by the late Commission and now waiting for adoption.

Altogether, the student of politics will not often meet with a better illustration of the full and efficient working of the machine. The feeling of the body towards reform was expressed in Platt's remark in his opening speech, that the question of civil-service reform had been "magnified into unseemly proportions," and had become a "shibboleth" that "nauseated the public." The proceedings seem to have "nauseated the public" thoroughly. The Republican press has been all but unanimous in condemnation of Conkling's performances, and it is admitted that they have made success at the election impossible, notwithstanding the general goodness of the candidates nominated. The result leaves the Republicans, however, in an awkward position. If they give the ticket a strong vote, they seem to approve of the Convention and its great author and manager; if they abstain, they give the State by a heavy majority to the Democrats. It has been suggested that they may be relieved of their perplexity by calling public meetings to condemn Conkling and his doings, or by getting the county conventions to do it; but censure of this kind, however strong, is pretty sure to be partial and ineffective. Conkling has got the best of the reformers for this election, and they must make up their minds to let him enjoy his triumph. Of the effect of his triumph on the great man's political fortunes, however, we trust there is no question. The Convention has been very important as marking the beginning of a split which will undoubtedly grow wider. Conkling has done what Blaine was afraid to do, put himself frankly at the head of the malcontents, and with such vehemence that he cannot retreat or compromise.

The Maryland Democracy held their State convention in Baltimore last Thursday. They spoke in very mild terms of the irregularity in the method of deciding the last national election; approved and will support the President's Southern "policy"; insist upon economy in public affairs; demand a revision of our present tariff laws, and oppose subsidies of all kinds. At a ratification meeting subsequently held, Senator Whyte, who had presided at the Convention, declared that factious Republican opposition to the President would find no aid among Southern Democrats. The action of the Wisconsin Democrats was in marked contrast to that of their Maryland brethren. For platform they adopted a remarkable hodge-podge, of which it is sufficient to say, in brief, that it opposed many things which should have been left unopposed—as, for instance, the demonetization of silver and the Resumption Act; and favored many things which should have been opposed—the taxation of bonds and their payment in currency, repeal of the Resumption Act, wholesale Granger legislation, a usury law, etc. Among its very few good points was opposition to subsidies and to high protective tariffs. A rabid inflationist was nominated for Governor. The Minnesota Republican Convention, held on the

27th, is mainly worthy of note as adopting a resolution pledging "submission to the popular vote of every proposition entertained for the payment of the State railroad bonds," which were recently repudiated by popular vote. The Convention also approved the President's course as regards the South and the civil service, and favored an early resumption of specie payments—silver, of course, to be remonetized. The present State officers were renominated.

We trust that the Indian delegation which visited the President on Thursday last will be the last of its kind. There have been several visits of this sort to Washington during the past few years, and they seem to be a waste of money and to produce no perceptible diminution of Indian troubles. In the present case, the chiefs made the old complaints about the dishonest agents, and the general cruelty and rascality of the white man, but accompanied them with demands for immediate civilization. Red Cloud asked for "everything for farming, including stock of all kinds, mowing-machines and ploughs, and a school." The only appurtenance of reform he did not want was horses, and he objected to going to the Missouri River this winter, as desired, owing to the abundance of whiskey in the neighborhood of that stream, showing that, like Niles G. Parker, he inclines to be a temperance "worker." Big Road demanded 1,000 boxes of money; 1,000 head of cattle, including 500 cows; 1,000 head of sheep and hogs; likewise wagons and a school-house. The extravagance of this gentleman's demands, Mr. Welsh explained, was due to the fact that, although a "clear thinker and a leading man, he had never been in the midst of civilization before, and was embarrassed by the present surroundings." Little Wound wanted two, four, and six-horse wagons, while Iron Crow modestly asked for "good grub" and to know how to raise his children. The President gave them plenty of good advice, and pointed out the advantages of an agricultural over a predatory life; but isn't it high time to make a real beginning of civilization with them? Is it not possible to get the coming Congress to provide the Secretary of the Interior with the machinery necessary for settling these people on farms or ranches, and putting an end to the present system of out-door relief with interludes of war? Is it not ridiculous for a great nation to have large gangs of mounted paupers under its care, whom it has to assail every now and then with a standing army, and manœuvre against and negotiate with through ministers plenipotentiary and envoys extraordinary? Sitting Bull is still up in Canada waiting for the embassy which is on its way to him, and which, he says, will consist of "preach-preach soldiers" from Philadelphia, for whom, however, he pronounces himself fully a match in 'cuteness.

The failure of the President's "policy" in West Virginia, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Missouri, and Illinois during the late railroad troubles was plain and apparent enough, and we have never sought to gloss it over. The State authorities made only feeble and ineffectual attempts to protect life or property, and "troops" had to be applied freely in all directions. Now, however, there comes even a more glaring illustration of the unwisdom, to use a mild word, of his course in not keeping two companies of infantry, at least, in the State-House at Harrisburg. General Pearson, the officer in command of the militia during the riots, and who, it is admitted on all hands, acted with but little energy, has been arrested in Pittsburgh and held to bail on a charge of murdering a man who was killed by the fire of the troops. The Mississippians have been abused a good deal, and for the most part justly, for their slowness in prosecuting the actors in the Kemper County tragedy in their State, but they have at last gone to work, and their Grand Jury has indicted a batch of the assassins, and it is expected that some of them at least will be brought to justice. Suppose, however, that instead of doing this they had indicted the sheriff for killing a man while endeavoring to suppress the riot, what would some of our papers say of the "policy"? How the blatant thieves who have been plundering South Carolina and Louisiana would raise their heads and crow. And yet for savage violence and bloodshed, and murderous intent, and general hostility to civilization, the Kemper County affair was not half as bad as the Pittsburgh affair, and nothing that has occurred in Mississippi since last March so signally illustrates the weak points in the "policy." We therefore think the State-House at Harrisburg ought to be occupied by a military force, and when the day for the meeting of the Legislature comes no one should be allowed to take a seat without a permit from Don Cameron.

The newspaper "interview," as a mode of communicating with the public, offers the advantage to the interviewed that he can never be held strictly responsible for the sentiments ascribed to him by the interviewer. If he makes a "hit" he reaps the benefit of it, but if he commits a blunder, or exposes a bad side of his own character, it is always open to him or to his friends to say that the reporter misunderstood him, or that his words were spoken in the privacy of social converse and were not intended to be given to the public. General Grant, for instance, is at liberty to say in his heart with the Psalmist, that all men are liars; but when he says in the columns of the *Herald*, through the medium of an interviewer at Edinburgh, that the late Senator Sumner was an habitual liar and the late Mr. Motley a disobedient bungler in diplomacy, the retort will involuntarily rise to many lips that a President who could give his confidence to Delano, Robeson, Belknap, Williams, and a long line of similar worthies, would naturally cherish a dislike to such men as Mr. Sumner and Mr. Motley, and would be but an indifferent judge of their motives, characters, and acts. Nevertheless, the public may be entirely mistaken in supposing that General Grant ever said these things to the *Herald* correspondent with the thought that they would be printed in the newspapers. More accuracy and less prejudice may be accorded to that portion of the interview which relates to General Grant's future movements and intentions. We are informed that he remains abroad partly from a desire to see more of Europe and partly from a desire to escape any present entanglement with American politics. If he were at home he apprehends that he should be charged with having a hand in all the political manœuvres of the day, whereas he desires to have nothing to do with politics "until everything settles down." Ex-Presidents of the United States have usually had no difficulty in letting politics alone, and in this endeavor they have commonly been assisted by the people with good-natured unanimity. But in the case of ex-President Grant there does not appear to be a disposition in some quarters to allow him to refrain, even if he were so disposed. Mr. Conkling, on his return from Europe, while sailing up the bay waving the American flag, alluded feelingly to the plain, unpretending, upright, downright citizen, etc., etc., so much in contrast, of course, to the veneered, stuck-up, sinister and designing crew who have since got into the White House. Mr. Platt, chairman of the recent Rochester Convention, was likewise charmed with the spectacle of an ex-President travelling abroad with the plain, republican manners of a citizen, instead of instantly clapping a crown on his head and forswearing his native land for ever. Now, if this frequent eulogium, this incessant "pointing with pride," has some reference to the coming time when the ex-President will feel at liberty to give his mind afresh to politics, its significance can be apprehended, and the question will naturally be asked what part he is expected to take in future campaigns.

The fraudulent issue of 11,000 shares of the West Philadelphia street railroad by the President, Mr. John S. Morton, in complicity with the secretary and treasurer, for the purpose of helping themselves and others through financial difficulties, furnishes the latest scandal of the hard times. Mr. Morton has been a man of considerable prominence in Philadelphia, and President of the Permanent Exhibition; but beyond this the only peculiarity in the case is the readiness of three leading officers of a wealthy corporation, whose stock stood far above par and was one of the "widow-and-orphan stocks," to combine in a bold swindle. They have, after

some delay, been arrested and held to bail. Morton's fall has had the extraordinary result of eliciting from some of the Philadelphia clergy and one or two religious papers the opinion that the revelation of his villany is the judgment of God on him for consenting to or promoting the opening of the Exhibition on Sunday. If this be true, we are bound to believe that God Almighty would have connived at Morton's frauds by assisting him in covering them up, and have allowed him to go on cheating innocent people, if he had only kept his show closed on the Sabbath day. We hope the rational portion of the religious world is alive to the effect which this blasphemous nonsense has on the influence of the pulpit and of religious teachers generally.

Another instalment of Tweed's testimony was given last Saturday. The record of votes upon a bill passed in the State Legislature during the "Ring" days, he states, does not always prove that men whose names are not recorded in the affirmative were not therefore bribed to help its passage. A man's favorable influence was often worth more than his vote, and was accordingly paid for, or he would be paid for his vote in Committee of the Whole, although absent when the bill went through the Senate or Assembly. A contract with José F. Navarro for supplying water-meters to the city, and for the payment of which a suit against the city for a large sum is now pending, was pronounced fraudulent, as was another contract with William Nelson, jr., for sewer-pipes. Several suits of E. Jones & Co., amounting to over $800,000, for stationery, were also said to be based on fraudulent claims. Jones & Co., indeed, appear to have been in the habit of supplying city officials with anything desired—crockery, trunks, saddles, harness, jewelry, writing-desks, sleigh-robes, etc.—and then charging the city for them as stationery. Any official who had authority to bring them a requisition for stationery received a desirable present, from a pocket-knife to costly pictures. The present suit of the Tenth National Bank against the city should, according to Tweed, be against Ingersoll, who borrowed the money on his own responsibility by depositing bills against the Court-house. Among the directors of the bank at that time were Tweed, James Fisk, Oakey Hall, Connolly, and Ingersoll. Tweed asserted his ability to furnish evidence in the suits of the city against Coman and O'Donnell for about $750,000. Disbecker (formerly a Police Commissioner), E. K. Apgar (now Deputy Secretary of State), and William Hastings received money from Tweed, although doing nothing for the city to earn it. Members of the Citizens' Association—Nathaniel Sands, Mr. Henry, and Judge J. F. Daly—were "taken care of" by Tweed, and their opposition silenced. The first was made a tax commissioner, the second a dock commissioner, and the third a judge. The Albany *Argus* and *Journal* were subsidized. Contradictions or explanations of Tweed's testimony have been made by ex-Senator Cauldwell, the president of the Tenth National Bank, Mr. E. K. Apgar, Judge Daly, and the *Argus* and *Journal*.

The public-debt statement shows a reduction during the month of September of $3,880,000, and since July 1 of $8,570,968. The coin balance of the Treasury is now $119,152,000, against $106,900,000 on the first day of September, and $64,890,000 on the first day of October, 1876. The legal-tender notes now outstanding make a total of $356,914,000, against $368,494,000 a year ago, and the general currency balance of the Treasury is now $14,200,000 against $12,594,000 a year ago. The sale of 4 per cent. bonds was checked long ago, and it is doubtful if more can be sold before resumption. The Treasury, however, has $100,000,000 4½ per cents, which can yet be made available for resumption purposes, and the market price for which rules sufficiently above par in gold to make their sale easy on the terms which the law permits. There is every reason to believe that, if the Resumption Act stands as it is, a gold currency will be secured under it on January 1, 1879. The Act is threatened on the one hand by the inflationists, who object to the moderate contraction it directs, and on the other by an influential class of hard-money people who want more contraction than can be got under the law. The latter are urging a law which shall permit the Treasury to sell bonds for legal-tender notes—that is, which will permit the funding of these notes into bonds. If it could be got, it would be well. The danger is that it will simply work to overthrow the present law. At the close of the week the gold value of the Treasury legal-tender note to pay one dollar was $0.9720. Although silver in London has advanced to 55¼d. per ounce, yet, by reason of the condition of the sterling exchange market, the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar had at the close of the week a gold value of only $0.9242.

There is a general lull in the Russo-Turkish conflict, owing probably to exhaustion on both sides no less than to rain, snow, and mud. The week past may safely be set down as the least eventful since the 24th of April, when war was declared by Russia and her armies began crossing the frontiers both in Europe and Asia. The startling figures transmitted of the losses sustained by the Russians before Plevna in previous weeks are more or less fully confirmed, while Osman Pasha's loss is variously estimated. The recapture, on September 12, of the redoubts taken by Skobeleff on the 11th is stated to have cost the Pasha three thousand men. The Russians officially admit that on the 22d he received a reinforcement of "about ten thousand infantry from Sophia, supported by artillery." Gen. Kriloff's cavalry, "posted to intercept them" with their large convoy, was forced to retreat from the rear of Plevna, and subsequently also failed to intercept a second Turkish convoy for that place, near Etropol. The Russians have been reinforced by detachments of the Guard, and expect still heavier succor. The Rumanians continue to sap and trench, and, if certain reports are true, have also attempted to capture the second Grivitza redoubt by assault, meeting with a severe repulse. These allies, formerly much ridiculed by correspondents, are now extolled by some above the army of the Czar, which a despairing friend describes as "completely at sea," having "no plan, no idea, no head." Todleben, who is reported to have succeeded Gen. Zotoff as chief of staff of the armies before Plevna, may supply those requisites for a new aggressive movement, or advise as to the localities most suitable for winter quarters, of which there is already much talk. The obstinate defence of the Shipka pass, near which Suleiman Pasha is fortifying his camp, apparently intending to winter there, shows that the Russians do not yet entertain the idea of retiring for the winter to the Rumanian banks of the Danube.

The report that the Turks had established themselves north of the Danube, opposite Silistria, was untrue, as was some time ago a more detailed account of Turkish operations near the mouths of that river, in the rear of Zimmerman's army. For what purposes those Russian forces have been kept for months, without a sign of life, in so unhealthy a region as is the Dobrudja, is, of course, not clear to us, but we presume that the preventing of a crossing by the Turks is their principal task, a secondary being not to allow Mehemet Ali to denude Silistria and Varna of their garrisons for the sake of strengthening his lines on the Lom. The western branch of this river has now again become the dividing line between the camps of the Turkish commander-in-chief and those of the Tzezarevitch, the former having withdrawn to its east bank after the late encounter, forced to do so by rains and want of supplies, or by fresh reinforcements received by his antagonist. If Mehemet Ali's numerous attacks on the Crown-Prince were made with the intention of dealing a crushing blow at a main portion of his command, he has failed to achieve his purpose; if his object was by constantly harassing the enemy before him to prevent him from sending succor to the army fighting Osman Pasha in Plevna, he has fully attained it. In any case, either the force he could dispose of or his strategic skill seems to have been unequal to the task of cutting the long Russian line between Biela and the Shipka pass, which, if ably executed, would have doomed Radetzky's command to a speedy flight from the pass towards Selvi, if not to destruction. The Tzezarevitch is now again extending his lines southward, but, though strengthened by portions of the Guard, he is said to be too weak for assuming the offensive.

THE ROCHESTER CONVENTION.

THE proceedings of the Republican Convention of this State at Rochester last week, whatever influence they may have on the coming election, are likely to prove very valuable as a contribution to the cause of reform, and as such are worth study. The Convention and its manager, Mr. Conkling, will probably do more to make clear to the people the nature of the evils from which the civil service, and through it the politics of the country, are suffering, than a year's preaching by orators and newspapers. No probable result of the introduction of the "spoils" system by Jackson was more confidently predicted, or more dwelt on from the very first by those who condemned it, than the deterioration in the quality of our public men. The event has certainly justified their previsions. There is, of course, as much ability in the country at one time as another; but the character of the men in power will always be determined by the nature of the means necessary to obtain power. If a high place in the public service is only to be had through fidelity, industry, interest in the great questions of the day, comprehension of them, eagerness to promote the legislation needed for their solution, and skill in the creation and maintenance of a healthy and enlightened public opinion on them, we shall have one kind of men for political leaders. If a high place in the public service can be had and kept through dexterity in intrigue, in "manipulation," in the distribution of patronage, the packing of caucuses and conventions, we shall have another kind. We have had since Jackson's day, and since the introduction of the "spoils" system, plenty of men of constructive power and high political aims in prominent positions; but they have had increasing difficulty in getting or keeping them, while the advancement of those who have really no taste for politics in the best sense of that term, but much skill in management and office-jobbing, has been becoming increasingly easy. The slavery agitation, while it unquestionably discouraged the growth of statesmen of varied interests and great constructive ability, like those who founded the government and moulded it into its present shape, at least brought to the front men of sincere convictions and lofty ambition. The Republican party was created and carried through the war by such men; and it was not until the close of the war and after the enormous multiplication of offices which the war caused, that the degradation of the civil service began to produce a distinct breed of politicians possessing no real interest in legislation, with but little disposition or capacity for the management of pressing public business, and relying almost wholly for success and prominence on the use of the Government service in the reward of personal followers.

Of this last class Mr. Roscoe Conkling is an excellent specimen. He came prominently on the stage just as the Republican party had secured a hold on power such as hardly any other party has ever had, and just as it had been placed in control of a vast and ill-organized army of employees and an immense revenue, and when the military successes and the heated condition of the public mind relieved public men of the necessity of displaying any higher qualities than zeal. As his good luck would have it, too, he made his way into the Senate from a State which had more Federal offices to bestow than any other in the Union, and he speedily became a very remarkable example of the kind of public men which the "spoils" system naturally produces; and his growth, as well as that of others of his kind, was greatly stimulated by the character of General Grant. Grant's ignorance of civil affairs, indifference to the proprieties of official life, and amenability to purely personal influences, opened a fine field to the professors of chicane and jobbery, and secured for them what they could not have had under any other President—the shelter of a name endeared to the public by invaluable military services. Stripped of the use of patronage, and compelled to rely on purely personal qualities for popular appreciation, Mr. Conkling would have appeared simply a *nisi-prius* lawyer of the second rank, possessed of a coarse and turbid rhetoric fitted only for purposes of invective, destitute of any wide culture or varied or thorough knowledge, but little interested in the pressing political questions of our own country or the drift of events in others, and without the least constructive ability or ambition. The title of Senator, however, and a large share of the appointing power (including the power of arbitrary dismissal), the unstinted support of the President, and the swelling port and indomitable conceit which impress the imagination of vulgar and needy followers, have really gone far to conceal these tremendous defects, and to enable him, in a way that at times has been almost comic, to excite the expectations even of the better portion of the Republican press, in spite of the fact that during the twelve weary years that have elapsed since the war not one contribution has he made, either in speech or legislation, to the removal of the woful confusion in finance and administration which that great and desolating struggle left behind it, except his share in creating the Electoral Commission last winter. Nothing in the political history of that period has been more curious, however, than the faith in his ability to do great things if he chose which he has been able to keep up. Whenever he has been silent for a while (and he is not a frequent talker), the Republican papers have been sure to begin to speculate in a childlike manner on what he was thinking about, and to hint that he would probably very soon produce the results of his meditations in a form that would let a flood of light into some dark corner of our politics and relieve the country of some heavy burden of anxiety; and at last to encourage him as the "great Senator" or "illustrious Senator" to come down and bring order out of chaos. When he did come down, however, it was almost invariably found that the subjects of his reflections in his retirement had been collectors, appraisers, gaugers, weighers, and tide-waiters, and that all he had to offer to the assuaging of great public troubles was a piece of violent abuse of the Democrats, sometimes in the form of naked vituperation of them, and at other times of equally naked glorification of his own party. When they thought him busy with Puffendorf and Adam Smith and Bluntschli, he was really busy with A. B. Cornell and Silas B. Dutcher. It is but fair to say, indeed, that he owes a good deal of his influence to the fulsome eulogies of many of the papers and men who are now abusing him.

Of course, as the passions of the war cooled, and the public grew more critical and the times became more trying, the successful performance of his rôle became more difficult, and he had begun to be generally recognized as a simple machinist before the Cincinnati Convention met—sufficiently so to make the attempt to nominate him there on a reform platform a somewhat ludicrous failure. But it was plain from the moment Hayes was elected that if he were the man his friends said he was, and made an honest attempt to execute the promises which the Republicans had been so many years making in their platforms, he would have Mr. Conkling for his bitter enemy. It was as idle to expect that the Senator would acquiesce in an attempt to place the Republican party on the path of constructive progress, to give it work of healing and reformation and improvement to do, as it would have been to expect Demetrius the silversmith to take the stump against Diana. To join Mr. Hayes in pacifying the South and reforming the civil service, would be helping to banish from the arena the subject with which he is most familiar, and to destroy the art in which he most excels.

It was the somewhat desperate condition of his political affairs, undoubtedly, which led to the revelation at Rochester of the undraped working of the machine; for the spectacle justified and illustrated nearly everything that reformers have been saying about civil-service abuse. A convention is, in theory, a body which *deliberates* on nominations, and is composed of free delegates from all parts of the State. When this one at Rochester met, however, it was found to be two-thirds composed of the adherents of Mr. Conkling and completely under his control, so that he did not even need to inform them of his intentions. As if to exhibit the full extent of his mastery over them, he produced a Mr. T. C. Platt, one of "his henchmen," as temporary chairman, to enable him to make a silly and abusive speech directed against the Administration, and then, departing suddenly from the revealed

programme, made him also permanent chairman, Platt's only title to distinction of any kind being his fidelity to Mr. Conkling. The convention, therefore, was really no more a deliberative body than if Messrs. Conkling and Platt only had composed it, and, meeting together in a room, had issued printed slips containing speeches, and nominated certain persons for offices; and yet the Republicans of the State will be bound to elect the persons so nominated unless they are ready to give the State to the Democrats. The only reason why Mr. Conkling is able to get up a convention of this sort, and not only set at defiance the preponderating opinion of the party, but violate the strongest party usage, by abuse of the President elected by the party, and by derision of the party platform on which he was elected, is his long hold on Government patronage, and the skill of the large personal following he has thus acquired in "controlling primaries." He is, in fact, himself the product of the abuse. As a politician of power and prominence, he is really a compound of collectors, appraisers, gaugers, and weighers. He is made up of them, and draws his whole sustenance from them. But we may be sure that if he had not felt that the end was approaching, he never would have shown the public as unblushingly as at Rochester the sources of his strength and influence, or stripped his rhetoric so completely, in his somewhat ruffianly attack on Mr. Curtis, of the tawdry embellishments and "amenities" by which he usually seeks to disguise its cheapness and flimsiness.

THE "CHEMICAL METHOD" IN POLITICS.

WE publish elsewhere a letter from "Merchant" closing a controversy with Mr. David A. Wells, to which we gave up a considerable portion of our space last week. Which of the two disputants has had the best of the fight as to facts we must leave our readers to decide. We cannot, however, let "Merchant" pass from the scene without saying a word upon a point which seems to interest him greatly, and on which he has indirectly based some reproaches against ourselves—namely, the "extraordinary processes of so-called reasoning" to which some people who have much to say about politics and political economy occasionally resort. We must point out to him, what he does not apparently perceive, that the process of "exclusion" which he accuses Mr. Wells of using improperly in advocating free-trade is one of which "Merchant" himself is guilty in advocating protection; that, in fact, there is no process which protectionists and loose-thinking politicians of all schools use so much, and that when applied to political and economical questions it is always misleading and often ridiculous. For instance: Mr. Wells (admitting that he speaks as absolutely as "Merchant" says he does) ascribes the smallness of our trade with Chili to our inability to compete with our commodities in the Chilian market with English rivals; and to the exclusion of any other cause. It is this, says he (on "Merchant's" assumption), and it cannot be anything else. Now, the objection to this process is that it cannot be properly used except where you have possession of all the facts without any manner of doubt, and can rearrange them, by way of experiment, so as to test the result by the Method of Agreement, or Method of Difference, or Method of Residues, as Mill calls them. It is, in fact, the Chemical Method, the application of which to social phenomena he ridicules in one of his chapters. Therefore, people who know how to reason on politics do not use it, and do not assert that their conclusions have more than an approximation to accuracy or are more than probable.

This Chemical Method is, however, the very one "Merchant" uses himself, strange as it may appear, and apparently without knowing it, touchy as he is about logic; for to Mr. Wells's assertion that the Chilians do not buy of us but of the English because they cannot sell to us, he opposes with equal absoluteness the much more untestable causes that "commerce moves in ruts"; "that possession is nine points of the law"; that "a course of trade once established is hard to divert"; that Manchester will stop at nothing to hold its own, and that the Chilians are of Spanish descent. This is the Chemical Method in its worst form, or, in other words, "the process of exclusion" run into the ground. Mr. Wells's assertion admits of a closer approximation to proof, for it might be supported by a high degree of probability—such, for instance, as would be created by examining American traders with Chili as to the immediate cause of their inability to sell goods there, or by an investigation of the most prominent condition of all active international trade, which is undoubtedly, although "Merchant" talks as if he had never heard of it, the possibility of a double profit—that is, of gain on both sides in an exchange of goods—and of economical carriage in the existence of freight both ways. The absence of this condition in a given case does create a high degree of probability that it is the cause of non-intercourse. But to offer to substitute for this two or three generalizations, such as that the course of established trade is hard to divert, that Manchester manufacturers are enterprising and unscrupulous, and that people of Spanish blood are conservative, is the *à priori* method pure and simple. No logical examination of such assertions is possible. At best they can only strengthen an argument. You might argue in the same way that New England prosperity was due to its stony and barren soil; that Frenchmen had failed in Canada owing to the language, the Europeans near them, who spoke a different language, having succeeded; that the astonishing growth of English commerce and manufactures since 1750 was due to the rapid increase, *pari passu*, and great size of the national debt; that Turkey owed her present unfortunate condition to her low tariff (this assertion has actually been made in these columns by a protectionist), and so on.

We do not say that free-traders are not guilty of this kind of fallacy. All men who are greatly interested in any social or political movement are almost certain, in the excess of their zeal, to assign undue efficiency to some one agency, or make one agency out of many possible ones the cause of the whole body of effects known as the political or economical condition of a state. Sometimes the argument is ridiculous on its face; but usually it is plausible enough to produce a powerful impression. Protectionists use it as freely as any other school, and aggravate it by habitual and almost fanatical prophecy. They will not only ascribe national prosperity, in any given case, to high duties, but predict with great violence that high duties applied to any state of society will produce prosperity also. "Merchant" does this with the utmost freedom in both his letters. He promises without hesitation that if we stick to protection as long as England has, we shall eventually rob her of her foreign trade, and in his zeal—for the Chemical Method is rarely used in cold blood—accuses anybody who doubts it of a desire to assist Manchester, and mentions, as if it were a well-known fact, that we have as yet only tried a high tariff for "a year or two," or "a couple of years."

The various essays one reads from both sides on the causes of the prevailing business depression contain excellent examples of the Chemical Method in full blast. The free-traders, for instance, who ascribe it wholly to the high tariff, leave out of sight the fact that the depression exists in England, where there can hardly be said to be a tariff, and in Germany, where there is a moderate one. The protectionists, on the other hand, pretend that the object of the high tariff always was the production of low prices at home, and "point with pride" to the existing cheapness of everything, and the possibility of selling certain American goods abroad now which we were never able to sell before, as proof of the triumph of their system. It is not wonderful that in this confusion of opinions among doctors, plain people should doubt seriously whether there is such a thing as political or economical science. Nor is there, if by the word science we mean an exact science like chemistry or mathematics. In reasoning about social and political phenomena a properly-trained man is only reasoning about probabilities and tendencies, and only expects to approximate to accuracy. The one proposition an economist or politician can lay down with certainty is that security is necessary to prosperity. When he advances beyond this he has to be careful, and try to keep *all* the facts of the case fully in mind. For instance, if you assert that heavy taxation paralyzes

industry, you have to make allowance for national character and habits: the French, for instance, have never been so productive and prosperous as since the enormous burdens of the late war were laid on them. If you say that a low tariff will stimulate trade and industry, you have to enquire in any given case what kind of government there is behind the tariff: Turkey, for instance, has long been declining under free-trade. If you say that universal suffrage is the best basis for liberty, you have to enquire in any given case what kind of people the voters are, what sort of training they have had, and what their social and political ideals are. If you promise unlimited prosperity and happiness from high duties, or non-intercourse with foreigners, which is protection in its perfect form, you have still to account for the condition of the Chinese, and for the condition of the French in 1790, and for the present deplorable condition of trade and industry in the United States. It is in making these allowances, in balancing probabilities and marking tendencies, that political and economical judgment is shown, and not in working out geometrical conclusions from axioms of your own invention. But for the creation and maintenance of such a judgment evenness of temper is needed. What deprives the arguments of our Pennsylvania friends on all these subjects of most of their force is that they are apt to be produced in the spirit and language of fanaticism, with almost sacerdotal vehemence. If it were possible to deal with the facts of politics and trade as with the facts of chemistry, this would be of little consequence. It does not make any difference how frantic a chemical lecturer is, because he experiments before our eyes, and leaves out this and puts in that, until the desired result is produced. But in sociological investigations, where the elements in the calculation are innumerable and hard to get together, and where you may, if you please, exclude half a dozen of the most important without detection, a condition of holy indignation or furious patriotism deprives, or ought to deprive, a man's arguments of all weight.

NORTHERN SUMMER "RESORTS."

SEPTEMBER 28, 1877.

SUMMER resorts are mainly, indeed almost exclusively, called into existence for the benefit of city people. It is this class which needs them and which supports them. Hence we should expect that the best places of the kind would be not far from the larger cities. We should also expect that the class of city people needing such places would be a well-to-do class, confined to the city for most of the year and going into the country with entirely different notions of the proper way of living and enjoying one's self from that generally prevalent in rural communities, where life is monotonous and the scale of living very moderate. We should, in fact, expect to find them radically different from the ordinary country population, more fastidious, more careful of their comfort, expecting attention, civility, deference. We should also expect, correlatively, that the demand would create a supply, and that in the neighborhood of a city like New York, which has been in existence for over two hundred years and with its suburbs maintains a population of some two millions, there would be dozens of nice, quiet hotels or boarding-houses where these facts to which I have just adverted are recognized, and where no pains have been spared to render the places beautiful and attractive to the eye as well as comfortable. Yet far from this being the case, the whole attraction of the American "resort" proprietor or projector seems to have been directed simply to finding out some new spot remarkable for the height of its mountain or waterfall, the coolness of its air, or the health-giving properties of its waters, and putting up a big hotel and then letting it "run" itself. The whole south side of Long Island, within fifty or sixty miles of New York, has been managed in this way. This is the natural seaside resort of New York, but it is to this day as remote and uninviting as if it were two hundred miles away. Instead of being able to get into a car at Forty-second Street and, crossing the East River by tunnel or bridge, be in an hour at any part of this coast within forty miles, it is an expedition of some difficulty and much discomfort to get there at all; and when you get there, what do you find? Simply that on some long, low sand-spit a gigantic hotel has been built, at which very high prices are charged for obtaining, under circumstances of great discomfort, the opportunity of breathing pure air. Nothing has been done to render these places attractive. They are all exactly alike.

A place which might be expected by this time to have developed to an almost ideal excellence is the Catskills. It has been in existence a long time; it is within a hundred miles of the city; yet being on an elevated plateau, the temperature is always about twenty degrees lower than it is here; the scenery is picturesque beyond description; there are lovely walks, rides, and drives. I have often wondered why it is not thronged with people. This summer, in company with two fellow-sufferers, I discovered the reason. The place is in many respects typical, and I propose to give you the result of my experience.

Starting in the afternoon by an express train, we found ourselves, after between three and four hours, opposite Catskill village, on the Hudson, and apparently near our journey's end. This was about six o'clock. On the other side of the river could be seen our goal, and we congratulated ourselves in advance on the shortness of the journey. As a matter of fact, it had only just begun. One hour was consumed in getting across the river and waiting for the coach to drive up. I have preserved a diary of the next six hours, kept for my amusement in the manner of the author of 'Happy Thoughts'; it is as follows:

Seven o'clock.—Mount the top of the Mountain House coach and dispose ourselves as comfortably as we can between one another's knees. The horses present an appearance which promises at least four and a half miles an hour unless the road is very steep. The agent of the hotel says "we shall be there in three hours."

First Hour.—Pass through Catskill village and into the country beyond. Village picturesque; somewhat Dutch in character; suggests reminiscences of Washington Irving, Rip Van Winkle, Jefferson, etc.; conversation lively and intelligent. Distance made in the first hour two miles and a half over an almost level road.

Second Hour.—Cooler; ask the driver how far it is; tell him we were told it was twelve miles to the top. He says: "More'n that." We beg to know how much more, but can find out nothing very definite. Road still almost level. Distance accomplished in second hour two miles and a half.

Third Hour.—Road still good; express surprise at slowness; driver gives no explanation. Horses have not yet turned a hair. Conversation flags. Very difficult to keep on top of coach. Conversation stops altogether. Signs of ill-temper on part of fellow-traveller, who is sitting on box-seat between my knees. Fall asleep, and dream of coaching in the olden time.

Fourth Hour.—Waked up by nearly falling off. Ask how far we have got. Find we have made two miles and a half. Road still level.

Fifth Hour.—Great and increasing discomfort. Suggest to driver that agent must have been mistaken in saying we should get there in three hours. Driver thinks he was. *He* never knew a coach to get there in three hours, not since he has been on the road. "Now, if it was coming down it would be different." Distance in fourth and fifth hours two miles and a half each.

Sixth Hour.—Driver points out "Sleepy Hollow" and Rip Van Winkle's chair, and begins to go slower. We ask why. He says it is because of the steepness of the road. We go at a walk the remainder of the way, which is really steep, and at half-past twelve arrive at the top of the mountain. Suddenly a fierce energy seizes upon the driver. He grasps the reins, excites his horses with voice and whip, and, getting the whole team into a gallop, dashes into the courtyard of the Mountain House at the rate of ten miles an hour.

I should prefer to draw a veil over the rest of the night, but truth compels me to go on. Four piratical-looking blacks appear at the door, and, taking possession of our baggage, disappear with it. The hotel is dark and dreary. Nobody is up but the sleepy clerk in the office, who informs us that we cannot have the rooms we telegraphed for (three separate single rooms), but only one single and one double room. This he tells us, not apologetically, but with that indescribable surliness of hotel-clerks which seems founded on an impression that the traveller is a noxious beast, fond of asking impertinent questions, and who must be answered as little as possible. We apologize to the clerk for the trouble we are giving him, and say that we should prefer single rooms, even if we have to go to the top of the house for them. He replies in a meaning tone that in that case we can have them; and one of the pirates, who has been lurking in the rear, immediately reappears upon the scene and leads the way to the top of the house. The rooms are three cells—neither bigger nor smaller than the cells in a well-regulated prison, and but little more comfortable. On seeing them we are seized with homesickness, and return to the office. Being a little in the rear, I get there just as the first of us has engaged the hotel-clerk in conversation and is charging him with his crimes, and is demanding better rooms. He describes in eloquent

terms our social position and standing at home, the iniquity of the treatment to which we are being subjected, and the certainty of punishment both in this world and the next. The clerk is so much amused by this that he bursts out laughing in our faces. The result of our negotiations is that at about one o'clock in the morning we succeed in getting into our original rooms. There is no lock on the door, though it is the ground-floor of the hotel. There is no water in the pitchers, and no towels. The blacks, very ill-looking fellows, crowd round, probably for their fees, but looking as if they were contemplating robbery and murder. We notice that there are no boots outside the doors (a rather alarming phenomenon, as it looks as if there were no one in the house but ourselves), and on enquiring the reason, are informed that "few people put their boots out," a custom explained the next day by the discovery that there is a regular charge for boot-blacking in the bill. At length we go to bed, and, not knowing very well what sort of a place we have got into, take the precaution of moving our trunks against the door to prevent a surprise.

Space would fail me to detail all the variety of suffering that the unwary traveller at Catskill has to endure. Does he wish to shorten the journey to the hotel by hiring horses? We were told that, in that case, the prejudice created in the landlord's mind by such an act of mutiny would be so great that no rooms would be given him until the arrival of the regular coach. Does he wish to change his quarters, and go to the Laurel House? It is almost impossible to obtain a conveyance. Does he wish to have a bath? There are no bath-rooms in the house, although the hotel will hold four or five hundred people. Does he take a long walk, and afterwards try to get something substantial for tea? He will be told (at least I was) by the head-waiter that "the cook says he isn't cooking now."

Now, the old American criticism upon this sort of thing used to be that it was the fault of the landlord, who was denounced as a monopolist, or as being "behind the times." And indeed this is true enough in this case. The road, for instance, seems to be entirely in his hands, and he keeps up his villanous line of Concord coaches, at two miles and a half an hour, when there is nothing in the world to prevent a railroad being built to the foot of the mountain, with a stationary engine to haul people to the top inside of an hour. But it is now generally admitted that the fault lies with the public quite as much. The public does not insist on its rights. Out of the three hundred or so people in the house at the time we were there I think our party was the only one that made any complaint. If you talked to them you found that they were aware of the existence of abuses, but, like people long accustomed to imposition, were very dimly aware of the possibility of effecting anything by complaints. The fact is that the reason why a supply of attention, care, consideration, and politeness does not exist at most of our Northern watering-places is that the demand does not exist. The public that goes to them has no fixed standard of comfort, and is not accustomed to insisting upon its being given them. Until this habit of requiring and insisting upon proper attention has been much more generally acquired throughout the North I do not see how Northern watering-places are to change materially their present character. Catskill may seem at first an exceptional case, but it is really an exaggerated type. The fundamental difficulties in the way of the creation of really comfortable watering-places at the North exist everywhere. At such a place as Catskill there is a faint effort at recognizing the fact that the city population which spreads itself over the country for the summer months has certain wants and tastes, and a certain standard of comfort of its own, which it is the landlord's duty not to repress but to satisfy. But one step further, and we find ourselves in the midst of a summer civilization in which there is not even a faint effort. Let any one who doubts this go to the Adirondacks and see for himself. He will find that the rural population which keeps the hotels in that beautiful wilderness (even as near as it is to New York) does not apparently suspect that there is not an absolute identity of tastes, feeling, acquirements, and standards of comfort between the people who come from the city for a week or two of country life and themselves. They have apparently no idea of the differences that are produced in people by different circumstances and modes of life. In the Adirondacks, at many of the hotels, if you ask a servant a question, it is ten to one that she sits down in the chair next to yours and proceeds to answer it as if she were an old and valued friend. At Mount Desert, where a sudden inroad of tourists, ten years or more ago, suddenly converted the place into a "resort," and every country fisherman's house into a "hotel," the native population were so wholly persuaded of the identity in feeling and taste between themselves and their "boarders" that they did not even pretend to attempt any change in their manner of housekeeping, but went on cooking exactly the same unappetizing food and shaking down the same unendurable beds for the new-comers that they would have given to a lot of shipwrecked half-breeds from the lower St. Lawrence. They did not know any better, because they had led an out-of-the-way, barbarous existence so long that other ways of life were simply unintelligible to them.

From what I have said it follows that we shall never have thoroughly comfortable summer life in the United States except in places where the existence of a different standard of taste and comfort is recognized and acted upon. And this is not likely to be the case in any but exceptional places, unless the existence of such differences is insisted upon by the aggrieved tourist and pleasure-seeker in the most emphatic way. The American passion for making the best of everything, and standing imposition with a smiling face, however admirable it may be as a moral quality in the abstract, is fatal to the improvement of the hard lot of the travelling public; and the facilities for puffing every place of resort which the press now furnishes, makes it almost a duty to cultivate an unchristian, splenetic, and fault-finding spirit in dealing with people who entice us from the town at a large expense to spots where they promise to provide us with comfort and pleasure. Reform is needed in hotels. The hotel-keeper must be taught first of all humility, and if this can only be taught by the tourist's denying himself the self-sacrifice which he now practises, why, even at that cost, the lesson must be taught. When that point is gained he may be inclined to be guided by the experience of other countries, and learn that the great secret of his permanent success must depend, not on natural, uncultivated advantages of situation, but on the amount of thought, labor, attention, and civility he puts into his work.

A Victim.

THE INDIAN FAMINE.

London, September 15, 1877.

THIS time last year this country was in a fevered state of generous enthusiasm. Mr. Gladstone was stumping the country and denouncing in impassioned language the cruelties perpetrated by the Turks, and every petty borough in the country was vieing with its neighboring petty boroughs in its indignant testimony to its own virtue and its own abhorrence of all that was going on in a remote corner of Europe among certain half-civilized tribes, regarding whom this nation had no more responsibility than four or five other European nations quite as powerful and probably quite as generous as ourselves. The usual thing in England followed these enthusiastic outbursts. Committees of sympathizers with the sufferers were got up to receive subscriptions, the favorite British antidote for every form of evil; and fussy or unscrupulous individuals, scenting notoriety from afar, put themselves forward as honorary secretaries, joint secretaries and treasurers, and the like, in order to handle and apportion the subscriptions and acquire a shortlived publicity thereby. Money poured in as usual, and the columns of the *Times* newspaper set out daily the lists of the benevolent who subscribed to the different objects, with the names of the honorary secretaries and joint secretaries in large print at the foot. Then arose jealousies among the different committees, and accusations and recriminations passed freely among the officials. Then the matter assumed a political aspect, as most public matters do in England. One party supported one side and the other party supported the other. Opposition committees were got up, and if one set of sufferers were to receive the usual English aid, in common fair play the other set were entitled to receive it also. If relief, pecuniary relief, was offered to the Bosnian refugees or the Bulgarian peasantry, so relief must be given to the houseless Circassians and the widows and orphans of the mutilated Mohammedans. A committee for the relief of the sick and wounded Turkish soldiers was overtrumped by a committee for the sick and wounded Russian soldiers; and so it goes on. It was the same thing in the Austro-Italian war, in the Danish war, in the American war, and in the Franco-German war. The British householder believes that subscriptions are a salve for everything, and accordingly he gets a nobleman to give his name for some benevolent enterprise, and puts his hand in his pocket, has his name printed as a subscriber in the *Times*, and feels that he has done the duty which England expects every householder to do.

But the British householder is not imaginative. If Sidney Smith was right in saying that it requires a surgical operation to get a joke into a Scotchman's head, it requires a series of such operations to affect the ordinary householder's imagination, unless the events come very close home

to him, or unless they are drilled into him by a man of Mr. Gladstone's influence and intensity. While we have all, led by Mr. Gladstone, been holding up our hands in pious horror over the massacres and death of some thousand Bulgarians—whether twelve or four thousand is disputed—and while we have been subscribing through six or seven totally distinct and jealous committees to the relief of these Bulgarians, millions (not thousands) of our fellow-subjects in India have been dying of absolute starvation, and we are only now beginning to realize the fact. The British imagination is always impervious to facts affecting India. You can interest the ordinary shopkeeper about any European country, or about America, even about Central Africa, more easily than you can about our Eastern dependencies. The Polar expedition of two years ago was more generally discussed than the Bengal famine of 1873, and the alleged neglect of Captain Nares to supply limejuice to his crews was more universally criticised than the abortive efforts of the Indian Government to contend with the ravages of the famine in Orissa. These things interest with a painful interest a small section of the community who have Anglo-Indian connections and sympathies, and among these classes it is probable that no subject is so universally discussed as the present distress in Southern India; but if you were to ask a hundred men, taken at random, belonging to the ordinary householder class, to mention the districts of India which were principally affected by the famine, I am perfectly certain that you would not find five who could give you an intelligent answer. Or if you asked them if they attempted to realize the horrible extent of the ravages which the absence of rain was inflicting upon a multitude of people more numerous than the whole inhabitants of Great Britain, they would simply gape at you in dumb amazement.

It is, in fact, almost impossible for any one who is not familiar with India to attempt to realize what is going on. According to a recent estimate in an English paper, it appears that in all the wars of the last twenty-five years, from 1852 to 1877, including the Crimean, the Italian, the Schleswig-Holstein, the American, the Austro-Italian, the Franco-German, and a few minor wars, the total loss of life amounted to 1,948,000, or, in round numbers, to a couple of million. That seems an enormous amount of death to have occurred by violent means in a quarter of a century. But what is anticipated with regard to the famine districts of the Madras Presidency? It appears from a letter in the *Times* of August 29, written by the editor of the Madras *Times*, that "it is absolutely certain that from two and a half to three millions of people will die" in the course of a very few months, owing to the harvest failures. Or, put in other words, it is contemplated that a population nearly as large as the whole population of Scotland will be swept away in the course of a few months by the cruellest of all deaths; and even that prospect fails to strike the imagination or stir up the emotions of the inhabitants of Great Britain to anything like the extent that the violent deaths of a few thousand Bulgarians affected them last year. Not that I should wish for a moment to extenuate the crimes perpetrated by the Turks in a time of panic, or the barbarous way in which they executed vengeance upon the Christians. What I complain of is the amazing disproportion between the spasmodic outburst of emotion last year with the callous *insouciance* regarding a much more tremendous catastrophe affecting our own people, or at least our fellow-subjects, this year. It is impossible to suppose that Mr. Gladstone is unaware of the suffering among these millions of people over whom he only four years ago, when Prime Minister of England, exercised a sort of quasi-sovereignty. Yet, though he addresses multitudes of admiring countrymen two or three times every week among the pleasant glades of Hawarden, he never even alludes to the subject. His mind is still filled with his one idea of the iniquity of Turkish rule, and the insufferable lot, as it appears to him, of a section of semi-civilized and wholly abject Christians of the Greek Church. He cannot turn aside to say a single word on a much greater horror that is being carried out before his eyes; and his admiring countrymen follow suit. How far the Indian Office at home would wish the catastrophe of the famine to be kept in the background I cannot say. No doubt they are doing all they can to relieve the sufferings of the famine-stricken district. But it is somewhat remarkable that no official despatches have been published on the subject, and no discussion of it, hardly any allusion to it, has been raised in Parliament. It is perhaps only natural to expect a great bureaucracy like the Indian Administration to make as light of the matter as they can. Reticence in such a case is only to be looked for, because publicity is abhorrent to all bureaucracies. There is nothing that they dread so much as public criticism.

That the Indian Government is doing its best to mitigate the calamity now that it is upon them, no one doubts; but what every one does doubt is whether they are taking any steps to prevent the recurrence of similar calamities. These famines have been periodical in certain parts of India for centuries. The Deccan was visited by one upwards of two hundred years ago, when, according to a historian of more recent times, "hundreds of thousands emigrated, and many perished before they reached more favored provinces; vast numbers died at home; whole districts were depopulated, and some had not recovered at the end of forty years." There are districts now which are deserted and absolutely barren where at one time it is certain that large populations flourished. In late years we have had three serious visitations—the famine in Orissa, where through mismanagement multitudes of men, women, and children perished; the famine in Bengal, where the orders were given that, cost what it might, no lives were to be lost. The order was carried out to the letter. The loss of life was small, but the loss of money squandered away was counted by millions. In the famine now ravaging Southern India the orders, it is said, are a sort of compromise between the neglect in Orissa and the profusion in Bengal. Everything is to be done to save life consistent with a reasonable economy. Money for the present emergency can easily be procured if money be wanted. The Indian Government, though already heavily burdened, can easily borrow five or ten millions at almost a nominal rate of interest—certainly at four per cent. But every penny added to the Indian debt (mostly subscribed in England) is only an additional premium upon a mutiny, and an increase upon the taxation of a needy population. If any alternative can be found it ought to be adopted. The only alternatives are imperial grants and private subscriptions. As to the first there could be no difficulty so far as Parliament is concerned, though the present Government might not like to increase the national debt even by a few millions, if they could burden India instead of England. If even now they were to advance the requisite amount they might safely calculate upon an easily-earned indemnity when Parliament reassembles. It is, however, improbable that they will do so. Private benevolence remains. Subscriptions are pouring in, but, in comparison with the magnitude of the want, by driblets. Something like £150,000 has been subscribed. Ten times that amount might very well be expended. But people whose sympathies have been excited, and whose balances at their bankers have been lowered, by suffering Bulgarians, refugee Bosnians, Turkish sick, and Russian wounded, cannot be expected to show much interest in, or spend much money upon, a few million starved and famine-stricken Hindoos, even if they be their fellow-subjects. Lord Macaulay, I think, says somewhere that there is "nothing more absurd than the British nation in one of its fits of enthusiasm." We saw it in a fit of enthusiasm, this time last year, willing and eager to stake its existence on the downfall of the Turk. We see it this year reacting from this fit, and subscribing hundreds for its Indian subjects, where thousands or even millions are required.

RENAN'S GOSPELS.

II.*

PARIS, Sept. 3, 1877.

I HAVE shown that the Gospel of St. Matthew is not only an amplification of the Gospel of St. Mark, but that many important additions are to be found in it, which are, so to speak, the condensation and consolidation of the legend which was formed after the death of Jesus. Renan regards this Gospel as "the most important book of Christianity—the most important book that ever was written. . . . In one sense, the composition of the Gospels is, after the personal action of Christ, the capital fact of early Christianity—I may add, of the history of humanity. The book habitually read by all the world is a book in which the priest is always found in fault, in which the cultured men are all hypocrites, in which all the lay authorities are rascals, in which all the rich are damned. This book, the most revolutionary and dangerous that ever existed, has been prudently put aside by the Catholic Church, but this church could not hinder its bearing its fruits. The Gospels, severe towards sacerdotalism, scornful of austerity, indulgent towards the weak man who has a good heart, have been the perpetual nightmare of the hypocrite. The evangelical Christian has been an enemy of pedantic theology, of hierarchical pride, of the ecclesiastical spirit produced by the ages. The Middle Ages burnt him. Even now the grand invective of the twenty-third chapter of Matthew against the Pharisees is still the biting satire of those who cover themselves with the name of Christ, and whom Christ, if he came back to the world, would pursue with his whips." Everything seems

* See the *Nation* of Sept. 20.

to show that the Gospel was written in Syria for some Jews who knew little of Greek. It was attributed to St. Matthew, but the apostle was dead when this Gospel appeared.

Nothing is more interesting than Renan's account of the progress of Christian doctrines and ideas in the Roman world. There had been a sort of tolerance under the Flavians. The Christian ideas—we ought rather to say, the Judeo-Christian ideas—found their way into the imperial family after Titus, under the cruel despotism of Domitian. Many persons of the Roman aristocracy opened their ears to the new teaching; the Gospels were to them a sort of ideal refuge against the horrible cruelty of a ruler who seemed to be the incarnation of all evil, and who understood no other duty than to give ignoble pleasures to the multitude. The Jews lived in the suburbs of Rome; they had to pay a special tax—the *fiscus judaicus*. Many Romans probably felt for them the sort of morbid curiosity which draws so many Russian aristocrats of our day towards communists and socialists. They left the old town of Servius Tullius, and roamed near the Egerian fountain. The collectors soon found that there were many men in this suburb who lived Judaically, though they were not real Jews. The *fiscus judaicus* was extended to all those who led what was then called a Jewish life. Josephus, who was a favorite at court, wrote the life of the Jewish people.

About that time one of the Christians of Rome undertook to write a Gospel for the Roman Church. This Gospel is known under the name of the Gospel of Luke. It is admirably analyzed by Renan. Lucanus, or Lucas, had followed Paul to Macedonia, had remained in Rome after the death of Paul; and his Gospel is thoroughly imbued with Paulinian ideas. "It is surely by mere conjecture," says Renan, "that we connect Luke and his Gospel with the Christian society of Rome at the time of the Flavians; but it is certain that the general character of the work of Luke agrees very well with such an hypothesis. Luke has a sort of Roman spirit; he likes order, hierarchy; he has a great respect for the centurions, for the Roman functionaries, and loves to represent them as sympathetic towards Christianity." Luke was probably ignorant of the Gospel of Matthew, but knew the Gospel of Mark. Living in Rome, he writes for the Gentiles; he does not speak of the Old Law; his Christianity is open; he writes for the oppressed of all nations, for the poor, for the people; he is a pure *Ebionite;* his Gospel is the hymn, the hosannah of all sufferers.

If you look at it from this point of view, you will find how naturally it takes its place under the ferocious and wicked Domitian. From childhood the brother of Titus had hated with an intense hate whatever was good, wise, reasonable; he abhorred all philosophers; they appeared to him like mute critics of his own selfishness; he liked evil as naturally as men eat bread. As soon as his imperial eye fell on the poor Jews and Christians of the suburbs, he was inclined to persecute them as naturally as a mischievous boy torments an insect. He did not admit that there could be any other religion and piety than the adoration of himself; was he not a god, and what gods could be better than himself? The *pious* Roman was the man who worshipped the emperor. Could there be anything more insulting to this all-powerful brute than the impudence of men who adored other gods than the gods of whom he had constituted himself the patron and protector? If many of the good emperors sincerely believed that the new doctrine was dangerous, what could Domitian think of it?

The persecution began, and this time many victims were found in the higher classes of society. The blood of the martyrs did not flow in vain, and we soon find the Roman Church drawing more strength from it. The time was approaching when the Church must come out of what may be called the atomic state and receive an organization. A discussion began between the Church of Rome and the Church of Corinth, where the Greek spirit was uppermost—the frivolous and undisciplined spirit which did not respect hierarchy, and was open to perpetual inspiration and illumination.

"The great problem was near: what constitutes the Church? is it the people, the clergy, or the inspired prophets? The question had been already put in the time of Saint Paul, who had solved it in the true manner by mutual charity. Catholicism had its origin in Rome, since the Church of Rome traced its first rule. Precedence does not belong to spiritual gifts, to science, to distinction; it belongs to hierarchy, to the powers transmitted through canonical ordination, which goes back in an uninterrupted chain to the apostles. It was felt that a free church, such as was conceived by Jesus and by Saint Paul, was an anarchical utopia, which could produce nothing for the future. With evangelical liberty disorder was dreaded; it was not foreseen that with hierarchy uniformity and death would come in the end."

Renan believes that Domitilla and the family of Flavius Clemens entered into the conspiracy which put an end to the reign of Domitian; though Juvenal only says: "He could safely deprive Rome of its noblest souls, and nobody took arms to avenge them; he perished when he took it into his head to become an object of dread to cobblers. Thus was lost a man covered with the blood of the Lamias." All his statues were broken, his triumphal arches demolished; all was over with the *Flavia gens*. Domitilla ended her life in obscurity; her posterity can be traced till the end of the third century; her family vault became one of the first Christian catacombs.

Under Nerva the Church of Rome was quiet and prosperous. The Jews continued to be tormented with Messianic and Apocalyptic ideas. The Apocalypse of Ezra was published under this reign; the Christians read it with avidity. Ezra may be considered as the last prophet of Israel. The adoption of Trajan by Nerva was an event of great importance in the history of Christianity. As Renan says, "The age of monsters was past. The lofty race of Julius and of the families allied to him had shown to the world the strangest spectacle of folly, of greatness, and of perversity. The poison of the Roman blood seemed now exhausted. All the malice of Rome had transpired. It is the nature of an aristocracy which has led a disorderly life to become in its old days orthodox and puritan. The Roman nobility, the most terrible that ever existed, henceforth has extreme refinements of virtue, of delicacy, of modesty." This transformation was partly the work of Greece, of the moralists, and of the philosophers. For a hundred years it seemed as if philosophy was going to govern the world. The work of legislation was never so perfect, so exhaustive.

This epoch is very interesting, as it shows a curious mixture of democratic and of aristocratic ideas:

"The opinion of the politicians of the time is that power belongs, by a sort of natural delegation, to the most honest, sensible, moderate men. This designation is made by fate; once 'fatis designatus,' the Emperor governs the empire as the ram his flock or the bull his herd. With all this, the most republican language; in very good faith, these excellent rulers believed that they realized a state founded on the natural equality of all citizens, a royalty which had for its basis the respect of liberty. Liberty, justice, respect of opposition were their fundamental maxims. But these words, borrowed from the history of the Greek republics, had not much sense in the real history of the time. Civil equality did not exist; the Roman or Italian aristocracy preserved all its privileges; the Senate, reinstated by Nerva in its rights and dignities, was as much shut off as ever; the *cursus honorum* was the exclusive privilege of the nobles."

These noble families had alone preserved some of the old virtues of the republic; they had alone resisted the Oriental, Egyptian, and Syriac favorites of Caligula, of Claudius, of Nero. Christianity had suffered from the contempt in which the Roman aristocrats held all Oriental influences. Twice, under Nero and under the Flavians, some Jews and Christians found their way into the imperial household. From Nerva to Commodus there was a gulf between the Jewish doctrine and the throne:

"Trajan, Adrian, Antoninus, Marcus Aurelius hold themselves with regard to Judaism and Christianity at a sort of haughty distance. They don't know them, do not care to study them. Tacitus, who writes for the world, speaks of the Jews as of an exotic curiosity, a thing quite unknown to those for whom he writes, and his mistakes are surprising. . . . History must speak with respect of the honest and courageous politicians who dragged the world out of the mire into which it had been thrown by the last Julius and the last Flavius, but they had the imperfections which naturally grow out of their qualities. They were aristocrats, men imbued with traditions, with prejudices, like the English Tories, who draw their strength from their very prejudices; they were profoundly Roman. Convinced that whoever is not wealthy or well-born cannot be an honest man, they did not feel for the foreign doctrines the indulgence which had been felt by the Flavians, who were much more *bourgeois*. Their society, the men who share the power with them, Tacitus, Pliny, have the same contempt for the doctrines of the barbarians. During the second century an abyss seems to separate Christianity and the official world. The four great and good emperors are directly hostile to it, and it is only under the monster Commodus, as under Claudius, Nero, and the Flavians, that we shall find again 'Christians in the house of Cæsar.'"

The persecution which began against the Christians was administrative and permanent, not bloody and temporary. The Christians were constantly acting in violation of a law on associations; they were guilty of sacrilege, of offence against the majesty of the emperor, of nocturnal meetings. There were, besides, all the *flagitia nomini cohærentia*, all the crimes connected with the very name of a Christian, of a *publicus hostis*. The persecution became a sort of a low fever which lasted during the second and during the third century, till it ended in the terrible crisis of the beginning of the fourth century.

This fifth volume of Renan's great work ends with the reign of Trajan. He shows the part which was taken by the Jews during the great expedi-

tions of Trajan in the East, how the Christian church and the synagogue became more widely separated. While Christianity became more and more Latin and Greek, the Jews shut themselves completely up in an unintelligible Syro-Hebraic dialect. In his sixth volume, Renan will relate the history of Christianity under the reign of Adrian and Antoninus, the beginnings of gnosticism, the composition of the pseudo-johannic writings, the first apologists ; show us how the episcopate became more and more important, how Christianity became more and more Greek and less Hebraic ; how, finally, a Catholic church was formed by the union of the provincial churches, and how its central authority was fixed in Rome. The new Bible was then complete, and was called the New Testament. The divinity of Christ was recognized in all the churches except the Syrian church. Christianity had spread in every direction, in Gaul, in Africa. Christianity, in one word, is born, perfectly born ; it is a child, it will still grow ; but the child has all its organs, it lives in the open air ; it is no longer an embryo.

Correspondence.

CHEAP AND EFFECTIVE INCREASE OF THE ARMY.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Whatever of natural regret may follow the conviction that in this "favored country" some regular organized force is required to defend the people against the populace, the conviction undoubtedly exists at this time and is widespread, if not universal. So far as such necessity arises from the influence of un-Americanized foreigners the cause is not accidental or transient ; and, whatever the cause, the possibility of the recurrence of such scenes as disgraced the nation a few weeks ago will undoubtedly induce some kind of action in the direction of an increased military establishment. Equally strong with the necessity for increased force is the necessity for the strictest economy of expenditure. The Army is now listening to the hosannas of "the tax-payer," who hails it as a saviour, but those who can remember the events of sixteen years ago will feel sure that the "crucify him" will speedily follow, and the more speedily and effectively the greater the cost of the Army.

The following is offered in the interests of military efficiency and, if you please, reform :

By recruiting each of the 430 companies now composing the line of the Army to 110 men, a force of 13,200 cavalry, 6,600 artillery, and 27,500 infantry is created, and then adding 500 men to the more than 2,000 non-combatants, an army of 50,000 men would be formed without creating a new organization or *necessarily* issuing a new commission, though some slight increase of majors of infantry might be advisable. Such an army would, doubtless, be sufficient for probable contingencies. Should a considerable portion of the army be garrisoned throughout the East—a proposition that seems now to be favorably received—its location near sources of supply would greatly diminish the cost of its maintenance, and the presence of troops where necessary, without the great expense of transporting them thither, would also lessen the expense, now enormous, of army transportation.

Such an increase will be opposed by many interests, most, if not all of them, non-military, but all of them powerful : (1) large numbers of men, many of them during the recent war soldiers of great experience and high character, and now capable of wielding great influence, will desire to obtain commissions in the army ; (2) men in office, or from other causes influential in politics, and especially leaders of political parties, will desire the patronage which the distribution of offices will afford—those who remember Washington as it was in 1866 and 1867, will need only to recall the events of that period to bring the matter clearly before them ; (3) the reintroduction of many former officers of the army, and the introduction of others from the South, will afford an excellent vent for incontinent desire to extend "conciliation." Concerning the advisableness of commissioning as the nation's special defenders those who sought, "misguidedly," to destroy it, no opinion is expressed, but to do it for any other than military reasons is to make of the army a sort of "Atelier National"—an organization as obnoxious to sound military reason as were the genuine "Ateliers Nationaux" to the laws of industry. The American people are so essentially unmilitary (a very different thing from lacking courage, which they certainly do not) that it is fair to infer that the right thing will not be done. Witness the military legislation, *passim*, of Congress, and the fact that no military question of moment is decided on strictly military principles.

This is submitted to a non-professional paper because I judge it to be quite in the line of the reform of the public service for which the *Nation* is contending to advocate that in the military service as in the civil the public weal is to be consulted, and not the advantages of individuals or of parties, or even the interests of conciliation, if any of these antagonize the public weal. Adjutant.

TRADE AND DICKER.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : When some three weeks ago I sent you my little communication on the subject of Mr. Wells's fallacies I had no expectation of extracting from that gentleman the ponderous chapter on political economy which I see to-day in the *Nation*. I simply desired to call attention to the extraordinary processes of so-called reasoning to which the school of *à priori* theorists, of which Mr. Wells is apparently the leader, is obliged to resort to carry on its struggle against the course of events which has so completely falsified its former predictions. While it stigmatized protection as robbery which would for ever mulct the consumer to benefit a few manufacturers, and would prohibit production at prices to compete with England in foreign markets, protectionists held that protection sufficiently prolonged would create domestic competition, eventually reducing prices to the home consumer and then furnishing material for export. All this is coming to pass, but immediately our luckless theorists, tacitly conceding that the home consumer is not robbed, shift their ground and strive to hold the tariff responsible because in a year or two our manufacturers have not shown themselves able to divert the mighty currents of the world's commerce from the channels which have been widening and deepening for two centuries. Divested of much useless verbiage, the substance of Mr. Wells's labored reply is that England enjoys special advantages as the centre of the world's commerce, where the exchanges of the world are practically settled. This we all knew before, and we know, moreover, that she will struggle to the death to retain this position and these advantages, won by long and persistent effort under protection. It is curious to see our free-trade champions, in their eagerness to assist her, actually assume that protection must fail to do here what it has accomplished there, because we have not in a couple of years overthrown the supremacy to secure which the almost undivided energy of the British people has been devoted since the time of Elizabeth. Be patient, my impatient friends. Let us for a while longer foster our productive forces by insuring to them the benefit of our home market, and those forces in due time will carry their surplus production to every quarter of the globe.

While the logic of events has thus stifled the old free-trade rallying-cry of the robbery of the consumer, I cannot congratulate Mr. Wells and his followers on the auspices under which they have been forced to invent their new slogan. When the highest authority in Germany is repeating with admiration to his countrymen the lesson which he learned at the Centennial Exhibition as to our productive development, which he attributes to the protective system ; when Swiss watchmakers are in despair at the competition of Waltham in the European markets ; when Dutch houses which used to sell us leather are now buying our shoes ; and when the great French Compagnie Transatlantique is negotiating for the construction of a first-class iron steamer on the Delaware, the times are unpropitious for the line of argument which Mr. Wells has been compelled to adopt. If he cannot command my convictions, he at all events has my commiseration.—Very respectfully, Merchant.

Philadelphia, September 23, 1877.

Notes.

MR. DARWIN pays a merited compliment to his good friend, our foremost botanist, Dr. Asa Gray, in dedicating to him his latest work, on the 'Different Forms of Flowers in Plants of the Same Species,' which the Messrs. Appleton will republish here.——Professor E. A. Grosvenor, of Robert College, Constantinople, is translating Dr. A. G. Paspati's 'Byzantine Studies,' an archæological work which has been some fifteen years in preparation, and was composed in Greek. The translation will be published shortly in London.——A sketch of the Life of Dr. James McHenry, read before the Maryland Historical Society last November, by Frederick J. Brown, has just been printed in pamphlet form in Baltimore. Dr. McHenry's name recalls to the present generation only the Baltimore fort whose defence in the war of 1812 inspired Key's "Star-Spangled Banner." He was, however, Washington's aide-de-camp and secretary, I a

Fayette's aide-de-camp, the intimate friend of Gen. Greene and of Alexander Hamilton, and Secretary of War under Washington and Adams. Mr. Brown reproaches Mr. Chas. Francis Adams with injustice to McHenry in his life of his grandfather.

—We have had in type for some time, but find ourselves unable to print for want of space, a letter from Dr. Selah Merrill, of Andover, Mass., controverting some of our criticisms on his reports in the Fourth Statement of the Palestine Exploration Society. We regret our inability the less because we see no reason for changing our opinion on the main points in dispute. We were, however, in error in saying that the situation of Tell Ektanu is not indicated on Dr. Merrill's map; and we cite here the closing paragraph of his letter:

"My second expedition, which the notice calls a 'hasty trip,' occupied eighty-one days of severe work. This was after Col. Lane left the country in December, 1875, and since that time I have made three different expeditions, the results of which I have not yet had time to put into shape for publication."

—The results of the Harvard Examinations for Women conducted in this city last June have just been reported by the examiners to the local committee. As the so-called Advanced Examination is only open to those who have previously passed the Preliminary Examination, the latter alone could be held in this the first year of the New York examinations. Further, it might be taken as a whole, or divided between two years, at the option of the candidate. Three out of the eighteen young women who presented themselves took the Preliminary Examination as a whole, and two of these passed in all the subjects; the third was deficient in two (out of nine) subjects. Of the remaining candidates, twelve passed in their (four or five) chosen subjects, and three failed. No record is made by the University of the results of a partial examination, unless a candidate has passed satisfactorily in at least three subjects. On the whole, this beginning must be regarded as auspicious; for one thing, it ensures the holding of the Advanced Examination next year. The examiners report that they were not struck by any failures or shortcomings characteristic of the sex—that is, such as might be expected of women from their defective training.

—In the hope that a larger number of candidates will prepare themselves for the examinations of June, 1878, not only in this city but elsewhere, we give here the addresses of the secretaries of the several local committees, from whom blank forms for either examination, and all necessary information as to fees, papers, and conditions, can be obtained: 59 East Twenty-fifth Street, New York; 114 Boylston Street, Boston; 401 South Eighth Street, Philadelphia; 372 West Fourth Street, Cincinnati. The Preliminary Examination will cover parts of two weeks; the Advanced Examination will occupy less time, proportionate to the number of subjects chosen. The local committees provide board and lodging at moderate cost, and will also in deserving cases lend pecuniary aid. For next year the Preliminary Examination will embrace English and French, with German or Latin or Greek; Physical Geography; Elementary Botany or Elementary Physics; Arithmetic, Algebra through quadratic equations, Plane Geometry; and History. No young woman under seventeen can take this as a whole, nor any under sixteen in part. None under eighteen can take the Advanced Examination, which will be in five sections (in one or more of which the candidate may present herself), namely: *Languages*—any two of English, French, German, Italian, Latin, Greek; *Natural Science*—any two of Chemistry, Physics, Botany, Mineralogy, Geology; *Mathematics*—Solid Geometry, Algebra, Logarithms, and Plane Trigonometry (required), with any one of Analytic Geometry, Mechanics, Spherical Trigonometry and Astronomy; *History*—either the History of Continental Europe during the Period of the Reformation (1517–1648), or English and American History (1688–1800); *Philosophy*—any three of Mental Philosophy, Moral Philosophy, Logic, Rhetoric, Political Economy. It only remains to state that these examinations are designed to afford young women pursuing studies by themselves, with more or less limited opportunities, a test of their progress "by a strict and publicly-recognized standard," identical with that which is applied to men for the same kind and amount of work. The Harvard certificate, once obtained in any of the three degrees—"passed," "passed with distinction," "passed with the highest distinction"—may have a commercial as well as a moral value.

—On the motion of Prof. Alexander Hogg, of the Texas State Agricultural and Mechanical College, the National Educational Association, at its recent session at Louisville, passed a resolution urging the general Government to consider speedily "the feasibility of donating a portion of the public domain for the endowment and maintenance of at least one institution in each State and Territory for the higher education of women." Prof. Hogg would have these institutions styled and known in each case as "The State University for Our Daughters," and the fancifulness of this appellation gives an air of unreality to the whole scheme. We are far, however, from wishing to discourage any well-meant effort to improve the educational resources of the South and increase the desire for learning; and we are glad to see this solicitude for the women show itself amid the general striving for better instruction. We are disposed to think, too, that no better use could be made of the remnant of the public domain than to devote the proceeds resulting from the sale of it to the higher education, and that the North would not grudge the South the lion's share of the apportionment. Whether new universities for women should be founded, or the universities for men be strengthened and utilized after the manner of the Harvard examinations at first, and subsequently by co-education, is a question of detail which each State might be left to decide for itself.

—Our notice of Gen. T. L. Clingman's speeches appears to have led to the somewhat surprising discovery that Jacob Thompson, Mr. Buchanan's Secretary of the Interior, is still alive. He himself has given evidence of it by writing a letter to the Memphis *Appeal*, denying the truth of Mr. Clingman's account of his openly fomenting secession in North Carolina while still a member of Buchanan's Cabinet, and with the explicit sanction of his chief. He says that his motive in hurrying North Carolina into secession was to enable her to check the headlong action of his own State of Mississippi; for Mr. Thompson held that it would be highly indecent to secede under a passive and inoffensive Administration like Mr. Buchanan's. His errand was to that extent a Union-saving one, and as such seemed meritorious to Mr. Buchanan. Mr. Thompson's regard for appearances must still be judged one-sided, and he has not succeeded in contradicting Gen. Clingman, or in redeeming his own fame or Mr. Buchanan's. He would have done better to retort *tu quoque* upon his accuser. Senator Clingman never resigned his seat in the Senate, but used his position to promote secession until called upon to take part in its public counsels at the South, and he had not yet been expelled, even if he had at that time left the Capital, when, "as soon as Fort Sumter was taken, fearing there might be too much delay," he "telegraphed Governor Ellis to seize the Fayetteville arsenal." In February he had naively asked his colleagues: "Of what use is Fort Sumter to the Government of the United States unless it be to vex and harass Charleston"? And as early as March 22, 1850, while a member of the Lower House, forecasting civil war, he had published this childlike manifesto: "If there is to be a struggle, in any event, between the North and South, I desire that this, the common Government, may stand as a neutral. If I have power, I will, in that event, put this Government under bonds to keep the peace. As in that contest I know that the South will have the right on her side, I am not willing that the Federal army and navy shall be used against her." Holding these ideas of the nature of government, Mr. Clingman never dreamed of the propriety of resigning his seat in the Senate as soon as he had cast his lot with the secessionists; but Mr. Thompson's remaining an executive officer of a "neutral" Government while openly advocating separation, seemed to him so scandalous that he could not at first believe it possible.

—The following elegant epistle has been received by the dean of one of our Western universities:

"52 Zimmerstrasse,
"Berlin, S. W., July 10, 1877.

"Sir: Herewith I take the liberty of requesting to know under what conditions you would be inclined to grant Diplomas of Doctor in absentia to worthy and qualified men. I know a very great number of such gentlemen for I am since many years agent for several Universities; by my experiences and discretion I have an intimate connection with them. I therefore can introduce you many persons who have the merite of being excelt by this academic dignity. I should be much obliged to you if you would specify the conditions of the promotion of all faculties and the modalities of paying the fees for I could place immediately some Diplomas and we lose to much time by a long correspondence in account of the great distance. If possible please also to send me a statute or an act of incorporation of your University. Expecting soon your kind answer I remain

"Sir yours respectfully
Dr. Olschowsky."

—By some unexplained blunder in the October *Galaxy* the article that will better repay reading perhaps than any other is not to be found in the table of contents, and is not mentioned in any of the regular advertisements of the magazine. We refer to "The Tariff Question," by Mr.

Horace White, the paper read by its author at the recent Saratoga meeting of the Social Science Association. It is a thoughtful discussion of the causes and cure of the present commercial depression, and, as regards the latter, takes substantially the view of Mr. D. A. Wells in his late articles entitled, "How shall the Nation Regain Prosperity?" With regard to the causes of our existing difficulties, Mr. White dissents from the view which ascribes them solely to extravagance of expenditure, aggravated by a protective tariff and a vicious currency. Admitting all these as valid elements, he states the chief factor thus: "If badly invested capital or wasted and sunken capital is treated in the imaginations of men as having been well invested, as being saved and as available to meet future engagements, so that debts are contracted upon the basis of what does not in fact exist, we have one of the principal ingredients of the modern commercial crisis." Mr. Gideon Wells, in the "Administration of Abraham Lincoln," emphasizes Lincoln's disbelief in the equality of the white and negro races, their inability to live together in peace, and his desire to have emancipation succeeded by colonization and deportation. Mr. Lawrence Barrett criticises with some severity Mr. Alger's recent biography of Forrest, and pays a "tribute of reverent affection" to the actor. Several good stories, including one by Turgeneff, are to be found in this number of the *Galaxy*.

—In *Scribner's* for October an ex-member of Congress gives his "Experience in Post-Office Appointments," and if a few more members of Congress would but go and do likewise, the necessity of restricting Congressmen to legislative functions only would soon be made clear. To be compelled to select about one hundred postmasters from a thousand applicants would in itself seriously interfere with the legitimate duties of a member of Congress, but when the task is complicated by direct and indirect attempts at bribery, the solicitations of applicants and their conflicting claims, and the threats of newspaper editors, its absolute incompatibility with the functions of a legislator is at once perceived. The writer gives an interesting account, which would be extremely amusing if we could only read it as an invention of Mark Twain, of the way in which a strict regard for his duty in making post-office appointments set three different newspapers in his district at work defaming his character —a task pursued "with steady, malignant industry." An essay which has a special interest for clerical readers is that on "Christianity and Free Thought," by Mr. George S. Merriam. The writer argues that at a very early period in the history of Christianity "Christians came to believe that among the essential conditions of eternal salvation were membership in the visible church and acceptance of its rites, and also an implicit belief of all the doctrines set forth by authority of that body; that these ideas grew until they overshadowed the ideas of moral rectitude; and that the intensely sincere belief of mediæval Christianity was, that to be outside of the one Catholic Church, or to reject a single one of her many dogmas, was to incur eternal damnation." The Reformation, he believes, broke one strand of this twofold cord, but left the other as strong as ever—that is, while Christians ceased to believe in the necessity of submission to the Church's government, they still believed in the necessity of the acceptance of a dogmatic creed. The reformers had no thought of liberating men from the obligation of orthodox belief, and were extremely intolerant of differences of belief among themselves; nor has the church as yet outgrown this "exclusiveness of orthodoxy." Even in our modern Protestant churches an immense influence is exerted by the idea that well-founded hope of future salvation is possible only to those who substantially acquiesce in the body of doctrine set forth by the church. Our "professional teachers of religion are under the powerful influence of an inherited feeling that to disbelieve a certain general system of doctrine is to incur the risk of perdition, and are bound in conscience by that belief to give no countenance to any enquiry which is not pledged in advance to lead to the old conclusions." Not only is this, according to Mr. Merriam, unfavorable to free thought, but it is also unfavorable to genuine religious development, which makes or should make character central and supreme.

—There are, in publishing as in other trades, fashions to which the maker of books must needs conform. Just now the fancy of the hour seems to be for small books—so-called 18mos and 32mos. In Paris the publishing house which gave its name to the very handy size known there as the "format Charpentier" has now begun the issue of a series of booklets to be called the "Petite Bibliothèque Charpentier," and to contain the little masterpieces of De Musset, Mérimée, M. Jules Sandeau, and others. In America two series somewhat similar are now in course of publication. Harper's Half-Hour Series already extends to some thirty little volumes; it includes short stories—Charles Reade's stirring yarn 'The Jilt,' for instance, and the separate 'Stories of Clerical Life' of "George Eliot"; biographical studies—Motley's 'Peter the Great,' from the *North American Review*, for one; historical sketches, such as the set of 'Epochs of English History'; literature primers; cooking receipts from *Harper's Bazar;* etc. It will be seen that the scheme of the series is comprehensive, and that almost the only requisite for admission is brevity. Messrs. J. R. Osgood & Co. are issuing a more distinctly literary "Vest-Pocket Series"—a somewhat unlovely name, suggestive, perhaps, of the Breeches Bible or of the "linen-duster" in which the Leisure-Hour Series is clothed. The "Vest-Pocket Series" is devoted almost wholly to reprints—complete poems, like 'Evangeline,' 'Vision of Sir Launfal,' 'Ancient Mariner,' etc.; or selections of "Favorite Poems" of Hood, Holmes, Browning, etc.; or essays, like Emerson's 'Nature,' Lowell's 'My Garden Acquaintance,' and Mr. Howells's 'A Day's Pleasure'; or brief biographies, like Mr. Fields's essays on Dickens and Barry Cornwall. Among these last is the essay on 'Thackeray's Literary Career' by Dr. John Brown, of Edinburgh, which has always seemed to us the best, because the most appreciative—using the word with exactness—of all the many attempts at his life.

—All the earlier numbers of the "Vest-Pocket Series" were reprints, but among the later issues is a hitherto unprinted play, of which the title-page reads: "Mr. Nightingale's Diary: A Farce in one act. By Charles Dickens." On the next page we are told that it was first performed at Devonshire House, London, in 1851. But Forster, in his life of Dickens, tells us that "Mr. Nightingale's Diary" was written by Mark Lemon. Dickens had intended writing a farce to follow "Not so Bad as we Seem" at the performances for the benefit of the Guild of Literature and Art, but he had no time, and recourse was therefore had to a new farce of Lemon's, to which Dickens made so many additions that he might almost be considered its joint-author. The result of this virtual collaboration of Dickens and Lemon is "Mr. Nightingale's Diary." When acted by its two authors it was productive of the most tumultuous mirth. It is, indeed, an excellent farce. Mr. Howells called his "Parlor Car," also published in this series, a farce, which it is not, but a comedy. It is altogether too light and bright, and its methods are too delicate and refined, for farce. Although it is in one act, it is a comedy, just as many so-called comedies in three or five acts are in fact farces. "Mr. Nightingale's Diary" is really a farce. It is very funny, and it affords excellent opportunities to the two leading actors, who appear and reappear in various disguises, each seeking to circumvent the other. It is rather remarkable that Dickens, with all his love for the stage, did not make more direct efforts as a dramatist. His novels have been put upon the stage again and again, and sometimes with his assistance. But from the beginning of his literary career, when he wrote a comic opera, to near the end of it, when he collaborated with Mr. Wilkie Collins in writing 'No Thoroughfare' for Mr. Fechter, he did not put his name to a single play. Perhaps it is not to be regretted. He seems hardly to have had the feeling of form as fully as the dramatist needs must have it.

—The Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations, at its Conference at Antwerp, Aug. 30–Sept. 3, made substantial progress, especially in the department of private international law. About 130 members were in attendance, among them special deputations from the Lloyds of London and of Germany, and the Chambers of Commerce and Boards of Underwriters of London, Liverpool, Hull, Glasgow, Amsterdam, Antwerp, Christiania, Berlin, New York, and New Orleans. The Conference was presided over by Lord O'Hagan, late High-Chancellor of Ireland, who showed remarkable energy in the despatch of business and tact in disposing of talkative bores. A large section of the Conference devoted three days to the subject of General Average, and reached the following conclusion, which was adopted by the Association: that the rules of general average adopted at York in 1864, and revised by this body, be recommended as the basis for a uniform system of general average, under the title "The York Rules, as revised at Antwerp." The changes in the York Rules are these: Rule 1. "No jettison of deck-cargo shall be made good as general average." Rule 3. It is added that "no compensation shall be made for damage done by water to packages which have been on fire." Rules 7 and 8. Goods sold at a port of refuge are not to be exempted (as by the York Rules) from contributions to general average. Rule 10, as amended, provides that the gross freight shall contribute to general average, "subject to the deduction of such port charges and crew's wages as would not have been in-

curred had the ship and cargo been totally lost at the date of the general act or sacrifice." A new rule is added, making the 12th, that "the amount to be allowed for goods sacrificed shall be that value which the owner would have received if his goods had not been sacrificed."

—The topic of the execution of foreign judgments, presented by Mr. J. G. Alexander, of London, was referred to a committee, to be reported upon at the next annual meeting. The same course was taken with the subject of extradition. These matters will be prominent next year. A *projet* of an international law of patent-right was submitted in part, and the following principles were laid down: "In no case should proof of prior use in another country, unprotected by a subsisting patent in such country, suffice to effect the refusal or invalidation of a patent"; "to place obstacles in the way of any class of inventors, whether foreign, colonial, or native, is a suicidal policy." A special argument, based upon justice and utility, was presented in favor of international copyright, and measures were taken for an appeal to the Government of the United States to put itself in harmony with the Governments of Great Britain, Germany, and France for this desirable end. A paper was presented by Mr. Henry Richard, M.P., on the "Obligation of Treaties," and another by Dr. Jos. P. Thompson on "Treaties as Matter of the Law of Nations," which led to an animated discussion, resulting in measures for bringing before governments the desirableness of an arbitration clause in every treaty. Sir Travers Twiss and Professor Sheldon Amos read papers on belligerent maritime law, and it was resolved that, "in view of the dangerous tendencies of the doctrine of continuous voyages as applied to contraband of war and blockade, especially as this doctrine is set forth in the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of the cargo of the *Springbok*, this Association is of opinion that the principles of the Declaration of Paris of 1856 should be firmly sustained, and made the basis of a wider application to the protection of neutrals." Messrs. Henry Richard and F. W. Chesson reported in favor of the principles proposed last year by Dr. Thompson for regulating the intercourse of Christian with non-Christian peoples. Dr. Bachiene, of the Hague, submitted a paper in the same spirit, recommending those principles as a special order of the day for the Conference of 1878. The International Tribunals of Egypt were strongly endorsed by the Association. A committee was appointed upon the subject of trade-marks, to report at the next Conference. This will probably be held in Paris, in August, 1878.

—The sixth volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' ninth edition (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), shows more variety and symmetry than most, if not all, of its predecessors. Articles remarkable for extent and exhaustiveness are not numerous. The most conspicuous in this respect are "Coal" (36 pages), "Crustacea" (34), "Cotton" (26), "Costume" (26), "Clocks" (20), and "Corals" (18), all profusely illustrated; "Curve," "Conic Sections," "Comet," and "Cuttlefish." "Crusades" is the fullest of the few important historical articles. Geography is better represented by ample notices of Constantinople, Corea, Crete, Cuba, Damascus, the Danube, etc. The department of biography appears to still better advantage through lives, some of them short essays, of Comte (by John Morley), Condillac, Corneille, Cuvier, Cousin, Colbert, Danton, Columbus, Correggio, Dante, Cromwell, Davy, Cobden, Confucius, and others. Our novelist Cooper is spoken of with a kind of overjealous British feeling, to which even the shadow of a pretension to place him side by side with Scott seems to be invidious. The lines on his unique creation, Natty Bumpo, deserve to be quoted, however: "In the dignity and simplicity of the old backwoodsman there is something almost Hebraic. With his native vanity and strong reverent piety, his valiant wariness, his discriminating cruelty [?], his fine natural sense of right and wrong, his rough, limpid honesty, his kindly humor, his picturesque dialect, and his rare skill in woodcraft, he has all the breadth and roundness of a type, and all the eccentricities and peculiarities of a portrait." The articles on subjects of classical antiquity are generally rather meagre. "Colchis" may serve as an instance, in which no such name as Æa, Dioscurias, or Phasis, and, in fact, no name of a town or river, is to be found. Biblical subjects are more exhaustively treated, and with a tolerable degree of critical freedom. This is chiefly noticeable in "Daniel," a learned dissertation by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne. The author of "David" is much more timid in handling his sacred subject, and it makes one almost smile to see with what gentle regard for old beliefs he leads the reader from the orthodox notion that all the psalms are the productions of that monarch to the bare "admission that the Psalter must contain Davidic psalms, some of which at least may be identified by judicious David's name in Hebrew, the only word in that language which we have discovered, is misprinted, and we have also observed some similar inaccuracies in words belonging to the languages of Eastern Europe (several in "Cracow"); but on the whole the volume, which we have but cursorily examined, strikes us very favorably by a strong look of correctness and soundness.

FROUDE'S SHORT STUDIES.*

IS Mr. Froude content to sacrifice all claim to be a serious reasoner, and rest his reputation on his undoubted powers as a literary sentimentalist? This enquiry is suggested by the following passage, in which he describes the relation of the English clergy to political economy:

"For the working purposes of life they have," he writes, "allowed the Gospel to be superseded by the new formulas of political economy. This so-called science is the most barefaced attempt that has ever yet been openly made on this earth to regulate human society without God or recognition of the moral law. The clergy have allowed it to grow up, to take possession of the air, to penetrate schools and colleges, to control the action of legislatures, without even so much as opening their lips in remonstrance."

The bold stroke of rhetoric by which Mr. Froude slays, as it were, with one blow the two classes of men which he most detests—clergymen and political economists—excites the admiration of his readers until it is observed that the rhetorical triumph is attained at the expense of an extraordinary, though no doubt unconscious, perversion of facts, and an equally unconscious, though perhaps not equally extraordinary, confusion of ideas. The charge against the clergy involves what to candid minds must appear a perverted view of fact. Of all the offences which can be laid to the charge of Anglican ministers, the last which can be made with truth is the charge of leniency to political economy. What they could do to oppose its triumphs they have done. They have denounced Malthusianism. They have been the supporters of the unreformed poor-law. As a body they have been opposed to free-trade. That they could have hindered the spread of economical science if every clergyman had denounced it Sunday by Sunday from his pulpit may well be doubted. All the ministers of all denominations could not have prevented Englishmen from reading Adam Smith, Ricardo, and Malthus. Argument may be met by confutation, or at times by the brute force of persecution; but clerical denunciation would hardly even delay the progress of economical speculations. Be this, however, as it may, the English clergy have in this matter done their best. Mrs. Partington could not keep the Atlantic out of her house, but it were cruel injustice to blame her for the rise of the tide, or to deny that she made vigorous use of the mop and pail.

The accusation against the clergy may possibly be treated as a sportive display of paradoxical ingenuity. The allegation that the science of political economy is an attempt to regulate human society without the recognition of the moral law, involves a confusion of ideas common to Mr. Froude and the writers by whom he has mainly been influenced, and thus deserves somewhat careful attention. The answer to the assertion when put shortly is, that political economy is not an attempt to regulate society, or in any way, either good or bad, to deal with the moral law. The science (happily named by a recent writer Plutonomy) aims at ascertaining and stating the laws which regulate the acquisition and distribution of wealth. It is, directly at least, a mere enquiry into facts. Its conclusions, like the conclusions of any other science, are, in so far as they are correctly drawn, statements of fact. The rules, for example, laid down as to the nature of value, the theory of exchange, the law of rent, the effect of the subdivision of labor, and so forth, are statements in so far as they are correct, of the laws of wealth. To such laws or supposed laws the terms "true" or "false" are of course applicable, but to intimate that they are moral or immoral is as out of place as to talk of the morality or immorality of the Latin grammar or multiplication-table. In order to apply to economical science the expressions used by Mr. Froude, you must suppose that to teach men the laws of wealth is the same thing as to teach them that the acquisition of wealth is the end of life. It is difficult not to conclude that some notion of this kind runs through Mr. Froude's mind. A certain monk, of whom he writes and who nowadays would certainly be sent to the tread-mill for his frauds, was accused by his brethren "of buying in the cheapest and selling in the dearest market, and pocketing his gains," which, it may be added, were not his, but belonged to the abbey. "It is interesting," writes Mr. Froude, "to find a man charged, as if it were a crime, with having acted on the cardinal maxim of the modern science of sciences." The comment is unmeaning, unless Mr. Froude believes that it is a "maxim" of political economy

* 'Short Studies on Great Subjects. By J. A. Froude, M.A.' Third series. London: Longmans; New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.

that men ought in every case to look to no other consideration than that of pecuniary gain. The science, in fact, teaches or rather points out that wealth is made by buying cheap and selling dear. Mr. Froude turns the statement into a maxim that men ought always to buy cheap and sell dear. Here in a special instance is exhibited the confusion of thought which leads to the astounding conclusion that political economy attempts to regulate society without God.

The origin, however, of intellectual confusion is almost always something deeper than the fallacy in which it is expressed. This is so in the present case. The doctrines of economical science are in themselves neither moral nor immoral; but economical truth, like all other truth, has undoubtedly a bearing on moral practice. The conclusions of political economists have, for example, modified the mode in which men of sense practise charity. An examination into the effect of protection has certainly changed our estimate of the beneficial effect of legal interference with laws of trade ; and, speaking generally, the tendency of political economy is to encourage under the circumstances of modern European society the so-called doctrine of *laissez-faire*. This doctrine, based on the assumption that on the whole men's interests are not antagonistic, is the abomination of Mr. Froude and his school. That it is opposed to their whole view of society is undoubted, and that it gives the bias which perverts their view of political economy is a probable conjecture. It must also be admitted that the doctrine may be so misconceived as to appear to give a scientific sanction to general selfishness ; but that the rules of political economy have on the whole this tendency is a palpable error. Political economists denounce indiscriminate charity, but to point out the evil of alms-giving is really to stimulate men to far more difficult efforts of benevolence than what is after all the very easiest form of displaying compassion. Even the much-abused rule, that the way to gain wealth is to buy cheap and sell dear, may be expressed in the quite harmless statement that it is a benefit to the world to obtain, for example, corn from Americans who need broadcloth and do not want corn, and bring corn to Englishmen who need corn and can supply broadcloth. Nothing, again, is more thoroughly selfish than the theory of protection which assumes at bottom that the loss of A. is the gain of B.; nothing more unselfish than the economical doctrine that free-trade is a gain to A. because it is also a gain to B. The attempt, indeed, of writers like Bastiat to show an exact harmony between the rules of political economy and the demands of absolute justice involves, like the opposite error of Mr. Froude, a confusion between economical rules and moral precepts. But the exaggerated optimism of the French writer calls attention to the fact that the so-called dismal science has its moral side. We are not inclined to canonize Mr. Cobden ; he was neither an original political economist nor a statesman, but he seized the moral aspect of economical truth, and triumphed because he brought moral enthusiasm into the struggle against the organized selfishness of protection.

But Mr. Froude is, perhaps, only half in earnest when he denounces political economy. He himself can, on occasion, come forward as a professor of the "dismal science," and argues in support of a landed gentry with the arguments of the strictest and most orthodox sects of economists. "In a free country like ours," he writes, "the distribution of land depends on economic laws as absolute as the law of gravitation. So long as the British nation continues as it is, the landed gentry are as fixed a part of it as the planets of the solar system." The thesis which Mr. Froude maintains is in the main sound. It is, however, unfortunate that, after the manner of a convert, he should rush from one extreme of belief to the other. The laws of political economy are not in any sense opposed to the moral law. That Mr. Froude should at last see this is well; but economic laws of the kind he has in view are not as immutable as the law of gravitation, for the distribution of land depends in part on legal enactments, on social habits, and generally on the sentiment of a given society. Nor, again, is there, as Mr. Froude seems to conceive, any connection between the freedom of the country and liberty of bequest. Let us add that it is rash in the student of a science to which he has only lately turned his attention to dogmatize on points where his teachers are in doubt. The moot question as to the economical advantages of great and small estates cannot be disposed of by the off-hand dictum of an able lecturer. Nevertheless, while blaming Mr. Froude's rashness, economists may be pleased to see him enlisted in their ranks. This natural satisfaction is slightly diminished when it is perceived that Mr. Froude's zeal for economic truth is the result of his new-born enthusiasm for squires, whilst his admiration for squires rests apparently upon the fact that one of them—Mr. Augustus Smith—succeeded under very peculiar circumstances, in the Scilly Isles, in playing the part of a benevolent despot. That Mr. Smith was a remarkable man and did a good work we readily admit. That his life proves anything in favor of a landed gentry is not so clear. A wise and benevolent tyrant may benefit mankind. The old difficulty remains, how to find a guarantee for the benevolence or wisdom of your tyrant. Still, that Mr. Froude should admire the monarch of Scilly is natural. That he should draw an immense inference from a single instance might be expected from his habit of mind. That Mr. Froude should pardon even Benthamism in a despot is a proof, if any were wanted, that the one object of his consistent adoration is any man of whatever creed who opposes democratic freedom. In his denunciations of political economy, and in his arguments as an economist in support of a landed gentry, Mr. Froude displays some intellectual contradiction, but displays a still greater amount of moral or sentimental consistency. When political economy seems to encourage the doctrine of *laissez-faire*, it is immoral; when its laws appear to support the despotism, mild as it is, of squires, these laws are absolute as the law of gravity.

"In countries governed by authority intelligence rules ; in free countries numbers rule." Of the terms in which this doctrine is embodied little need be said except that such expressions as a "free country" and a "country where authority rules" are too lax to be used as the basis of a serious argument. What is worth notice is that Mr. Froude, who, if hardly an historian in any strict sense of the term, knows a good deal about history, has here hazarded an assertion confuted by facts known to every one who has paid the least attention either to history or to politics. If authority ever ruled in the ancient world, it ruled under the Cæsars. A glance at Mr. Froude's account of Nero, in his article entitled "Divus Cæsar," will show whether intelligence necessarily goes hand in hand with authority. In the modern world the age of Louis XIV. was in France the age of authority ; Mr. Froude, at any rate, will not find in the revocation of the Edict of Nantes the proof of intelligence. The one spot of modern Europe governed till recent years by authority was the Roman States ; where are we to find the signs of the wisdom or intelligence which, on Mr. Froude's view, must have ruled in Rome up to 1870 ? The one European country really ruled by numbers is modern Switzerland, and modern Switzerland has, beyond all other European countries, a right to assert that it is ruled by intelligence; for the Swiss Republic has triumphed over religious and political difficulties which would have torn greater countries in pieces ; has spread education throughout her people, has maintained freedom without falling into anarchy, and has made her independence respected without calling into being that necessary evil of modern states—a standing army. Let no reader suppose for a moment that the rule of numbers ensures the rule of intelligence. The constitution of Mexico may, for aught we know, not differ materially from the constitution of the Swiss Republic. What we maintain is that neither the rule of authority nor the rule of numbers ensures, or is necessarily inconsistent with, the rule of intelligence. Mr. Froude's dogma is in reality the expression not of a fact but of a sentiment, and this is true of the greater number of the brilliant sentences with which his essays are filled. Whether he attacks political economy, eulogizes the landed gentry, or denounces the rule of numbers, he is above all things a man of "sentiment," in the strict sense of the word. His conclusions are the result of his feelings, and his teaching is enforced by appeals to the feelings (in many cases the noble feelings) of his readers. He has his reward in the influence which a sentimental writer exerts over his generation. But what he gains in present influence he will lose in future reputation. His books will live, if at all, not as the works of a reasoner but as the best literary expression of a peculiar and perhaps transitory phase of anti-democratic sentiment.

In the Levant. By Charles Dudley Warner, author of 'My Summer in a Garden,' etc. (Boston : J. R. Osgood & Co. 1877. Pp. 374.)—Mr. Warner's Oriental tour occupied the winter and spring of 1875. The first half of his journey, devoted to Egypt, has already been recorded by him in a work of which the first edition was entitled 'Mummies and Moslems,' and the last edition 'My Winter on the Nile.' 'In the Levant,' of which the next edition will doubtless be labelled 'My Spring upon Holy-Land,' continues the narrative of this tour, describing the coast of Turkey from Palestine to Greece. The most humorous chapter is that about the Dead Sea, though the whole book is in this respect only inferior to 'The Innocents Abroad,' which it so much resembles that it might almost be called its extension. The charms of the book may easily be stated as two : first, it is unconquerably good-natured, as witnessed by a vein of mirth never embittered by discomfort or irritation ; secondly,

the author is free from prejudices and pretentious professions, and describes (precisely as he witnesses them) the ecclesiastical monstrosities which he beholds, without either palliation or abuse.

While warmly praising Mr. Warner for his honesty and jollity, we may be pardoned for cautioning him that American humor is always prone to degenerate into jauntiness, and that irony, in order not to be misunderstood, should be true in two senses, the literal as well as the figurative; otherwise a stupid reader will bitterly condemn a supposed liar or blasphemer. To be sure it is difficult to be always thus considerate. Sometimes a pair of quotation-marks will save offence, as in the sentence, "There is a little house north of this mosque, in which the Virgin spent the last years of her life; if she did, she must have lived to be over a thousand years old." Many people will accuse Mr. Warner of irreverence when he writes that the Jews' quarter appears to him "as if it were always Monday morning there, but never washing-day. . . . Even the sanctuary was full of unkempt people. . . . If this is a specimen of the restoration of the Jews, they had better not be restored any more. The thing to do on Friday is to go and see the Jews wail, as in Constantinople it is to see the Sultan go to prayer, and in Cairo to hear the darwishes howl. . . . This ancient practice is not what it once was, having lost its spontaneity by becoming fashionable; it will, however, be kept up, even if it should become necessary to hire people to wail." More open to objection is the following: "This intermittent character [of the Pool of Siloam] St. John attributed to an angel who came down and troubled the water; the Moslems, with the same superstition, say that it is caused by a dragon, who sleeps therein and checks the stream when he wakes." Had our author known that the text of Scripture upon which he bases the first predicate is now ascertained to be an interpolation, he might have been spared this blemish.

The criticism that too many conversations are quoted in this book appears to us unreasonable. What comments could be more suggestive than this: "We had a guide who never failed to satisfy the curiosity of the most credulous tourist. 'Whose tombs are these?' we asked. 'That is the tomb of Joseph of Arimathea, and that beside it is the tomb of Nicodemus.' 'How do you know?' 'How do I know? . . . I was born here.' 'Then perhaps you can tell us, if this tomb belonged to Joseph of Arimathea and this to Nicodemus, whose is this third one?' 'O yes, that other,' replied the guide, with only a moment's paralysis of his invention, 'that is the tomb of Arimathea himself.'" The following description of pilgrimages will show that Mr. Warner is not unappreciative of what is really sincere in the devotees of "religion":

"We hear more of the pilgrimage to Mecca than of that to Jerusalem; but the latter is the more remarkable phenomenon. I believe it equals the former, which is usually overrated in numbers, and it certainly equals it in zeal and surpasses it in the variety of nationalities represented. The pilgrims of the cross increase yearly; to supply their wants, to minister to their credulity, to traffic on their faith, is the great business of the Holy City. Few who are not in Palestine in the spring have any idea of the extent of this vast yearly movement of Christian people upon the Holy Land, or of the simple zeal which characterizes it. The driblets of travel from America and from Western Europe are as nothing in the crowds thronging to Jerusalem from Ethiopia to Siberia, from the Baltic to the Ural Mountains. Already for a year before the Easter season have they been on foot, slowly pushing their way across great steppes, through snows and over rivers, crossing deserts and traversing unfriendly countries; the old, the infirm, women as well as men, their faces set towards Jerusalem. No common curiosity moves this mass; it is a true pilgrimage of faith, the one event in a life of dull monotony and sordid cares, the one ecstasy of poetry in an existence of poverty and ignorance."

L'Art de la Lecture. Par Ernest Legouvé, de l'Académie Française. (Paris: J. Hetzel & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 18mo, pp. 171.) —M. Legouvé has an hereditary right to his taste for reading aloud. His father—like himself, a member of the French Academy—was a celebrated reader and even teacher of reading; when Mlle. Duchesnois made her first appearance she was announced in the bills as a pupil of M. Legouvé. The taste thus acquired from the father was strengthened by the necessities of the son's profession. M. Legouvé is the author of 'Médée,' in which Ristori was most powerful, and he was the collaborator of Scribe in writing 'Les Doigts de Fée,' 'La Bataille des Dames,' and other plays known to all interested in the French stage. As a dramatist he was called upon to read his plays aloud, and the acceptance of a piece at the hands of the committee of the Théâtre Français may often depend on the skill of the dramatist as a reader; in this very book M. Legouvé gives a most entertaining account of the way in which by his tact and talent as a reader he won over Rachel and induced her spontaneously to reverse her decision to refuse 'Adrienne Lecouvreur,' which he and Scribe had written especially for her. As a dramatic author, also, M. Legouvé was thrown into close contact with the best actors in Europe—the Comédie Française—and with the best readers in France—Samson, Regnier, Got, Coquelin; and he watched them and worked with them. All these things combined to favor the author in his study of the art of reading aloud. To prove that it is an art is the object of the book before us.

It was the actor Macklin, if we mistake not, who advertised "Clergymen taught to read the Lord's Prayer." Lawyers, as much as clergymen, according to M. Legouvé, are victims of the theory that to read aloud well comes by nature. He seeks to show that it is an art, that like any other art it is long, and that it therefore deserves serious attention. His essay is at once an appeal in favor of the study of reading aloud as one of the fine arts and a preliminary lesson in the essentials of the art itself. Pointing out current errors, he shows the need of schooling to correct them. But although the intent of his book is didactic, nothing could be less dry. He teaches by example—he is famed in France as an admirable reader; and by examples—his pages are filled with pertinent anecdotes. He illustrates every part and point of his theme by the citation of some incident in his own experience as a reader, or by the quotation of some saying gathered in his career as a dramatist. By an anecdote of Mlle. Mars, for example, he shows that the effect of power is not produced on an audience by the expenditure of main strength. One morning, at a rehearsal of 'Louise de Lignerolles,' one of M. Legouvé's earliest successes, in which she was to "create" the part of the heroine, she seemed tired and indisposed to exert herself. In the second act she had a scene which needed great energy.

"She rehearsed it without letting out her voice, making indeed hardly any gestures, and yet all the effects, all the intentions, all the shades of sentiment were expressed and visible. It was like a picture seen from afar or like music heard at a distance. It suggested a pastel, slightly faded by time, but in which every tone keeps its exact shade, every form holds its exact value, and everything, in short, was complete in proper proportion. This little event was for me a revelation. I understood upon what a fixed basis the art of speech (*diction*) was founded, since a great artist could extinguish, if I may hazard the word, her personage without making it lose anything in its proportions, in its *ensemble*, or in its relief."

Great exertion is not only unnecessary but injurious, as the speaker or reader, when once tired, has no reserve of strength at the moment when perhaps it is most needed. Talma, says M. Legouvé, condensed this into one striking maxim: An artist who fatigues himself is mediocre. How not to fatigue himself was only discovered by Talma after protracted experiment and infinite labor. A really great artist, indeed, rarely shrinks from labor, however long. M. Legouvé relates that he and Rachel spent three hours toiling over thirty lines of this same play, "Louise de Lignerolles," in which Rachel was to follow and hoped to surpass Mars.

The book is dedicated to the students of the Superior Normal School of Paris, before whom the substance of it was delivered as a lecture. Teachers and students in this country will find much profit in it. To all amateur actors in particular it can be recommended; upon most of these its effect fortunately will be discouraging. For example, it will show them that one branch of the art of acting—the management and training of the voice—needs and repays an amount of practice of which the uninitiated can hardly form any idea. The speaker must train his voice as fully and as carefully as the singer, although in a different way. M. Legouvé tells us of Malibran that in singing the rondo of "La Sonnambula" she finished with a three-octave trill, and when complimented on this wonderful achievement, she gaily replied, "Oh! I sought it long enough. For a month I have been running after it. I chased it every where—when arranging my hair—when dressing myself—and I found it at last one morning in the toe of my slippers in putting them on!"

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 11, 1877.

The Week.

RETURNS from the Ohio election, as we go to press, indicate the success of Bishop, the Democratic candidate for Governor, by a majority which will probably be somewhere between 15,000 and 25,000 votes. The Legislature also will be Democratic in all probability, and Pendleton is expected to be chosen United States Senator. The Republicans lost from a variety of causes, both creditable and the reverse, and the total vote of the party was light. Contrary to expectation, they and not the Democrats suffered by the two Workingmen's tickets, which polled from 20,000 to 25,000 votes. It cannot be denied that this is a very proper reward for the disgusting demagogy of the platform. On the financial side the election is of little significance, and we are not sure that an inflationist like Pendleton will be more dangerous in the Senate than a silverman like Stanley Matthews. As regards the President, the *World* is nearly correct in stating that such is the curious position of both parties towards him that he finds himself "at one and the same time approved by the Democratic victory and condemned by the Republican defeat." His "policy" is said to have cost the party the vote of the Western Reserve; and with as much plausibility, perhaps, we are assured that his "order" disheartened and paralyzed the "workers."

The Democrats of this State have held their convention, and somehow it has not, any more than the Republican Convention, proved a reform convention at all. Somehow, just as the Conkling faction managed to get control of the latter and used it for the supposed benefit of Conkling, the Kelly faction got control of the former and used it for the supposed benefit of Kelly, and for strengthening and extending the supremacy of Tammany Hall in the party. How this happened is hardly worth trying to tell. A description of the intrigues of a parcel of vulgar tricksters is neither edifying nor entertaining reading. The platform fixes "the brand of fraud" on the Republican Party in the matter of the Presidential election; approves of the course of the Administration towards the South; calls for gold *and* silver legal tender; "steady steps" towards specie payments (one hears a good deal about these "steps" in platforms, but they are never described); revenue reform, and tariff for revenue only; home rule; better civil and criminal remedies to enforce official accountability; supervisability of corporations chartered by the State, and so on. We have omitted the clauses which call for a general display of virtue by all classes and conditions. It said that the way to solve the labor problem is to pass "equal and just laws," and to "sternly refuse" to yield to the demands of "grasping monopolies." After calling for a better supervision of the savings-banks, and castigating the Republicans, the platform closes by "pointing with pride" to the State administration of Governors Tilden and Robinson.

We are sorry to see that the Republican press refrains from discussing Mr. Conkling's plan of civil-service reform, which we reproduced in our last number. Considering the way the "doctrinaires" and "theorists" have bemuddled this question, we supposed that when a really practical man took it up, and presented a solution of it in a few clear and simple rules, his suggestions would have received proper attention. What, too, we may well ask, is the use of "a great Senator" coming forth from his study and settling a thing in a few weighty words if nobody pays any attention to him? Is this the way to encourage genuine statesmanship? Take Rule No. 3 of the plan: "Fit men and no others should hold public trusts." Could anything go to the root of the difficulty more deftly? It *seems* simple, now that Mr. Conkling lays it before us, but which of the theorists who talk so glibly about "reform" would ever have thought of it? It is in such things as this that one sees the difference between the man of affairs and the mere closet politician. There is to be a meeting of the Civil-Service Reform Association on the 18th inst. in this city, at Association Hall, at which we trust some amends will be made to Mr. Conkling for the neglect of the newspapers; but we also trust that the speakers will not be afraid to make any little suggestions of their own that may occur to them, however slight they may seem by comparison.

A meeting was held at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on Monday evening by friends of the proposed constitutional amendments relating to cities, and a committee was appointed to call a public meeting to consider the subject and take such further measures as may be necessary. The meeting represented the business and tax-paying interests of the city, and the signers of the call for it all belong to the solid respectable classes who do whatever is done from time to time towards arousing interest in real public questions and avoid having anything to do with partisan squabbles over offices. The meeting revealed an encouraging amount of strength in the movement, and the general drift of the speeches showed, what we suppose no one denies, that if it fails now the last hope of getting a better system than that which produces our Kellys and Tweeds will die out. Much depends on the method of action adopted at the public meeting. If it follows the usual course and resolves to nominate a "full ticket," it will probably merely waste its strength and fall into the slough in which so many "reform" movements have already miserably perished. The direction in which an effort can be made is clearly the legislature. If the next legislature passes the amendments they will have to be voted on by the people. The movement undoubtedly will command many thousand votes throughout the State, which, by being thrown together, will be able to secure the election of a certain number of members of the legislature pledged to pass the amendments. A candidate who knows that anything short of a distinct pledge to vote in a certain way will lose him his seat, is very apt to give the pledge required. The Republicans are likely to vote for the amendments as a party measure; so that if any considerable number of Democrats can be got to pledge themselves on the same side, their passage will be secured whichever party wins.

Down to 1846 admission to the bar in this State was entirely in the hands of the judges. The Supreme Court prescribed the requisites and methods of admission. The rules of court prescribed a term of seven years' clerkship for attorneys, though an allowance of four years in the case of persons who had regularly pursued "classical studies" for that period reduced the apprenticeship to three years in most cases. But besides this, three years more were required for admission as counsellor, making the whole time of strictly professional preparation at least six years. The constitution of 1846, however, contained an article making male citizenship, good moral character, and what were described as the "requisite qualifications of learning and ability," the only qualifications. The intention of this was to break down the barriers to admission, and accordingly we find that under this provision every real check, except that furnished by an examination conducted under the supervision of the Supreme Court, was done away with. The long period of study and apprenticeship which, down to the adoption of the constitution of 1846, had been required disappeared, while at the same time, by special statutes, several local law-schools and universities were given the right of securing admission for their graduates after a period of study of from one year to eighteen months, without any examination. These institutions had, of course, a direct pecuniary interest in turning out as many lawyers, qualified or not qualified, as possible, and thus in still further lowering the professional standard.

The new rules, of which we have spoken elsewhere, provide in general for a three years' term of clerkship in the case of attorneys, and two additional years' practice for counsellors. After the age of eighteen, however, one year is taken off the period of clerkship for college or university graduates. For these any portion of time not over a year, and for non-graduates not over two years, spent at a law-school, or in attendance at law lectures connected with colleges or universities of this State, is to be allowed instead of an equal period of clerkship. In no case can any one be admitted without one year's apprenticeship in an office. Examinations held under the direction of the Supreme Court are also required, both for attorneys and counsellors. The source from which the Court of Appeals derives authority to make these rules is a law passed in 1871, under the influence of the reform feeling created by the judicial scandals which then had come to the knowledge of the public, and this has been substantially re-enacted in the Code adopted a few weeks since. Under it rules were adopted May 1, 1871, by which three years were made the requisite period of clerkship; but these rules made no distinction between attorneys and counsellors. The rules now adopted are those of 1871 made more strict. The statutes giving the schools special privileges in the way of admission have been repealed by a recent act.

The most startling fraud of the year came to light on Tuesday last, when it was discovered that Mr. William C. Gilman, an insurance-scrip broker, who has held the very highest character in business and society for twenty years, was discovered to have raised loans amounting to over $200,000 on scrip of the Atlantic Mutual Marine Insurance Co., in which the figures were altered, and very large amounts substituted for very small ones. The worst of it was that it appeared that this had not been done in one case, but in several, nor on one occasion, but at intervals since January, 1876. The discovery was made almost by accident, one of the lenders having called in his loan, and, finding Mr. Gilman absent from the city, tried to borrow from a bank on the forged paper. The bank called his attention to the alteration, and, the alarm given, various other cases came to light. It would be difficult to overrate the depth of the shock given to Mr. Gilman's friends and the community by this revelation, and it may fairly be said that no ruin of character since the panic has caused more sorrow or surprise. The moral of his unhappy fate it is needless to draw. One thing must be said, however, as to the conduct of the banks and bankers who lent him money, not by way of palliation of his crime but in the interest of honest business. The forgeries are acknowledged to be clumsy, and palpable on even slight examination. They appear to have escaped examination owing to Mr. Gilman's high standing and the general confidence felt in him. It was very probably this carelessness which first tempted or suggested the fraud to him, and which caused him to repeat it. Viewed in this light it was little short of criminal. No man is good enough to have his papers taken without close examination, or his money without careful counting.

Senator Patterson, of South Carolina, having been indicted for an attempt to bribe the Legislature of that State, and for procuring Niles G. Parker to commit larceny, has been arrested in Washington on a requisition from Governor Hampton, but has had himself temporarily liberated on a *habeas corpus*. He relies in defying the requisition on the plea that as he is in Washington as a Senator he is not a fugitive from justice, and that the indictment was not found at the regular term of the court or at the time or place authorized by law, on his parliamentary privilege, and probably on such other things, all and singular, as his lawyers may happen to think of between now and the hearing. His fundamental objection to the whole proceeding is that he does not want to be tried. The *Evening Post* of this city gives the statesman some very extraordinary advice. It urges him to go down quietly and stand his trial, and assures him that with the Northern press watching it the Columbia court will try him fairly. This must amuse him, as he probably feels like the Irishman who was anxiously awaiting his trial in jail, and, being assured by a friend that the judge was an upright man and that he "would get justice," exclaimed, "Begorra, that's the very thing I'm afeard of." Our advice to Patterson is to wriggle out of the hands of the police in any way he can. What are they down there in Columbia, after all, but a parcel of "Confederate Colonels" and "Brigadiers"; and are they not, as was settled in Mr. Blaine's case, pretty fellows to talk about bribery, or, for that matter, about larceny, forgery, or embezzlement? Then, too, he ought to ask himself, Who is to take care of "the Republican party" in South Carolina if the leaders go quietly to jail?

At all the European money centres the rate for loans advanced during the week. The Bank of England, by reason of the large loss of specie—partly to this country and partly to the Continent—put its minimum discount rate up to 4 per cent., and the indications point to a higher rather than a lower rate in the early future. Ordinarily an advance in the rate of money in London has the effect of stiffening exchange and gold here. Instead of that, the price of gold here has fallen during the week to 102¼, the lowest since May 10, 1862; and the market for sterling exchange has been weak and depressed under the increased supply of cotton bills and of bankers' bills lent to stock speculators, who resorted to this method of obtaining time loans. At the Stock Exchange there was a buoyant speculation in railroad shares, and the highest prices of the year were made. So far as this speculation has a good foundation it rests on the present and prospective large tonnage of the roads, and on the prospect that the leading companies will agree on remunerative rates. The buying thus far has been restricted to professional speculators, and the public continue sellers of stocks. In not a few cases the prices of stocks have been more than doubled in the present speculation, and there are very few stocks which have advanced less than 20 per cent. Money has advanced to 6 to 7 per cent. The banks have a surplus reserve of over $8,000,000. During the week the Treasury legal-tender note for one dollar had a gold value of as much as $0.9756. Silver advanced in London to 55⅝d. per oz.; and the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week would have had a gold value of $0.9320.

The list of "official candidates" offered to the French constituencies by the Government has been published, and is found to consist of 298 Bonapartists, 131 Legitimists, and 83 Orleanists. The Bonapartists get the lion's share mainly because they are really stronger than the other classes of Monarchists with the people. To prevent the great and probably ludicrous scandals which would be caused by allowing all these gentlemen to issue addresses to the electors containing their individual views, it is proposed that they should remain perfectly still, and let the Marshal issue a general address shortly before the elections, to which the candidates in each district should affix their signatures. The Ministers in no way abate their arbitrary absurdities, but the Republicans are making a gallant struggle which resembles an American canvass more than anything the French have ever had. Both parties are appealing vigorously to the courts, mostly about "insults," with varied fortune, and the charges they are making against each other have a most comic resemblance to the old-fashioned American "campaign story." One Conservative editor has been sued successfully for publishing a political programme ascribed to the 363 Republican deputies, which includes a demand for 300,000 heads of the middle classes, and charges that at all their banquets this little plank is spoken of as essential. The colporteurs, too, licensed by M. Fourtou, are accused of assaulting people very freely who refused to purchase a pamphlet entitled "The Marshal and his Policy." The *Débats* has made a very strong point by reproducing from the dust of nearly fifty years the proclamation of Charles X. dissolving the Chamber before the elections, which called forth the ordonnances; and, placing it side by side with the recent one of the Marshal, the likeness of the leading passages is most striking.

A posthumous address to the electors of the Ninth Arrondissement, found among the papers of the late M. Thiers, was given by Mignet to the Paris press on the 24th of September. It is a long document, and begins with a defence of the Chamber of Deputies dissolved in May. In reply to the charge that it was a "radical" body, Thiers points out that it voted down a proposition to reduce the term of service in the army from five to three years; entrusted the Executive with the distribution of amnesty to repentant Communists; accepted five out of seven of the Senate's amendments to the budget, while doubting the right of the Senate to offer them, and did not quarrel with that body for refusing the state the power to confer academic degrees; set aside the income tax; kept silent about foreign affairs; received no proposals affecting the Concordat; voted increased public-worship estimates, and opposed a simple order of the day to clerical onslaughts. He then goes into the history of the period from his own resignation to the 16th of May; shows that the monarchy was vainly hawked about the streets of Europe by men without warrant, and that in view of three pretenders to it its adoption now would mean civil war, near or remote. The question before the electors is: "Is the republic desirable? If so, ought it to be securely constituted and in the hands of men who wish it to succeed?" M. Thiers declares the republic a necessity, and defines it to be an equitable division of the government among all classes according to their importance and merits. He denounces the obstacles thrown by the Government in the way of a free formation and full expression of public sentiment before the election, and ends by holding up to ridicule the pretext of "saving France" which has already destroyed three monarchies, and which only means resistance to the "march of humanity." This address has been followed by a bold manifesto of Gambetta's, in which he repeats the phrase for which he was prosecuted, and he has harangued a great public meeting in Paris amid perfect order.

The only important military event of the week is the protracted battle fought in Turkish Armenia. The victorious commander, Mukhtar Pasha, calls it a three-days' engagement, but whether he includes Monday, October 1, on which a kind of prelude took place, or Thursday, October 4, may still be doubted, so confused is the mass of reports received from both camps; but it is certain that Tuesday was the great day of the battle, and that on Thursday evening the Russians were in full retreat. The attack was made by General Melikoff, under the direct orders of Grand Duke Michael. Great Yagni Hill, defended only by a single Turkish battalion, was surprised early in the morning of Tuesday, and captured after a brave resistance. The defenders were cut to pieces or captured. This blow struck the extreme left of the Turkish position, which from there, with its advanced centre at the lately-captured Kiziltepe, extended in a semi-circular direction to the neighborhood of Ani, on the Arpa Tchai. But here alone the Russians were successful. Little Yagni, an adjoining hill, which was the next object of assault, was found too strongly fortified; repeated attacks on the centre were repulsed with heavy loss, and a separate force operating on the Turkish right flank, which had nearly succeeded in turning it and cutting Mukhtar's communications with Kars, was ultimately driven back to the banks of the Arpa Tchai. Here a fight ensued on Wednesday, which the Russians reported as ending with the repulse of the Turks. The Russian right and centre were forced back, and eventually, possibly after renewed fighting on Thursday, the bulk of the Grand Duke's army withdrew beyond the Kars Tchai, giving up the lines occupied before the battle between that affluent of the Arpa Tchai and the Turkish positions. The losses of the Russians seem to have been exceedingly heavy, as their official bulletin spoke of three thousand killed and wounded on Tuesday alone. This affair, there can hardly be any doubt, ends the second Russian aggressive campaign in Asia, the last of the year, for which Grand Duke Michael had collected considerable forces, diminishing for the sake of it, as is stated, even the troops operating against revolted mountaineers in the Caucasus. If the new rising there, as Russian bulletins acknowledge, has gradually spread over "all Central and Southern Daghestan," and "the main body of the insurgents," the defeat and dispersion of which on September 23 and 24 are reported, actually numbered "six thousand," and another "band of four thousand" had to be combated on September 30 and October 3, the movement may be fraught with danger for the Russian order of things in Caucasia. Daghestan is the land of the Tchetchentzes and Lesghians, once the most formidable enemies of Russia in the mountains, whose numbers were not reduced by emigration after defeat like those of the Circassians.

The principal news from the European seat of the war is the change of Turkish commanders. Mehemet Ali, lately commander-in-chief north of the Balkans, makes room for Suleiman Pasha, and goes to Thessaly, it is said, where he can do a great deal of good by vigorously maintaining order and security for both Moslem and Christian, as he once did in Bulgaria and elsewhere. Whether he has fallen—for a great fall it is—because of his failure to break through the Russian positions on the Yantra, to which we alluded last week, or owing to intrigues at the camp or at the Sultan's palace, as gossiping correspondents assert, we do not venture to guess at this distance. Nor are we inclined to predict that Suleiman Pasha's greater energy or recklessness will be more apt to destroy an army—the enemy's or his own—than was his predecessor's cautious and slow handling of his troops. Snow and rain, now so plentiful in Bulgaria, may dampen his ardor, or the last addition of Russian Guards to his opponent's forces keep him on the defensive. Raouf Pasha succeeds Suleiman at the Shipka pass, where, as on the Lom and before Plevna, a kind of cessation of hostilities has prevailed throughout the week. That, preparatory to a new struggle about Plevna, important movements of Russian and Turkish troops have taken place west of the Vid—the former embracing part of the Imperial Guards, and the latter being fresh reinforcements from Orhanie and Sophia—is asserted, but may be doubted. In the same class of doubtful statements may be included the reports that the Russians are removing their headquarters to Sistova, and that Osman Pasha is preparing to withdraw to Orhanie or Vratza.

After Niksitch and Bilek, Goransko and some other posts in Herzegovina surrendered to the Prince of Montenegro, like the former, without striking a blow. Most of the garrisons, which, in the aggregate, numbered less than a thousand, were allowed to depart, that of Niksitch, after "an unconditional surrender," with its rifles and cannon. This evidently pointed to a kind of tacit understanding between the Turks and Montenegrins, which would free the former from the necessity of maintaining in Montenegro troops more needed elsewhere, and of constantly revictualling isolated posts which have a value only as a menace to Montenegro, and would save the Montenegrins the trouble of reducing those posts by slow sieges. And now comes the news that Prince Nicholas considers his campaign in Herzegovina as ended, having gained as much territory there as he can hope to keep when peace is concluded, and that he has actually transferred his operations to the region of Podgoritza in northern Albania, where he also expects a rectification of his frontier. This looks like an abandonment of the Slavic cause, for which the Prince drew his sword last year in rivalry with Prince Milan of Servia; for the insurgents in Herzegovina and Bosnia—if there are still any left of those who two years ago first kindled the flame of war in Turkey—are now completely deserted. Prince Milan, urged to co-operate with the Czar, lacks the courage to do more than offer aid in constantly renewed and as often disavowed threats, which may be distracting to the Turks. If he waits for a new battle of Plevna finally to decide his resolution, he may in the meanwhile also find a key for deciphering the oracular utterances in regard to this very resolution recently made in the respective Parliaments, by the premiers of Cisleithan and Transleithan Austria. His reported demand of a guarantee of independence and a promise of an extension of territory in the direction of Bosnia looks like a pretext for minding his own interests.

THE BAR AND THE COURTS.

THE Court of Appeals of this State has instituted a much-needed reform by the promulgation of a body of rules regulating the admission to the bar, the most prominent features of which are the requirement of a three years' clerkship in an attorney's office, and two years' practice as attorney, before beginning to practice in court as a counsellor, with certain allowances of time in the period of clerkship to graduates of colleges and universities as well as students in law-schools. Down to a very recent period the only qualifications for admission required by the courts in this State were: the male sex, full age, citizenship of the United States, and ability to pass an examination which was little more than a sham. This extraordinary facility was the result of the constitution of 1846, and was due to the Democratic hostility, of which the constitution was in large part the expression, to all artificial qualifications of whatever nature for any calling or office. Man as man, in the simple character of a furless animal, probably never stood so high in this or any other country as at that time, and the notion that he needed any training or preparation for any duty or pursuit was almost treated with scorn as an antiquated delusion. The long period of apprenticeship (seven years) which had previously stood in the way of young males desirous of pleading causes, had come to be regarded as an instrument of oppression devised by the well-to-do for the exclusion of "the poor boy" from a lucrative calling; and in order that he might have a full chance all restrictions on his admission were remorselessly swept away, and the relations of the bar to the public placed on exactly the same footing as those of dealers in butter. In other words, the practice of the law was converted into a trade, and placed under the rule of *caveat emptor*. If you wanted to know whether a lawyer understood his business or not, or was honest and trustworthy or not, you were told to try him; and if you found him incompetent or were cheated by him, your remedy was to go to another. The effect of this on the profession in this city—the bar of which ought to stand as high as any in the world—we need hardly describe. It became, like any other trade, a very large body of dealers of all sorts. Lawyers swarmed, just as dry-goods men swarmed—some of them men of learning and high character, others, and by far the greater number, shiftless, ignorant persons, trying to get a living in any way they could. When you said a man was a member of the bar, you said nothing as to his character or attainments. You simply said that he was ready to conduct litigation, for any one who employed him; just as if you said he kept a store, you thereby gave no indication of the quality of his wares or the state of his credit. One had to enquire about a lawyer's standing with the same care and precaution as, but with much more difficulty than, about the standing of a dealer in Yankee notions. The scandal and mischief of this state of things became apparent, of course, before many years, and of late the examination for admission has been somewhat more rigid, but has still remained a totally inadequate test of skill and capacity. As a preparation for a profession like the law, the members of which really assist in an important degree in the administration of justice, and in which mistakes inflict such injury on innocent people, knowledge is not enough. Long familiarity with procedure is also requisite, and it is shocking injustice to allow this familiarity to be wholly acquired in actual practice and at the expense of clients.

The change, therefore, which the Court of Appeals has just made is not simply a reform in legal education: it is another striking indication of the reaction against the hazy sentimentality which the triumph of the Democrats thirty years ago embodied in so much State legislation, and with so much resulting mischief and demoralization. Thinking people have begun to see, though only through much bitter experience, that although theologians may have greatly exaggerated the natural man's depravity, yet as he comes into the world he is "no great thing" after all; that it is not what he is, so much as what he is capable of becoming, that is admirable and valuable about him; and that the best and kindest thing that can be done for him is not letting him run loose like a sacred ox, and then trying to see hidden meaning in his pranks, but providing the means by which his great powers can be cultivated and his base inclinations curbed. Indeed, if we said that education and preparation were the ends as well as the means—nay, even more than the means—of civilization, we should not be far wrong.

The evils of an ignorant, and untrained, and undisciplined bar are, however, not by any means confined to the mischief done to clients, as the history of the profession during the last thirty years in this State has abundantly shown. One of the highest functions of the bar is the vigilant criticism of the bench. Towards the judges the bar represents the public in a sphere in which the public cannot act for itself, and in matters of which a layman can form no adequate opinion. Whether a judge is good or bad is something which in a proper state of things the bar ought to be relied on to tell us; if corrupt or incompetent, it is the bar which ought to rid us of him. This would be true, even if our mode of selecting judges were the best now in use, and if the dignity and emoluments of the bench were, as they once were, such as to make judgeships eagerly sought by, or at all events not unwelcome to, leading lawyers. It is doubly true with a system of selection which is probably the worst ever devised in a civilized country, and in the presence of the fact that the bench as a general rule does not tempt the foremost men in the profession. For this function of watchful criticism, however, an educated and disciplined bar is necessary—that is, a bar prepared for its work by some process of training and selection, and controlled in actual practice by some tribunal charged with a censorship of professional morals. To assign it to a heterogeneous body, such as ours, would be useless, even if the bench were all it ought to be. On such a bench as came into existence in this city between 1856 and 1870 a bar such as this, of course, was no check whatever. In fact, it may be said to have entered into an alliance with the corrupt judges for the spoliation of the public and the degradation of justice. We believe it is strictly true that during those fourteen years when the judges were daily waxing bolder in their excesses, until finally Barnard and Cardozo laid aside even the pretence of decency, and some of their brethren were moving rapidly forward in their tracks, no open word of warning or remonstrance came from the bar. There was among the better class of lawyers plenty of grumbling in their offices. Some refused to take cases before certain judges, and others went so far as to say that they would advise no young man to begin the practice of the law in this city; but none dared to raise his voice publicly against the awful scandals which were disgracing the State and nation, or make any organized effort to bring the ermined malefactors to justice. In fact, in the very last days of Barnard's iniquities, he was able to get a testimonial as to judicial character in a published opinion from a leading member of the bar; and we have little doubt that, had he demanded one from the whole bar, it would have received an extraordinary number of signatures.

The truth is that only lawyers of a high character and courage will ever make an enemy of a judge if they can possibly help it, because, unless they can drive him from the bench, he has it in his power to ruin their practice. Indeed, he must be a singularly and notoriously bad man if he cannot, when he is attacked, rally them around him and get them to roll their eyes with him over these monstrous assaults—so full of danger to the administration of justice—on his judicial integrity. In this city it was left to the press, with its limited knowledge and its liability to damaging mistakes, to fight the public battle against the company of knaves who had seized on the administration of justice, and to rouse the popular faith in the possibility of successful resistance. When the uprising came and it was plain that the position could be carried, there were plenty of lawyers to head the assaulting column and do the work of final expulsion. But it must ever remain a shameful memory that Barnard could say that down to the fall of the Ring no lawyer or lawyers of eminence had ever openly called attention to his iniquities. From a recurrence of such disgraceful episodes in

forensic history we have no doubt the improvements in legal education will help to save us, but the public spirit and courage of the profession cannot be roused and its sense of duty to the public be quickened in a year; these things will come slowly, and through a more complete recognition in legislation and professional discipline of the weakness as well as of the strength of human nature.

THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR COMMERCIAL PANICS.

MR. JOHN BRIGHT has been making a speech, at the opening of a new and magnificent city hall in Manchester, in which he somewhat surprised his audience by the utterance of gloomy forebodings as to the future of British industry. In fact, he asked the Manchester men to bethink themselves of the possibility that the great factories to which they owed their wealth and prosperity would at no very distant day be in ruins, like the old castles of the feudal period, at one of which—Tantallon, the stronghold of the Douglases—a friend had lately suggested to him the very thought which he then reproduced. The agency to which he pointed as likely to bring about this overthrow is the exactions and restlessness of the British workman, which are already, he thought, placing the British manufacturer at a marked disadvantage in comparison with his foreign competitors, and threaten him with the loss of the markets which have been opened with so much labor during the past seventy years, and have been the source of such enormous accumulations of wealth. As Mr. Bright has always hitherto taken a very roseate view of the future of English trade, these misgivings have produced much greater effect coming from him than they would have produced coming from almost any other man in England. It has been somewhat deepened by a letter by Sir Edmund Beckett, a noted parliamentary lawyer, in which he charged trades-unions with being combinations to do less work for the given wages, and with teaching the doctrine that it is the business of workingmen to do no more than the least they can get paid for.

Mr. Thomas Brassey, who is one of the largest employers of labor in England, has, however, combated these views, in a paper read before the Trades-Union Congress at Leicester, on "Work and Wages in 1877," and he makes a defence of the workingmen which has a good deal of bearing on the causes of the hard times in this country as well as in England. He shows by some comparisons between British and Continental, as well as American workmen, that the Englishman is really no more fretful, unreasonable, or improvident than any of his neighbors, and much less so than some of them—the Belgians and Germans, for instance; but he points out that American workmen not only get higher wages in many important trades than their British competitors, but are apparently "conscious of the necessity of working hard in order to keep up the high wages they are at present earning." He says:

> "The United States afford some striking illustrations of the extent to which the influence of a high rate of wages on the cost of production may be neutralized by superior organization, by superior industry in the worker, and by the substitution of mechanical for manual labor. The small arms for the Turkish army have been largely supplied from the United States. The ability of the Americans to compete with the makers in this country in the manufacture of an article in which so much labor is employed is a very significant circumstance."

The cause of the present depression in England and Germany, as well as in this country, he holds to be the enormous errors in judgment of the great managers of capital, as shown in the prodigious overtrading and overproduction of the years between 1865 and 1873; and for this, of course, the workingmen, though they suffer the consequences, can in no way be held responsible. As we now look back, this overproduction certainly seems to have been prodigious. There is hardly any leading branch of industry, either in England or America, which does not *now* seem to have been, seven years ago, adding to the world's stock of goods in a most reckless way. We are bound to say, however, that both in Mr. Brassey's utterances and in most of the homilies one reads here on the causes of the existing depression, there is a great deal of vagueness and unprofitableness. They never point out the signs by which, during the season of buoyancy, producers may know that they are doing too much; and this, after all, would be the only contribution of much value that anybody could make to the discussion. The great industrial activity of periods of inflation is not caused simply by the eagerness of manufacturers to turn out goods: it is caused also by the eagerness of the rest of the public to buy the goods. Trade is kept active just as much by the orders of consumers as by the speculative plans of the manufacturers themselves. The enormous production of railroad iron in this country in 1872—1,000,000 tons—was not the result only of the ironmasters' recklessness or want of judgment; it was also the result of the railroading fever which had taken possession of the whole community, and had turned even ministers and philanthropists into peddlers of worthless stock and bonds. We all see *now* that it was a kind of madness, but this does not say much for our sagacity. Who was it saw it *then?* What we need in the commercial world is not so much lecturers and preachers to tell us after we have broken our heads that it was all due to our fast driving, as somebody to tell us while driving that at that pace our heads are in danger. Somehow these people do not appear at the right time. At least two-thirds of those who are now explaining "the hard times" were in 1872 showing with much vociferation that hard times would probably never come again. To the producer an active market will always operate as an overpowering stimulus to production, and in fact furnishes him with a reason for producing vigorously of exactly the same nature and force as that which the general dulness of the markets now furnishes him for restricting production, and furnishes to critics for believing that in 1873 he was a fool.

It may be that we shall eventually have men in control of our great accumulations of capital who will be able to take in the whole industrial and commercial field of the globe (with its vast body of delicate, interlacing interests), with so much judgment and perspicacity as to see from a distance the faintest sign of a glut or collapse, and resist resolutely the temptation of rising prices and the contagion of universal hopefulness. But such men must always be scarce. We have in this country now a large number of persons both in and out of business whose wisdom about the events of the last ten years is great, and who certainly never will be caught again making railroads which are not needed, or producing more cotton or iron than they can sell. But they are mostly people on the wrong side of forty, who before the times again become really "good" will have more or less lost their hold on the reins of business, and have yielded their places to men who know nothing except by tradition or youthful reminiscence of the horrors of the crisis through which we are now passing, and to whom the warnings of their elders will appear simply signs of senile nervousness. It is to this change of men and inevitable change of conditions that we in a large measure owe the recurrence of panics at intervals of about twenty years. In other words, the men who figure in one panic seldom figure in another. Both the deluders and their victims have changed, and the legitimate volume of business has so grown in the natural course of things that the new men think it would be ridiculous to be frightened by the figures which frightened their fathers.

It is therefore, we think, unfortunate to tell workingmen that any class in particular is especially worthy of blame for the commercial crises which cause so much suffering. They are mostly due to a kind of national delirium in which all classes share, and for which it is difficult to suggest any complete remedy, except the ordinary and rather vague one of individual prudence, which, however, would be more effective if we did not preach and admire enterprise still more than prudence, although it is enterprise that gets nearly everybody into commercial trouble. Mr. Brassey makes one excellent suggestion to the trades-unions, and that is, that they should pay highly, if necessary, agents possessing the capitalists' or manufacturers' knowledge of the markets at home and abroad, and who would be competent to advise them as to when present or prospective rise or decline in prices justified them in asking for an in-

crease of wages or submitting to a reduction. Most of their strikes to-day are due to their unwillingness to accept the assertions or opinions of the employer on this point. But we doubt whether a salaried officer of this kind would long retain his reputation for honesty, if really honest. Accusations of "selling out" to the employer and of being in sympathy with him would not be long in coming.

THE BERLIN ART EXPOSITION.

BERLIN, Sept. 18, 1877.

THE Exposition at the Cantian Place is the fifty-first of its kind, yet outside of Germany, and perhaps even in Germany, it has never been able to receive from either the artists or the general public a tenth part of the attention which is regularly bestowed on the Paris *Salon*. Thus, this time there are hardly any works by foreign artists. Belgium is represented by five pictures, Sweden and Norway by two, Holland, France, England, and America (from Cincinnati) are each represented by but one. To these may be added eleven from Vienna, eight from the German colony in Rome, one from Prague, and one from Meran. Perhaps the participation of foreign artists would have been a little more considerable, if, as heretofore, one year had been allowed to pass without any exposition. The home production, however, has been large enough to justify the innovation. The catalogue has 1,084 numbers, of which 801 are oil paintings by nearly 500 artists. The sculptors, needing more time, have, with a few exceptions, found sufficient space in one not very large room; fifty-four sculptors have sent ninety-seven statues and reliefs. The rest are different kinds of engravings, water-color drawings, and architectural designs. It may interest some persons to know that the fairer sex is represented by forty artists; but if the productions of any of them have attracted particular attention, I have failed to learn it.

If our nation should remain as prolific of "artists" as it is at present—Berlin alone being represented in the catalogue by 170 names, Düsseldorf by 106, Munich by 65, Weimar by 35—and the quality of their works prove but half as good as their quantity is astounding, then it will soon be time to erect a permanent building for these expositions. The present provisional one is very modest—so modest that it almost requires some self-abnegation to enter it instead of going a few steps further to the "National Gallery," the splendid architecture of which renders it fully worthy of its destination, viz., to be a representative collection of the national art. Yet the humble neighbor is better adapted to its purpose. The four saloons and nineteen galleries of which the Exposition building consists receive their light from above in such a manner that every picture appears to good advantage, though there may be a few—as, for instance, Bleibtreu's painting: King William, seated on a board which is supported by the corpse of a horse, in consultation with Moltke and his generals—the effect of which could be artificially increased by having the light fall on them through a window from a certain direction only. There is not a single would-be immortal who can charge the hanging committee with having prevented his becoming recognized as a modern Apelles by assigning his masterpieces to some dark corner. Democratic equality reigns supreme. So it should be; but those who come to enjoy and not to judge are frequently justified in wishing that it could be otherwise; the number of pictures is not small for which a more or less shaded corner would be the best place in the world. I have, however, noticed but one for which it would be impossible to find a corner that is shaded enough.

As a whole the Exposition is certainly quite creditable, though, as everybody admits, there is not a single really great work of genius. This does not prove that we are sliding downwards. Those who believe such to be the case find a better support for their opinion in the equally incontestable fact that our best-known painters, with hardly an exception, have made better pictures than those which they send this year. But that, I think, does not prove anything either. Edward Bendemann's "Penelope" will not increase his reputation, but it is a good picture and not unworthy of the master. And the same may be said of the paintings exhibited by the two Achenbachs, Danz, Lutteroth, Dressler, and many others. Yet I cannot deny that the Exposition has left me somewhat unsatisfied, and this seems to be the general impression. There is no lack of talent and good schooling, but we search in vain for the inspirations of genius. We are often pleased, and sometimes cannot help admiring, but we always remain cool and sober. There has been much painting done because there are many painters, but not one picture has struck me as having been painted because the artist could not help doing it, and doing it just as he has done it: work and study in abundance, but little or no spontaneous creating. Good workmanship is so general that our manufacturers might learn something from the example; but original ideas are at a discount, and truly grand conceptions are just now not quoted at the art exchange. At the first hurried review the visitor is principally struck by two facts: the battle-scenes from our late wars have at last begun to attract attention by their absence, and the whole broad field of the *Historienmalerei* also bids fair to present soon the aspect of a desert. There are only eight paintings properly belonging to the latter class, and if all (including the whole of the first-mentioned class) are counted in that can possibly be pressed into this category, the number barely rises to thirty.

That the palmy days of the first class are gone is hardly to be regretted. For ten years our painters have ministered so liberally to our patriotism and to our vanity—a considerable number of large rooms in the National Gallery is almost exclusively devoted to our military triumphs—that we are not likely to suffer in any respect by submitting for some time to a régime of strict abstinence. Whether our artists have got tired of painting rearing horses, dying soldiers, and gloomy-looking French prisoners, or whether the public has seen enough of these things; or, finally, whether purses have grown too slender to burn such expensive incense on the altar of patriotism—for the size of the canvas must of course be commensurate with the greatness of our deeds—are questions which I have to leave undecided. One of these patriotic pictures, King William proclaimed Emperor of Germany in Versailles, by Director von Werner, requires particular notice, not only because it is the gift of the German sovereigns to the Emperor, but because it is probably also the best, as it is by far the largest, historical painting in the Exposition. I had been told that the photograph did not give any adequate idea of the original, and I found this to be more true than I had expected. I must confess, however, that the picture did not make the slightest impression upon me, though I agree with those who think that the artist deserves the highest praise. It was very natural that the German princes wished to have just this scene painted, but they imposed a most ungrateful task on the artist. A closely-packed mass of men in all sorts of uniforms, every one of them standing on his feet, and no real action—for all the motion that could possibly be put into these figures does not deserve this name—these are not the elements out of which anybody could make a great picture. The most striking—because comparatively isolated—figure is one of the guards in white uniform, top-boots, and glittering helmet. How could the artist help that? He had to be historically true. And so he has been in one very important respect: there is not one uniform, not one order, that is not absolutely correct. And yet the picture is not as true a record as it is generally said to be. I have been told, by people who ought to know, that many a high personage is to be found in it to whom, in fact, envious fate had not granted the favor of being present at the occasion. Instead of telling you directly why Director von Werner was forced thus to correct fortune, allow me to relate an anecdote which is said to be strictly true. The Duke of Coburg, whom some of our doctrinarians once thought fit to be made Emperor of Germany, complained bitterly because the iron cross had been awarded so very freely. "Well," replied Bismarck, "how could that have been helped? There are many officers and privates who distinguished themselves so much that nobody dared grudge it to them; and then, again, there are many persons to whom, from policy and from courtesy, it could not very well be denied—like your highness and me."

That all the persons whose portraits have been hung up in the Exposition belong to the happy class to whom such honors cannot very well be denied, I can hardly believe; but there are certainly altogether too many faces so ugly and so insipid-looking—especially of young women fresh from boarding-school—that they should not have been hung up there for any other consideration whatever. It was neither necessary to remind us in such a way that we do not suffer from an over-abundance of female beauties, nor are these young girls likely to have committed any sin so great as to deserve the punishment of having their empty faces with blunt noses and large mouths exposed to the gaze of the general public. Upon the whole, however, the portraits will be classed among the best things in the Exposition, though the first prize will be carried off by the landscapes. I shall but mention: "Ostende" and "Scheveningen," by Andreas Achenbach; "Am Comer See" and "Der Triumphbogen der Claudia," by Lutteroth; "Im norwegischen Hochland," by Dressler; and "Landsknechte auf der Wanderschaft" (mercenaries crossing in a storm a primitive

bridge in the mountains), without, however, intimating that there are not many others fully as excellent.

Religious paintings there are hardly any—at the most one can count eight—and in looking upon those I involuntarily asked myself: Is it, in the strict sense of the word, *possible* in the age of Darwin, Bunsen, Huxley, etc., to paint a crucifixion or a resurrection as it was painted in the sixteenth century? I shall not presume to answer the question, but will rather state that there are people who seem to think it possible. The *Kreuzzeitung*, speaking of the latest paintings of Pfannschmidt for the sepulchre of a Mr. von Krause in Berlin, says: "May they fulfil their apostolic vocation, and soon go in copies all over the world to preach in their language the Gospel of Christ as the one thing that is needed." I wonder whether Raphael or Michael Angelo intended to give their religious paintings the apostolic vocation to do missionary work. "Man merkt die Absicht und wird verstimmt." It is undeniable that our artists furnish but just enough religious paintings to supply the wants of the trade, and that they do not care to send just these works to the expositions. Nevertheless, they bear witness to the fact that religious life is not extinct in our people. The number of pictures is comparatively not small in which the Bible is, so to say, the *focus*, and they belong to the best works among the 250 *Genrebilder*. A peculiarly impressive picture is Hiddmann's "Westphälische Begräbnissfeier," peasants clustered around a coffin, at the head of which the parson reads the funeral service. One cannot help contrasting this picture with Leisten's "Der letzte seines Stammes," a pompous hall, a rich coffin, a beautiful boy kneeling at the side of it, and an old servant leaning mournfully against a pillar. The figures are well drawn and not without feeling, and the execution is in every respect far above mediocrity; yet here is art, while in Hiddmann's composition there was life. Could not perhaps even a boy of noble birth dispense with a velvet cushion if he is going to kneel down at his father's coffin? Upon the whole, I have admired the *Genrebilder* more from a technical point of view than for being life-like. A very striking exception is Knaus's "Das widerspänstige Model," a small boy in a short shirt, screaming and struggling most violently against two bigger boys, doing their best to press him into the service of the smiling painter, who in vain tries to win the good graces of the obstreperous youngster by offering him some apples. On the other hand, I might name the younger Kaulbach's "Träumerei" as a good example of the wonderful skill with which some of our modern artists conquer all technical difficulties; the satin dress of the young girl surpasses everything I have ever seen of the kind. Conrad's amusing "Erst bezahlen," in which the stout and energetic landlady of a country tavern has confiscated the trumpet of one of three wandering musicians, who plead with comical gestures their utter inability to pay their fare, is just on the boundary where life becomes a little too life-like to be exactly the thing for a first-rate picture. Berkelmann's "Volksbank kurz vor dem Falliment" oversteps this boundary. It is an unfortunate attempt to do for the chapter of swindling in our recent history what Von Werner has done for that of our political resurrection. I shall close with the huge red nose of the cook in Fleischer's "In der Kochstunde." There you have the last stage of realism in art; you already perceive the disgusting smell of the fat which this young lady in her awkwardness is sure sooner or later to spill on the coals. One has no objection to meeting such faces in *Punch* or the *Fliegende Blätter*, but an exposition of works of art is not the right place for them.

THE ROYAL THEATRE IN MUNICH.

October, 1877.

THERE is at present much outcry in the German papers about the degeneracy of the modern stage and the decline of the drama. That this is not an unusual thing, and that the literature of all ages is full of such complaints, are well-known facts, alluded to in an article in a recent number of the *North American Review*. Most of these complaints can be safely put under the general head of the idle talk about the "good old times," being usually based on a total ignorance of the history of the subject. Lessing, it is true, was justified in complaining of a dearth of original works for the German stage, and of the prevailing habit of putting up with the crumbs that fell from the Paris tables. But he could scarcely speak of a "decline," or point to a golden age of the stage preceding his, and, moreover, since his day a number of dramatic authors have lived and done their work; so that on the whole we are inclined to hold, with Wagner, that attention ought to be paid, at present, not so much to the creation of new works of art as to a perfect representation of those already existing. A dramatic school has been recently established at Munich in accordance with Wagner's plans, and another one is talked of in Berlin. These schools will do much good in enforcing on young actors a more strict observance of *Hamlet's* advice to players, especially that relating to the distinct enunciation of their words. In the course of a year's constant attendance at the Munich theatre I only found one actor from whose lips I never missed a single word. Yet, on the whole, I venture to say that the German theatres never were in better condition than now, and a person accustomed to American or English acting finds much to admire in the manner in which plays are put on the stage in the Fatherland.

What has always particularly impressed foreigners is the perfection of the *ensemble*, and the rendering of inferior rôles by actors who are fully competent to take leading parts. Instead of boasting of one star of the first magnitude, rendered more brilliant by contrast with a score of dim telescopic satellites, it is customary for German theatres to have a whole constellation of stars of the second magnitude. Munich, however, is at present fortunate in having two artists of the very first rank, Fräulein Bland, who is at her best as *Gretchen* ("Faust"-drama), *Clärchen* ("Egmont"), and as Schiller-heroine; and Herr Possart, the best Shaksperean actor of Germany, who is also especially great in his rôles of *Mephisto* and *Manfred*. He may be said to have created the latter part, and his rendering of it is what a German would call epoch-making. The music to "Manfred" is by many considered the finest effort of Schumann's genius; but hitherto there has been a drawback to its production on the stage in connection with the drama. It jars disagreeably on musical ears to hear loud-spoken dialogue on the stage while the orchestra below plays an exquisite symphonic passage. This difficulty Possart was the first to overcome, by modulating his voice in harmony with the music. The result was not song, as the vulgar understand the word, but an impassioned declamation, not very unlike the modern music-drama. With this version of the drama Possart made a most successful tour through the German capitals, and I have never seen an audience more awed and moved than at the close of one of these performances—except, perhaps, at a performance of "Faust." Goethe's masterwork was not intended for the stage, and is generally believed not to be especially adapted to it; but as now produced on the Munich stage and elsewhere on the Continent, it is in my opinion the most effective of all dramas. Gounod's version seems, in comparison, a mere parody, in spite of the advantages which the addition of music would seem to give him for the most emotional parts.

The repertory of the Munich theatre is as varied and interesting as the most cosmopolitan taste could desire. The "Almanach" for 1876 shows that in that year forty-nine dramatic authors and thirty-two opera composers were represented on the list. During the regular season, from August, 1876, to August, 1877, 223 performances of drama (comedy and tragedy) and 139 of opera were given. The list opens with Wagner 24 nights, Schiller 15, Auber 12, Goethe 10, Shakspere 9, Verdi 9, Meyerbeer 8, Weber, Mozart, Rossini 7, Lessing 6, Gounod, Bellini 5, etc. If we compare this with the Berlin repertory for the same period, Wagner 37, Mozart 17, Meyerbeer 15, Weber 14, Verdi 12, Auber 10, Beethoven 8, etc., or with the repertories of the Leipzig, Dresden, or Vienna opera-houses, for which I have not room here, we observe at once the most remarkable fact in connection with them—the complete triumph of Wagner. Enemies are fond of now representing this great popularity of Wagner's works as a thing of fashion, likely to exist a few years and then to make way for something else. They forget the one essential point, that things of fashion never require twenty years of slow and painful work to win their way into popular favor. The memory easily carries us back to the time when the royal stage-managers rejected the "Flying Dutchman" as "not adapted to the German stage," when "Tannhäuser" was refused at Berlin on the ground of its being "too lyric" (?); and "Lohengrin" was equally ignored, until a foreigner, Franz Liszt, convinced the Germans of the folly of their conduct. And now what a change! The enthusiasm with which the actors, the chorus, and the orchestra at Munich perform, for instance, "Tannhäuser," and the responsive enthusiasm of the audience, are something extraordinary, and must be seen and heard to be believed in. And yet, in spite of all this, a large party are now doing their very best to repeat the same farce with the later, more mature, and infinitely grander works of the same composer.

A comparison of the repertories of the leading German opera-houses brings to light another significant fact. Of the composers of the French and the Italian schools only the one or two master-works in each case are now played. The other works of the same masters have almost completely

disappeared from the lists. Thus you may find frequently Meyerbeer's "Huguenots" and "Prophet," Rossini's "Tell," and at long intervals the "Barber of Seville," Bellini's "Norma," Donizetti's "Daughter of the Regiment," Auber's "Massaniello," and Verdi's "Trovatore" and "Aïda," but seldom any other works from the pens of these prolific composers. On the other hand there is at present a revival of the noble works of Gluck, so long kept out of the field by their showy but superficial French and Italian rivals; and last year, for the first time, the stage-works of Schumann received a fair and adequate rendering. In the creative department Germany is at present behind-hand. A Russian and a Frenchman, Rubinstein and Saint-Saëns, are just now the most promising candidates in this field. Herr Brüll's "Goldenes Kreuz," which made such a sensation last winter throughout Germany, is nothing but Kapellmeister-music—perfect rubbish, to put it mildly—the musical counterpart of "That Husband of Mine" on this side of the Atlantic.

Among the changes which have in recent years taken place in theatrical matters, none is more gratifying than that relating to the conduct of the audience. A German audience does not often applaud when the curtain is up. There are some cases where that vulgar and vicious habit of drowning instrumental passages and interludes with applause is countenanced; but I am glad to say that this is almost always in an Italian opera, where the applause is perhaps as musical as the instrumental passage, and where the audience is rather more promiscuous than that which attends an opera of the Gluck-Weber-Wagner school. The equally vulgar and disgusting habit of applauding very high or very low notes is also dying out slowly. Paris and London are much worse in this respect than any German city. According to a London paper, "a man may be all that is bad in art, but if he can open his chest and fling out the magic *do* (high C), down comes the gaping house with a cry that testifies to a spasm of delight." This is sad enough, but why does the critic not tell the audience that this is as vulgar as it would be to stand at a street corner and clap your hands in delight at the figures on a circus or a negro-minstrel show-bill? He prefers, instead, to dogmatize on his first impressions, and to go into learned discussions as to whether the *tempo* of a certain movement was not taken by the twentieth part of a second too fast. Perhaps it is unfair to single out the English critic in particular for attack. His German cousin is just as bad, if not worse, although he has the advantage over the former of not being obliged to appear in print till two or three days after a performance, and is thus enabled to mature his opinions. A deep, constitutional bias is the great fault of the German art-critic. He either wears blue eye-glasses and swears that the world is blue; or he wears green glasses and swears it is green. A leading Bavarian paper has a capital method of showing off this weakness. It usually publishes in the same column the critical effusions of two "objective" writers, one of the old, the other of the new school. The result is as good as a comedy.

There is one species of stage amusement which does not seem to flourish at Munich—the ballet. This may seem strange, for Munich is not exactly a moral city. But perhaps this very fact accounts for the neglect of the ballet. As produced in the Royal Theatre, it is invested with too much propriety to suit the tastes of those who are particularly fond of that species of entertainment. The total neglect of the ballet, however, is by no means desirable, as even Wagner admits. It is out of place in an opera, but as an exhibition *per se*—such as, for instance, "Der Blumen Rache," based on Freiligrath's poem—it can be made both artistic and refining and elevating to the taste and feelings. At any rate, it is a most innocent species of amusement, especially adapted to producing beautiful and striking color-effects by means of electric lights and artistic groupings. It does not seem improbable that one of the achievements of future generations may be "symphonies" of contrasted and organically connected colors, just as we now have symphonies of contrasted and organically connected sounds.

The finances of a German royal theatre are, of course, greatly assisted by the Government support which they receive, and which enables them to perform at a sacrifice, if necessary, the very best works, and to keep on doing so, until the taste of the audience gets elevated sufficiently to make them desire and support first-class plays. Herein lies the great secret of the superiority of French and German theatres. They are not obliged, in the struggle for existence, to run down and degenerate by competing for popular favor with such sensational trash as we usually find on our play-bills. And perhaps our theatres will never be first-class until Government consents to support the best of them, or until rich men on dying will leave them donations, instead of increasing the number of useless "fresh-water" colleges.

Correspondence.

TRADE AND DICKER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have no desire to prolong a debate to which you perhaps have already given too much space; but I must protest against your holding me, in the *Nation* of to-day, guilty of the absurdity of saying: "As if it were a well-known fact that we have as yet only tried a high tariff for 'a year or two' or 'a couple of years.'" What I said in the *Nation* of September 27 was: "It is really only within the last two years or so that the shrinkage of values in this country, combined with improved processes and manufacturing skill, has enabled us to produce goods at prices to compete with England in the world's market." And in the *Nation* of October 4 my reference to a couple of years was evidently to this period of potential competition.

As a protectionist I am, of course, liable to the suspicion of habitually violating all the commandments of the decalogue. This I can endure with resignation, but I must indignantly repel the assumption that I rate so low the intelligence of the average reader of the *Nation* as to expect to gull him deliberately with so transparent a misstatement as that which you have imputed to me.

Very respectfully, Merchant.

Philadelphia, October 4, 1877.

[We have evidently done "Merchant" injustice, owing to our failure to collate his last and first letters. But he ought to have quoted the passages in his last letter on which our remarks were based, which we think will show that our offence was not so heinous as he makes it. Chastising the school of *à priori* theorists, he says:

"While it stigmatized protection as robbery which would for ever mulct the consumer to benefit a few manufacturers, and would prohibit production at prices to compete with England in foreign markets, protectionists held that protection sufficiently prolonged would create domestic competition, eventually reducing prices to the home consumer and then furnishing material for export. All this is coming to pass; but immediately our luckless theorists, tacitly conceding that the home consumer is not robbed, shift their ground and *strive to hold the tariff responsible because in a year or two our manufacturers have not shown themselves able to divert* the mighty currents of the world's commerce from the channels which have been widening and deepening for two centuries."

And again:

"It is curious to see our free-trade champions, in their eagerness to assist her [England], actually assume that protection must fail to do here what it has accomplished there, because *we have not in a couple of years* overthrown the supremacy to secure which the almost undivided energy of the British people has been devoted since the time of Elizabeth. *Be patient, my impatient friends. Let us for a while longer foster our productive forces* by insuring to them the benefit of our home market, and those forces in due time will carry their surplus production to every quarter of the globe."

We do not think it unnatural to take these passages as meaning that the high-tariff plan of fostering foreign trade had only been tried in this country for "a couple of years." It now appears, however, that what "Merchant" maintains is that it is "the shrinkage of values in this country during the last two years, combined with improved processes, etc.," which is enabling our manufacturers to compete with the British, and he insinuates rather than asserts that the shrinkage was caused by the tariff. If he thinks so, he agrees with the Wells free-traders, and will find it hard work to persuade the people at large that the tariff is a good thing, if this is the way it works. From this point of view, indeed, protection reminds one of the man who wagered he could throw another across a deep stream. On the first trial he flung his victim into the water and nearly drowned him. On his getting ashore the latter claimed the wager, but the other party declined to pay until he had tried again, and said he was going to keep on trying until he succeeded. We do not think protectionists more than other men are prone to crime, but we do think that logical defences of the tariff ought to

be made calmly and without assailing people's honesty and accusing them of asinine stupidity. A logician shouting "Allah! Allah!" and charging like a Turk on the Giaours, all in defence of a sixty per cent. customs duty, is an unseemly sight.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number of September 27 your Philadelphian correspondent "Merchant" reproaches Mr. D. A. Wells with ignorance because the latter finds barter at the bottom of foreign trade. The following passages from Ricardo's chapter on Foreign Trade may interest your readers. They will show that that profound economist and Mr. Wells are very much of the same mind upon this subject. On pages 77–81 of McCulloch's edition of his works Ricardo observes:

"Gold and silver having been chosen for the general medium of circulation, they are, by the competition of commerce, distributed in such proportions amongst the different countries of the world as to accommodate themselves to the natural traffic which would take place if no such metals existed, and the trade between countries were purely a trade of *barter*. . . . It is thus that the money of each country is apportioned to it in such quantities only as may be necessary to regulate a profitable trade of *barter*. . . . Bounties on exportation or importation, new taxes on commodities, sometimes by their direct, and at other times by their indirect operation, *disturb the natural trade of barter*, and produce a consequent necessity of importing or exporting money, in order that prices may be accommodated to the natural course of commerce."

If Mr. Wells, therefore, can be accused of ignorance, the great intellect of Ricardo is liable to the same reproach.

After discussing the subject of our competing with England for the Chilian trade, "Merchant" goes on to denounce the efforts of Mr. Wells and others "to overthrow the American system just as it is beginning to produce the results which we protectionists have claimed for it, and which are seriously threatening the commercial domination of England." Although "Merchant" is a Philadelphian, he forgets that most of our leading protectionists here have publicly endorsed in a printed circular Mr. R. E. Thompson's work on 'National Economy,' on page 222 of which it is said: "We have already given some reasons why commerce between distant points is an *undesirable thing*, as open to the exercise of tyrannizing power by traders and their combinations." Now, we cannot destroy the commercial domination of England without manufacturing a large annual surplus and exporting it to distant points. If such be the result of the "American system," it is time for the above-named gentlemen to be alarmed lest the high tariff ends in placing our manufacturers in the tyrannizing power of traders and their combinations. This is not "Merchant's" view, and his ideas of foreign trade, therefore, agree much more with Mr. Wells's than with those of Mr. Thompson and his endorsers. Yours respectfully,

Brinton Coxe.

Philadelphia, September 30, 1877.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the letters of "Merchant" and Mr. Wells, in your paper of Sept. 27, the writers seem agreed that the United States protective tariff has closed our doors to most of the products of Chili. "Merchant," however, differs from Mr. Wells in maintaining that protection cannot prevent American manufactures from finding a market in Chili. "Merchant" argues that American cotton goods sold in Chili could be paid for by bills of exchange drawn by the Chilian merchant against merchandise exported from Chili to England.

Aside from the perfect answer to this made by Mr. Wells, I would ask "Merchant" if he really believes a South American trade with this country of any large amount (I mean, of course, a trade that would permanently affect the manufacturing interests of the United States) could be built up in the way he describes? Does he not perceive that such an arrangement is, in effect, an exchange of commodities with England? For with what, if not with their exports to this country, could England pay its bills of exchange? Does it not follow that, to be of any use to this country, a South American trade working after the manner described by "Merchant" necessitates an indefinite increase of imports from England? Now, "Merchant" does not deny that our protective tariff keeps Chilian products out of this country. Nor can he deny that our protective tariff has so far fulfilled its object as to keep out of this country a large amount of English manufactures. His assumption, therefore, that our imports from England can be indefinitely increased, or increased in proportion as we find a market in South America for our manufactures, is in reality an assumption that there is a large class of English commodities which, under the present protective tariff, could be profitably imported into the United States if the United States had the wherewithal (that is, the products of labor) to pay for them. On this assumption rests "Merchant's" whole argument regarding the introduction of American manufactures into Chili. Will "Merchant" attempt to make his assumption good? B.

Boston, October 1, 1877.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article in the *Nation* (No. 640) entitled "The Chemical Method in Politics" was a wholesome reproof of the slovenly modes of thought often indulged in by controversialists in the field of political and economic science; and although you announce the closing of the debate in your columns between "Merchant" and Mr. David A. Wells, I ask leave to notice a wholesale assumption made by the former which has not now put in its appearance for the first time, and which may be expected to reappear again and again until somebody challenges the grounds upon which it rests. "Merchant" says:

"Divested of much useless verbiage, the substance of Mr. Wells's labored reply is that England enjoys special advantages as the centre of the world's commerce, where the exchanges of the world are practically settled. This we all knew before, and we know, moreover, that she will struggle to the death to retain this position and these advantages, *won by long and persistent effort under protection*. It is curious to see our free-trade champions, in their eagerness to assist her, actually assume that protection must fail to do here *what it has accomplished there*, because we have not in a couple of years overthrown the supremacy to secure which the almost undivided energy of the British people has been devoted since the time of Elizabeth."

I have indicated by *italics* the point which I call a wholesale assumption, having no historical basis whatever. That Great Britain did for a long period labor under the belief, the delusion, the conviction, or whatever you choose to call it, that protection would build up her manufacturing industries, and that she acted upon it until her manufacturers were nearly ruined and her operatives nearly starved, and even her political fabric badly strained, may be safely admitted. That the period just before she abandoned protection was a period of the greatest manufacturing distress is an undoubted historical fact, of which "Merchant" can satisfy himself by referring to Miss Martineau's "History of the Peace"; and it may be added that whatever are the defects of Miss Martineau's history, they are not such as relate to the economic events which she passed under review. It does not necessarily follow that the protective system brought British industry into the doleful plight which Miss Martineau and other writers have so pathetically described. It does not necessarily follow that the prosperity which dawned soon after that system was abandoned was due to the abandonment of it, though most Englishmen think it was. It is sufficient for my purpose to point out the free-and-easy use of the *petitio principii* made by a writer who comes forward as a stickler for logical methods in political economy. Whenever it becomes necessary for any useful purpose to go into a particular examination of the protective tariffs of England prior to 1846, the writer of this will cheerfully accompany "Merchant" in such an excursion. Meanwhile he takes leave to stigmatize as an assertion altogether destitute of support the statement that British manufacturing industry as a whole ever derived any benefit whatever from protection. The thing so glibly assumed by "Merchant" was the very thing which needed to be demonstrated.

There is another lurking violation of the rules of logic in the paragraph quoted above. "Merchant" says: "It is curious to see our free-trade champions, *in their eagerness to assist her* [England], actually assume," etc. That is to say, the friends of free-trade are not patriots; they are Englishmen in disguise; they are working against their own country and in favor of perfidious Albion; they are playing into the hands of those who ran the blockade, and subscribed for the Confederate loan, and fitted out the *Alabama!* Surely, surely, here is a Daniel come to judgment in order to bring the illogical to book and to expose all loose-talking persons to public scorn. I strongly suspect that England is not so desirous to see America adopt free-trade principles as she was some time ago, and that those Americans who assist her most effectually to retain control of her immense foreign trade are those who resist any reduction of our protective tariff.

Doctrinaire.

New York, October 5, 1877.

Notes.

THE 'Uniform Trade-List Annual for 1877' (New York : Office of the *Publishers' Weekly*) is a bulkier-seeming volume than its predecessor, though it really contains fewer catalogues. The most notable omissions are D. Van Nostrand ; Baker, Voorhis & Co.; Wilson, Hinkle & Co.; C. W. Sever ; A. L. Bancroft ; and the Smithsonian Institution. The volume dispenses with a preface, as if the enterprise were now assured and its deficiencies required neither apology nor lament ; and, in place of a review of the exhibit of books and stationery at the Centennial, there is a sketch of the lives of the four Harper Brothers, with steel portraits. But the distinctive feature of the new volume is its Reference List of books recorded in the *Publishers' Weekly* from July 1, 1876, to June 30, 1877. This is extremely useful, and so is the American Educational Catalogue for 1877. The various catalogues which, bound together, make up the 'Annual,' show little variation in form or contents ; but an approach to uniformity in preparing them cannot be hoped for in times like these.——The first number of the second volume of the monthly *Library Journal* is accompanied by a very thorough and minute index of vol. i., the work of Mr. Cutter, of the Boston Athenæum, and reports the recent conference of librarians in this city, about which we shall have something to say a little further on. Noticeable in the proceedings is Mr. Winsor's announcement of the prompt employment of the telephone in connecting the branches of the Boston Public Library with the Central Library, and his description of an ingenious device for automatic book-delivery to be applied in the new library building at Harvard.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press two timely romances—viz., 'The Cross above the Crescent,' by the Rt. Rev. Horatio Southgate, formerly Bishop at Constantinople ; and 'The Blue Banner ; or, The Adventures of a Mussulman, a Christian, and a Pagan in the time of the Crusades and Mongol Conquest,' from the French of Léon Cahun. Also, 'At the Court of King Edwin,' a drama, by William Leighton, jr.; Tennyson's 'Maud,' illustrated, in quarto form ; and 'Voltaire,' by E. B. Hamley.——On Wednesday of next week, October 17, the American Institute of Architects will begin holding its eleventh annual convention, in Boston. An inspection of the new buildings in the burnt district of 1872 will form part of the occupation of the afternoons of the three days. The convention will be held at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.——Mr. Rockwood, 17 Union Square, has submitted to us specimens of his so-called chromotypes, the latest product of the carbon process invented by Swan, of Newcastle. Some of the practical difficulties affecting the transparency of the shadows have been overcome by M. Léon Lambert, of Paris, and it is under his license that Mr. Rockwood is now producing, from ordinary negatives, portraits scarcely distinguishable from the best silver prints, but costing no more, and having the great advantage of permanence.——Miss Juliet Corson, Superintendent of the New York Cooking School, at No. 8 St. Mark's Place, and author of a cooking manual entitled 'How Well can we Live if we are moderately Poor?' has published, for free circulation among workingmen, a little pamphlet called 'Fifteen-Cent Dinners.' This word of promise is not broken. In a daily bill of fare for one week, in fact, for which the total outlay is $2 53, the dinner costs ten cents oftener than fifteen, and thirty-two are allowed for it on Sunday. The general directions as to the choice of nutritious food, and the recipes for preparing it, would, if understood and followed, do much more than save money for poor families. Miss Corson offers the pamphlet at cost to benevolent societies or individuals.

—The Smithsonian Report for 1876 has appeared somewhat earlier than usual. In the report proper, which, however, occupies but a small part of the entire volume, the most interesting subject of discussion is that of the relation of the Institution to the National Museum under its charge. This museum contains the collections of the Government as well as of the Institution, and Professor Henry, therefore, advocates its entire separation, taking the ground that the right of the Government to employ the funds bequeathed by Smithson in preserving its own collections cannot be sustained on a proper construction of the will of the testator. He would have the Government purchase the building outright at its present valuation, and would employ the income from the additional fund thus acquired in a way which he deems more in accordance with the objects for which the Institution was founded. In the appendix is found, among many articles of a popular character, a contribution to the scientific philosophy of the day which deserves especial mention. It is a critical and historical essay on "Kinetic Theories of Gravitation," by W. B. Taylor, and discusses the various attempts which have been made during the last two centuries to refer the action of gravitation to some more general cause. Of these theories the most celebrated, and perhaps the most fanciful, is that of Le Sage, who imagined an infinity of ethereal atoms to be dashing through space in all directions with almost infinite velocity. A body alone in space would be acted on equally on all sides by these atoms, and thus have no tendency to move ; but when another body is brought into its neighborhood, each will screen the other from a certain number of the atoms, the equilibrium will be destroyed, and they will tend to come together. All the theories on the subject are discussed with much philosophic acumen, and the conclusion reached is that all are failures, inasmuch as all are founded on hypothetical causes, of the existence of which not the slightest proof can be adduced. We cannot but wish that the essay could find a wider circulation than that of a Government document ; unfortunately, it is just a little too long for an article and too short for a book.

—The Convention of Librarians at Philadelphia last year, no doubt, gave considerable direct instruction both to those who attended it and to those who read a full account of the proceedings published in the *Library Journal;* but its most far-reaching outcome was the foundation of the Library Association, and the appointment of its various committees with power to sit during recess. These have been actively at work during the year, with valuable results. The librarian of 1878 will find his way made clear for him in a variety of directions hitherto all in doubt, and he will find his necessary outlays for library supplies very decidedly diminished. In the same way the best work of the late convention at New York was not the necessary revision and confirmation of the year's work, although the discussions upon this occupied two busy days ; it was not even the plan for procuring a general co-operative catalogue of current books by means of publishers' title-slips, important as that is, and certain as it now appears of ultimate, perhaps of proximate, success ; but it was the proposition which came up in the last hour of the last session, and was received with much enthusiasm, that a vigorous effort should be made to extend the membership of the Association widely among all friends of libraries and of education. To do all the good of which it is capable the Association must be more widely known ; even those measures which it devises for the aid of already existing libraries have as yet attracted the attention of but a small portion. And there is a certain amount of apathy among that portion of the craft who have taken up librarianship because they were not fit for anything else. These it is the object of the Association to force into the new movement by interesting their committees and the book-loving people in their towns in its work ; the committees themselves, by the way, being quite as much in need of enlightenment as any one. Moreover, part of the future work of the Association must be the founding of new public libraries in small towns (or, for that matter, in large cities like New York which have none), and for that work it needs to have a wide hold upon the sympathies of the community. It is plain, therefore, that whatever will extend its membership will be of a benefit beyond merely bringing in the funds needed for some of its projected enterprises. As the matter is in the same hands that founded the Spelling Reform Society and have brought about the striking success of the Metric Bureau, there is little fear of its failure. As soon as the friends of education, the believers in culture, the lovers of books can be made to feel that the Society is not devoted to dry details of management, but intends to take in hand the objects in which they are most interested, we fancy they will be ready enough to join and assist with purse and influence.

—The Examining Committee of the University of Wisconsin—containing among others Hon. Horace Rublee, late minister to Switzerland, and Dr. Kempster of the Oshkosh Insane Asylum—has just made a report to the Regents of the University which is of interest in the question of coeducation. The members of the committee were impressed with the signs of ill-health on the part of the girls, and favor some change which should relatively lighten their work. It should be noticed that, as appears from the report itself, the work of the committee is confined to the closing week of the academic year, so that their opportunity of observation is altogether too narrow to warrant any decided conclusions. So far as it goes, it is an interesting fact that a particular set of girls at a particular time looked less robust than the boys that were associated with them ; but it requires many such facts to serve as the basis of an induction. The experiment of coeducation is still a new experiment. In the institution in question it has been in operation about six years—in full operation not more than three years. During this time, as we are informed, the *appa-*

rent health of the girls has, upon the whole, been fully equal to that of the boys—taking as the criterion the degree in which sickness has interfered with their studies; and, what is of more importance, their health after graduation will compare favorably with that of their male classmates. It is not at all impossible that this same committee, had it attended last year or the year before instead of this, would have reported very differently.

—M. Daniel de Folleville, Professor of Civil Law, has reprinted from *La France Judiciaire* an essay "De la Propriété Littéraire et Artistique," in the thirty-three pages of which he lucidly examines the three views of literary property now prevalent. According to the first, the author has an inherent and perpetual right to the product of his pen. The second theory is the direct opposite of this: literary work cannot by its nature be the exclusive property of its author; therefore society has an unrestricted right to the reproduction of all literature. M. de Folleville himself takes the third view: he considers that the author and society have equal rights; the writer's title to his MS. is incontestable, but publication is an alienation for the benefit of society and should therefore be recompensed by society. By publication the author's absolute title is transformed into a claim for indemnity—a claim which most nations satisfy by assuring to the author the exclusive right to the reproduction of his own works for a certain number of years. In the examination of this theory and of the articles of the code which govern its application in France, M. de Folleville cites some curious rulings. It has been held, for instance, that the repetition of an air by a hand-organ is an infringement of the composer's copyright—a principle reversed by a special act. In the vexed question of copyright in articles originally published in periodicals it seems that in France the title remains in the author, except in so far as he may have parted with it for a single publication in a single periodical. The editor has no right to farm out correspondence. In Spain any newspaper article can be reproduced if credit be given. The final pages of Professor de Folleville's pamphlet are taken up with comparative legislation on copyright. The United States follow England, but are a little less liberal; here copyright ceases absolutely in forty-two years. In Italy it runs eight years. In Spain and in Russia it lasts for life, with remainder to the author's heirs for fifty years. M. de Folleville remarks that no nation has adopted the theory of perpetuity of copyright. He ignores America generally, and is therefore ignorant that by our rulings a play can practically be perpetually protected. Copyright only affects published works; performance of a play is not publication; as long, therefore, as the dramatist keeps his play in MS. the common law will protect his manuscript as carefully as his hat or his handkerchief; his title is, to all intents and purposes, perpetual.

—Reviewers complain that nowadays nobody can write the life of a famous man unless he gets hold of "unpublished letters," and that every history must repose on "documens inédits." The assertion will not much longer be true, for apparently in a few years very little will remain unpublished. As if private enterprise were not enough, societies all over the world are taking up the work. The success of the Early English Text Society excited the emulation of the French, and led to the foundation of the Société des Anciens Textes Français. The Swiss also have projected not exactly a society but a collection of texts, "Bibliothek älterer Schriftwerke der deutschen Schweiz und ihres Grenzgebietes," which is to confine its issues to manuscripts and works existing only in old editions. We are promised 'Lanzelet vom See,' by Ulrich von Zazikhoven; 'Schweitzerische Minnesinger,' 'Der Edelstein, oder die Fabeln des Ulrich Boner,' 'Das Schachzabelbuch des Conrad von Ammenhausen,' 'Die Stretlinger Chronik,' 'Auswahl schweizerischer Dramen des 13. bis 16. Jahrhunderts.' These titles, as might be expected, bear a strong resemblance to those of the works published by the Strassburg Literarischer Verein, which has been for twenty years the early-text society of Germany.

—Many of these works are chiefly of literary and linguistic interest. Purely historical works of early date are appearing in the 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historica,' which has lately added three new divisions to the two previously issued—Scriptores and Leges. The new ones are Auctores antiquissimi, Epistolæ, and Antiquitates. The first is to contain such works as Eutropius, with the continuation of Paulus Diaconus, and the Greek translation of Paionios, and the Vita Severini of Eugippius. In the second the letters of Gregory the Great are soon to appear. Another great enterprise, as we have already noticed, is the collection and publication of documents relating to the Hanse towns, undertaken by the Hansischer Geschichtsverein, and conducted at the cost, at least in part, of the Historical Commission established by the late King of Bavaria. A similar movement is going on in Italy, where the Historical Commission of Tuscany, Umbria, and the Marches, and the Lombard Historical Society, have for some time been bringing out documents, chronicles, and histories. The Romans have now founded a Società Romana di Storia Patria. It is to issue a quarterly *Archivio* of reports, bibliography, etc., and an annual Biblioteca of chronicles and documents.

—A very convenient outline of the history of the papacy will be found in Wattenbach's 'Geschichte des römischen Papstthums,' twenty-one lectures, filling 318 pages. It is of course a mere sketch, but this makes it all the more convenient for reference, as one is sure of finding the results of the latest scholarship stated clearly and compendiously by one of the most eminent historical scholars of Germany. It is surprising how much fulness of detail on really important points this little work contains. It properly covers only the Middle Ages, to which period "the position and importance of the Roman papacy in universal history are confined." The closing lecture, however, brings the sketch down to the present day.

—Not the least of the services rendered by the British legations in the Far East are those rendered, not merely to their own countrymen, but to all who have to avail themselves of the English language as the only means of intercourse, mercantile or diplomatic, with the natives of the countries in that region, by the studious members of the British diplomatic corps. Mr. W. G. Aston, M.A., Assistant Japanese Secretary to H. B. M.'s Legation in Tokio, Japan, has just published a second edition of his 'Grammar of the Japanese Written Language.' Although the author has modestly chosen to call his work a second edition, its relation to the first edition is that of the full-grown tree to the sapling. The new treatise has grown to more than double the dimensions of its forerunner, and has been so fully rewritten that scarcely a page, and only here and there a paragraph, is precisely identical in the two editions. The judicious method of exposition followed by the author in his first essay has been adhered to in the second; but on all the more abstruse portions of the subject the treatment is much fuller than before. An entirely new feature has been added in the shape of an exhaustive chapter on prosody, and throughout the work the number of illustrative sentences has been copiously increased—an expansion which will be most gratefully received by students of one of the most difficult of all languages, the written language of Japan.

HAKLUYT'S WESTERN PLANTING.*

DURING a visit to Europe the late president of Bowdoin College, Dr. Woods, well known as a thoughtful investigator of historical documents, was employed by the Historical Society of Maine to search for papers and documents relative to the early history of that State, and particularly the papers of Sir Ferdinando Gorges. He failed to find the papers of Gorges, but discovered instead a manuscript of Hakluyt. Who was this Richard Hakluyt, and what did he do that in these book-making days the discovery of an unpublished work of his should be hailed with such general delight? He was born about 1553, and died on the twenty-third of October, 1616, about six months after the death of Shakspere. He passed his life in cherishing among his countrymen the love of maritime adventure. He lived in an age when the public mind was excited by wonderful tales of discovery, as it had never been excited before since the preaching of the Crusades. Like Ramusio he was not a discoverer himself, but knew how to stimulate and direct the spirit of travel in others. His name suggests at once the name of Sir Walter Raleigh, and raises up before you five quarto volumes, 'The Principal Navigations, Voyages, and Discoveries made by the English Nation.' This text-book for the student of the history of geography passed through several editions during the lifetime of the compiler, and leads now to high and excited bidding when found in the auction-room.

Like all men of his class Hakluyt was an enthusiast. He gave evidence of his vocation while still at the university, and pursued it without wavering until his body was laid in its last resting-place in Westminster Abbey. Among the means which he employed in order to give the right direction to the public mind on this important subject was a course of lectures on navigation, and his appeal found a ready response. There were two reasons for this. Maritime discovery had previously raised but

* 'A Discourse concerning Western Planting, written in the year 1584, by Richard Hakluyt. Now first printed from a contemporary manuscript. With a preface and introduction by Leonard Woods, LL.D., late President of Bowdoin College. Edited, with notes in the appendix, by Charles Deane.' Cambridge: Press of John Wilson & Son. 1877.

one corner of the veil. Enough had been discovered to show that there was still more to discover; and with the discovery of new lands came the desire to colonize them. "When the history of this era is written," says Froude, "its grandeur will be seen to be among the most sublime phenomena which the earth has yet witnessed." Elizabeth was not the sovereign whom such an epoch required. Those who sought to win her favor called her the Queen of the Sea; and when Frobisher was running past Greenwich, on his way to the northern seas, he was encouraged by seeing the queen wave her handkerchief from the palace window, in token of the favor and patronage vouchsafed by her to such of her enterprising subjects as had the means to furnish ships, or the ability and spirit to command them, and to go out into unknown seas to discover and conquer and take possession in the name of their gracious sovereign. But this gracious sovereign of the sea gave no money for exploration.

Some of Hakluyt's lectures are already in print; one of the most interesting of them, after a slumber of nearly three hundred years, has been suddenly brought to light in an age in which maritime discovery is still busy with some of the problems of the age of Elizabeth. The Northwest Passage is still a hope of adventurous minds, and the nineteenth century has a list of names which recall the days of Frobisher and his daring brotherhood. Dr. Woods has made a very interesting story of the discovery of this manuscript. Chance set him upon its track, and good fortune favored his researches. In 1868, while on a visit to Bristol, he obtained a clue to the papers of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and succeeded in following them to the private collection of Sir Thomas Phillipps, an enthusiastic student of documentary history. But private collectors are not always willing to open their doors to a stranger. "By the judicious and friendly advice of Mr. Bruce," says Dr. Woods, "I was directed to Mrs. Mary Anne Everett Green, well known as the editor of a number of the Calendars of State Papers, as a lady well acquainted with Sir Thomas Phillipps and his collection, and holding a high place in his esteem, and as better able to assist me in my purpose than any one in the circle of his acquaintance. On his suggestion I introduced myself to Mrs. Green and made my objects known to her; and to the interest which she took in them, and her assistance in accomplishing them, and the influence she exerted in our behalf with Sir Thomas Phillipps, the Historical Society and the literary public generally are indebted for whatever benefit may be derived from the opening of his collections to our use. Mrs. Green wrote immediately to Sir Thomas, and, on his courteous response to her request in our behalf, she visited Cheltenham in January, 1868. I followed in a few days."

Thus far the Gorges papers had been the only immediate object of research. To make the most of her visit Mrs. Green made a list of all the manuscripts in the collection which might in any way be supposed to be connected with the papers of Gorges. Among these was one entitled the "Hakluyt Discourse," No. 1,497. When Dr. Woods reached Cheltenham Mrs. Green had already entered upon the examination of the manuscripts and maps of the collection. Her first report was not encouraging. "The Gorges papers," she said, "turn out a sad disappointment; on the other hand, the 'Hakluyt Discourse' is, I think, curious and valuable." A more thorough examination showed it to be a "treatise exhibiting, systematically and elaborately, the religious, political, and commercial advantages to be derived by England from the attempted colonization of America; and, what gave it a peculiar interest to the Maine Historical Society, having special reference from the beginning to the end to the colonization of Norumbega." Its authenticity having once been established, its importance as an historical document could not be called in question. With the aid of Mrs. Green Dr. Woods had it carefully copied, and, bringing it with him to the United States, set himself to the grateful task of annotating and commenting it. But while engaged in the researches required to give it its full value his library was burnt, his health broke down, and he was obliged to renounce all literary exertions. Fortunately the text had already been stereotyped, and fortunately, too, for the students of American history, Dr. Charles Deane, of Cambridge, one of the most learned and accurate illustrators of early American history, had taken deep interest in this from the beginning; when Dr. Woods's health failed he consented to take his place as the editor of 'Hakluyt's Discourse.' His name appears together with that of Dr. Woods on the title-page.

We do not propose to enter into an analysis of this work, for this has already been admirably done in the twenty-one heads of chapters in the original. We will content ourselves with a few extracts. All know how large a part religion played both as a pretext and as a motive in the age of Elizabeth. The chapter headings begin with this characteristic sentiment: "That this westerne discoverie will be greatly for thinlargemente of the Gospell of Christe, whereunto the princes of the refourmed relligion are chefely bounde, amongest whome her Majestie ys principall." Next to the enlargement of the Gospel of Christ comes the complaint of English trades (No. 2): "That all other Englishe trades are growen beggerly or daungerous, especially in all the Kinge of Spayne his domynions, where our men are driyven to flinge their bibles and prayer bookes into the sea, and to forsweare and renounce their relligion and conscience, and consequently their obedience to her Majestie." No stronger appeal could have been made to the religion and the conscience of Englishmen. Then looms up the strong conviction (No. 3), "That this westerne voyadge will yelde unto us all the comodities of Europe, Affrica, and Asia, as farr as wee were wonte to travell, and supply the wantes of our decayed trades." In the fourth heading we find the keynote to English prosperity: "That this enterprise will be for the manifolde imploymente of nombers of idle men, and for bredinge of many sufficient, and for utterance of the greate quantitie of the comodities of our realme." The fifth chapter introduces a new argument: "That this voyadge will be a greate bridle to the Indies of the Kinge of Spain, and a meane that wee may arreste at our pleasure, for the space of tenne weekes or three monethes every yere, one or twoo hundred saile of his subjectes shippes at the fysshinge in Newfoundelande." The seventh chapter shows "What speciall meanes may bringe Kinge Phillippe from his highe throne, and make him equall to the princes his neighbours, wherewithall is shewed his weakenes in the West Indies." In the eighth, Hakluyt shows "that the lymites of the Kinge of Spaines domynions in the West Indies be nothinge so large as ys generally ymagined and surmised, neither those partes which he holdeth be of any suche forces as ys falsly geven oute by the popishe clergye and others his fautors, to terrifie the princes of the relligion and to abuse and blynde them." And, after having passed several other kindred arguments in review, among which are "the Turkish cruelties of the Spainards in the war of the West Indies," closes with "A brefe collection of certaine reasons to induce her Majestie and the state to take in hande the westerne voyadge and the plantinge there."

We had intended to say something about the good work which the Maine Historical Society has done for the illustration of American history, but our allotted space is already filled, and we must reserve this pleasant task for some future occasion.

RECENT TEXT-BOOKS.*

THOSE who like the inductive method of treating a subject will find a good example of it in the book named below. Those, however, who know enough of philology to do without occasional iteration will find it a better book than those to whom it is the introduction to the science. For the latter the book suffers in this respect, since only by occasional repetitions, only by indicating at the right time and place the leading features that it is necessary to keep in mind, can a text-book dispense with the valuable guide—the "knowing what to look for"—furnished by the more usual method. Those, again, who wish a brief and able résumé of the science of language will like this book. It contains in all about one hundred and sixty small pages, divided into eight chapters, which review in well-arranged system the chief facts, principles, and problems of philology. Advanced students may read these chapters with profit. They will find a fresh, bold, and independent treatment of the subject, and if they find little that is absolutely new and some things to which they may demur, they will find much that is highly suggestive, many very useful hints and interesting facts. Especially will the well-prepared beginner find much to stimulate thought and to awaken love for the modern science; but neither is this book nor any other on the subject of any service to one not prepared for it by training in one or more languages.

It may be well to mention some of the features of Mr. Peile's book that are specially worthy of notice. One is the explanation, by means of the German *schlecht*, of the manner in which a word that literally or by an obvious association of ideas has a certain meaning, ends by a gradually-continued process of association in having an exactly opposite meaning. There is a brief but suggestive statement of the effect of printing, of wider education, and of the railroad upon the continuance of dialects. There is a clear and valuable explanation of the so-styled anomalous plurals, *feet*, *mice*, etc. By aid of the accusative with a Latin noun—to which may be added as an English example "his journey home"—the author shows that syntax is less rigid than is often taught, and calls

* 'Philology. By John Peile, M.A.' New York: D. Appleton & Co 1877.

attention to the important fact that very much that the grammarian or analyst finds in forms and combinations is infused in them by his own intelligence. There is a valuable discussion of the vexed question of the relation of speech to thought, the conclusion being that speech is the instrument of thought and not identical with it. There is another discussion of the priority of speech and thought, the author reaching the sound conclusion that "rudimentary thought preceded the most rudimentary speech." The author regards language as the work of man, and therefore does not think its science is a physical science; yet, not regarding it on the other hand as a historical science, he thinks it should occupy a position between the physical and the historical sciences. His views, again, about the oft carelessly-used expression "death of language" are wise and timely. In a word, in its general plan and treatment, and in what it teaches concerning the philosophy of language, this book may be commended in very high terms.

Only in some of the details is there room for criticism, but unfortunately there is more here to criticise than we hoped for, and much of this is evidently due to haste and to carelessness in revision. The English speech has never been in any period known to us as rich in inflections as any other language of the family. Forms like *eyne, shoon, hosen* are still used by writers of books; they and many others even more archaic can be found in Morris's 'Æneids.' Condemn the usage as one may, the words are there, and Morris has followers. The terms *hard* and *soft* are constantly preferred to all others. It is questionable whether the Anglian *-es*, Midland *-en*, and Southern *-eth* (in the plural of the present tense) have a common origin, but the matter cannot be discussed here. In reference to the cause of euphonic changes there is constant fluctuation of statement between difficulty of utterance on the one hand and dislike of certain sounds on the other. *Its* does occur in the King James version of the Bible, but only once—Lev. xxv. 5. Mr. Sweet shows in his recently-published Anglo-Saxon Reader (reviewed in the *Nation*, No. 622) that the use of *til* for *to*—retained in Scotland, as all readers of Hugh Miller will remember—is not due to Scandinavian influence, but is found in the oldest Northumbrian, long before the Danish invasions. The statement in reference to the former use of the dative absolute in English need not have been a doubtful statement, in view of the fact that the construction is common in Anglo-Saxon, and is found as late at least as Milton. In stating that our alphabet is ultimately of Egyptian origin, reference should have been made to other views; and the treatment of Grimm's Law in the appendix is only full enough to deceive.

Referring to matters of another kind, the punctuation is often careless, especially in changing co-ordinate into restrictive relative clauses. On the top of p. 29 is an unmeaning sentence, and on p. 158 is the following sentence: ". . . So long as the end—the being understood—is achieved, it is unimportant what form the language may take." This statement, with the context carefully studied, is true enough, but otherwise is incorrect and misleading.

The peculiar relations of Seneca with three Roman emperors, his position as the leading representative or head of a new school in style, and his versatile exposition of a modified type of Stoicism, will always secure for him the attention of students of history, of literature, and of thought. But certainly the time of most undergraduates can be better spent than upon the study of one whose life was so defective and so inconsistent with his doctrines, and whose best thoughts are almost lost amid platitudes, paradoxes, antitheses, and other rhetorical tinsel. Perhaps in the enlarged area of classical study which greater requirements and the elective system have made feasible in some of our colleges, a little space may ungrudgingly be conceded to this "brilliant phrasemonger." But for such a course the edition before us can hardly be satisfactory. It contains the essays on Providence, Serenity of Mind, Shortness of Life, Happy Life, eight of the Epistles to Lucilius, the Epigrams, and the apocryphal Correspondence with the Apostle Paul. Thus, those essays which show their author at his best—as the consolatory letter to his mother—are omitted, as are those of the Epistles which, both in contents and in expression, are less sermon-like and more genial and truly epistolary. Selections from the Quaestiones Naturales would have been of greater interest to most readers than so much from the artificial homilies, and the Ludus de Morte Claudii, though it cannot beget respect for the man who passed so easily from flattery to slander, repays examination as something unique in Latin literature and as a specimen of the Satura Menippea.

The editorial part of this book is throughout ecclesiastical in its character. Thus, in the account of Seneca, by a hysteron-proteron arrangement, his relations to church history are given before the biography proper. The so-called correspondence with the Apostle Paul is not only given in full, but the question of its authenticity is discussed through several pages. The spurious character of these letters was long since fully established, and the question hardly calls for further argument. Can any careful student of Seneca, or of Paul, or of the Latin language look upon these letters as anything but a wretched forgery? Several pages more contain "Parallels or Resemblances to Holy Scripture in Seneca's Writings," and to this list additions are constantly made in the commentary. We are convinced that this persistent obtrusion of Seneca's coincidences and contrasts with Biblical expressions will appear, to lay students at least, one-sided and exaggerated. Seneca's relations to Christianity seem to have been purely incidental; but a study of the influence which Plato, Aristotle, and especially Epicurus, had upon this professed Stoic, might have yielded more satisfactory results.

The notes are generally harmless and orthodox, but we have searched among them in vain for evidence of a firm grasp of silver Latin, or of Latin at all. No tyro in the language ought to be made to read Seneca; but the simplest points in syntax are here explained with wearisome fulness and repetition, and such puerile questions as "difference between *quōque* and *quŏque*?" (p. 212) are frequently put, while really difficult points in thought and construction, doubtful readings, and lacunæ are most meagrely treated. Here and there is a solecism in the editors' Latin, as in placing a dative after *iuvat* (p. 279); and by what authority is Cicero's Atticus called Q. Caecilius Pomponianus (p. 261), and Seneca's father M. Aurelius (p. 11)? Slip-shod, too, is the English of the book, as in the third and last sentences of the preface. The commentary is only upon the essays, but one who has required the leading-strings thus far given will certainly be unable to go alone through the remaining extracts. The orthography, though said in the preface to be that "now generally agreed upon by scholars as the most correct," contains many exploded forms, as *nuncio, coena, ditio, mile*. The synopses of thought which accompany the notes, and the historical and archæological apparatus, can be commended. In the life of Seneca, however, more dates should have been given than the single and quite doubtful one for his birth.

This is, if we mistake not, the only edition of Seneca that has ever been published in America, and we must regret that one who holds so exceptional a place in the history of thought and expression, and who almost alone bridges over the chasm in Latin letters between the Augustan and the Flavian eras, should be so unsatisfactorily introduced among us. We trust that the edition may enlarge the little circle of Seneca's intelligent readers; we have no wish that it should make the man or his writings popular. Among the Romans themselves the wisdom of reading this author was doubted. Jealousy rather than truth inspired the famous utterance of Caligula, "harenam esse sine calce," but those who would use Seneca as a "text-book for schools and colleges" should con well the calm verdict of Quintilian, "velles cum suo ingenio dixisse, alieno iudicio."

Professor Turner's 'Handbook of Punctuation,' as it is the latest, so it seems to us the best, of the shorter manuals on the subject to which it relates. It occupies, in point of bulk, a middle place between Prof. Hill's 'General Rules for Punctuation' (Cambridge: C. W. Sever) and the late Mr. John Wilson's exhaustive 'Treatise on Punctuation' (New York: Potter, Ainsworth & Co.) What distinguishes it from both is its informal mode of conveying the principles of the art, and its judicious use of examples before the enunciation of the rule itself. In fact, we might almost say that Professor Turner gives no rules, and consequently no exceptions. He discusses the reasons for the best usage, and notices conflicting usage; the learner may take his choice, but when called upon to put it in practice he will do so with the confidence that comes not from remembering a rule but from understanding a principle. On this account we can hardly speak too highly of the method of this work: it is that of a wise and skilful teacher. As for Professor Turner's conclusions (or preferences), they are, almost without exception, such as commend themselves to our judgment; and any one who adopts them may congratulate himself upon the acquisition. The 'Handbook,' it should be added, is designed for students of our higher schools and colleges, and leaves the field still open for a more elementary but not necessarily a shorter work. There are few printers who would

'L. Annaeus Seneca. With Introduction, Notes, etc. By John F. Hurst, D.D., of the Drew Theological Seminary, Madison, N. J., and Henry C. Whiting, Ph.D., of the Centenary Collegiate Institute, Hackettstown, N. J.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1877.

'Handbook of Punctuation. By Joseph A. Turner, M.A., Professor of English and Modern Languages, Hollins Institute, Virginia.' New revised edition. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 89.

not profit by it, but it does not pretend to meet all the exigencies of the craft. If one seeks, for example, an explanation of the absence of commas in a Scriptural reference like "Gen. vi. 12, 13," he must consult neither Hill nor Turner, but Wilson.

A good deal of instruction on this subject may be got by comparing the latest edition of Prof. Hill's 'General Rules' with the first edition, especially the portion which treats of the employment of the comma. The amount of revision which this has received, and its expansion, will also show what difficulties attend the effort to be concise in a text-book. The author has considerably enlarged the number of examples, and, besides other improvements, has added some illustrative extracts from Emerson, Mill, Irving, Webster, Carlyle, Macaulay, Hawthorne, and George Eliot.

The opinion some time ago expressed by Dr. Sauveur and now repeated in his preface, that "the best book to use in schools [where French is to be taught] is the volume of Fables of La Fontaine," is echoed by the editor of the English edition of the first two books of the Fables, whose notes, he says, "are intended to meet the difficulties of English public-school boys in learning French, especially to make French and Latin go hand in hand, and to suggest to teachers how complete a text-book 'La Fontaine's Fables' really is in many ways." Dr. Sauveur's object is partly the same and partly different. He aims not only to remove difficulties, but to give a critical insight into the master's style, to explain why he used this word and not its synonym, to point out niceties of expression, to develop the full meaning of words and phrases, to emphasize occasionally the moral of the text. He does not neglect etymologies or constructions, but the pupil feels that he is acquiring a knowledge of the *nuances* of the language in a way which is so uncommon in text-books as to seem remarkable to any one not acquainted with the author's 'Causeries,' of which the present volume is really a continuation. Finally, Dr. Sauveur's notes are in French, Mr. Smith's in English.

The peculiar merits of both these works would make them useful to anybody as a joint possession. Mr. Smith enables one to judge La Fontaine better by his average, since he gives the first two books entire—forty-two fables, out of which Dr. Sauveur selects sixteen for his total collection of fifty-seven and upwards. Mr. Smith refers where he can to the corresponding fable in Æsop, Phædrus, or Horace. Dr. Sauveur precedes each fable with a number of aphorisms (sometimes filling two pages or more) having either a direct allusion to it, as in the case of "Le Paysan du Danube," or a related significance. We cannot say that we regard these altogether with favor. They overshadow the text, and seem, what they are, superfluous, although they cannot, of course (since they are borrowed from the greatest writers not only of France but of other countries), be pronounced worthless: by means of them Dr. Sauveur gives a fuller measure of French and a greater variety than his title promises. His notes are more frequent and, as a rule, much longer than Mr. Smith's. Thus, in "La Cigale et La Fourmi," the former has twenty-one, the latter but twelve notes. We subjoin samples drawn from this fable, the first peculiar to Dr. Sauveur, the last two parallel:

"5, 6. Quelle force de négation! une mouche, un vermisseau, si peu de chose! et pas un morceau de cela, pas même un petit morceau! non, pas un seul. C'est la famine en vérité."

"6. *Vermisseau.* From 'vermicellus' ('vermis'). Fr. 'ver.' Orthoptera mostly feed on vegetable matter. But some crickets exhibit a cannibalistic propensity, and after a fight will eat the vanquished foe."

"6. *Vermisseau.* Petit ver de terre; vient de VERMICELLUS, diminutif de VERMIS, VER. C'est ainsi que *arbrisseau* est le diminutif de *arbre*. La Fontaine se trompe ici: les cigales ne mangent pas d'insectes. Elles se nourrissent de la sève des arbres."

Both editors have a note on "*Maître* Corbeau" of the next fable, but neither seems to feel the difficulty in explaining this word to the young which Rousseau suggested in his famous analysis of the fable in 'Emile.' Nor does either allude to that analysis, nor to Cowper's "I shall not ask Jean Jacques Rousseau, etc." The typography of both works is very free from error. On p. 250, numbered line 47, in Sauveur, "Sils" for "S'ils" has been overlooked.

Students of the classical languages who pass to the study of German ought to find the technical terms of scientific literature more intelligible and more easily acquirable than those who have not been similarly prepared, and such in our experience is the case. Yet Mr. Hodges has not had the latter class exclusively in view in compiling the useful text-book whose title we give below, for at Harvard he observes that men who have studied ordinary German a couple of years are perplexed on trying to read scientific periodicals. The method of his Course is to furnish twenty-one lessons (or forty-two exercises in which German and English alternate), preceded by brief vocabularies for the harder words and phrases, and followed by questions in German only. These lessons are drawn from standard text-books on physics, chemistry, mineralogy, and botany, and, as far as they go, furnish instruction in the elements of these branches as well as in the language. Following the lessons we have adaptations of articles on scientific subjects of general interest (like the temperature of the earth; fog, clouds, and rain; glaciers; the steam-engine; spectral analysis; effect of forests on climate; photography, etc., etc.) from the writings of Liebig, Helmholtz, Kirchhoff, Grisebach, Sachs, Johann Müller, etc.—some seventeen essays in all. The book concludes with a German-English vocabulary of about 2,500 words and phrases, and a slightly less full English-German vocabulary. Finally, the Roman character is employed throughout, and the typography has the well-known attractiveness of Messrs. Ginn & Heath's publications.

A fair knowledge of German is presupposed in the student of this work, but that the degree of his proficiency is somewhat vaguely defined in Mr. Hodges's mind is indicated by the vocabularies prefixed to the exercises. Thus, in No. 1, the student is presumed not to know that *streben* means to strive, to endeavor, but to be familiar with the meaning of *erzeugt*. In Exercise 4 he must even be told that "either—or" is expressed by *entweder—oder*. The general vocabulary appears to have been compiled with discrimination, and is sufficient for the beginner in spite of its not being exhaustive. It supplies a well-known defect in the common dictionaries.

Mr. Skeat's 'Chaucer' embraces the Tale of the Man of Lawe, the Pardoneres Tale, the Second Nonnes Tale, and the Chanoun's Yemannes Tale. Since it has already been preceded in the same series by other selections from the Canterbury Tales, some general matter that accompanied them, like remarks on grammatical forms occurring in Chaucer, on the metre and versification, is not repeated here; but the present Introduction devotes thirteen pages to the weighty topic of pronunciation. The rest of the editing, in Mr. Skeat's thorough and able manner, consists of an orderly account of the several tales of the volume—their originals, parallels, etc.; of ample notes, full of varied learning; of a glossarial index, and an index of proper names. It need hardly be added that, for the purposes of this admirable text-book, the tales are judiciously expurgated.

Light: A Series of Simple, Entertaining, and Inexpensive Experiments on the Phenomena of Light, for the use of students of every age. By Alfred M. Mayer and Charles Barnard. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1877.)—Books professing to teach "Philosophy in Sport" are proverbially accounted among the dreariest of human productions, and, being generally the awkward work of scientists and smatterers essaying to hold "the eel of science by the tail," it is quite natural that, like *Hamlet's* players, they should succeed better in making the judicious grieve than in making the unskilful laugh. This little treatise—the first of a projected series designed to teach the rudiments of scientific truth and of scientific method in connection with experiments illustrative of both—is, apart from its literary dress, which is furnished by Mr. Barnard, the work of a practised scientific scholar, who, in seeking to popularize the "art of experimenting," does not disguise the serious purpose with which he addresses himself to students of nature wishing to become "strict reasoners and exact observers." The elementary principles of light, such as its rectilinear motion, its reflection, its refraction, its decomposition, its recomposition, etc., are here taught in a series of "simple and entertaining" experiments, many of which are entirely new, and all of which the merest tyro in science may reproduce for himself (at an outlay not exceeding $15) by following the minute and perspicuous directions given by the writers for making the apparatus they describe. The poet Goethe, in a familiar line, has objected to the mechanical methods of the experimental philosophers, as seeking to extort from Nature by the aid of "levers and screws" the secrets she would more willingly reveal to the mind of the quiet observer; and if in so writing he plainly misconceived the real purpose of the experimental method of physical enquiry, it is at the same time only just to admit that in apparatus designed for educational purposes we want as few "levers and screws" as possible. It is to be hoped that the "Experimental Science Series" may point a useful hint in this direction, even if it should not succeed in making every boy "his own philosopher."

'Fables de La Fontaine. Par Lambert Sauveur, Docteur ès lettres et en droit.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 276.

'Fables de La Fontaine. Books I., II. Edited, with English notes, by the Rev. P. Bowden Smith, M.A., Assistant-Master of Rugby.' London: Rivingtons. 1877. 16mo, pp. 108.

'A Course in Scientific German. Prepared by Harry Blake Hodges, Instructor in Chemistry and German in Harvard University.' Boston: Ginn Bros. 1877.

'Chaucer. Edited by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, M.A.' Clarendon Press Series. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 18, 1877.

The Week.

CONGRESS assembled on Monday. The House organized without difficulty, though not without debate, and Mr. Randall was duly elected Speaker in accordance with the previous determination of the Democratic caucus, Mr. Garfield receiving the Republican vote. On Tuesday the cases of Messrs. Rainey and Cain, of South Carolina, and Darrall and Elam, of Louisiana, to whom objection had been taken the day before, were called up. The two former had a clear *prima-facie* right to be sworn in, and Mr. S. S. Cox vainly endeavored to unite his party against their admission. Mr. Darrall was also promptly received, while Mr. Elam's (the only Democratic) case was carried over. The President's Message proved very brief, and embraced only two topics—the pressing need of appropriations for the army and navy and sundry administrative deficiencies; and provision for the salaries of commissioners to the French Exposition of 1878, and the International Prison Congress to be held by adjournment at Stockholm next year. The President desired that the question of the ultimate strength of the army might not be allowed to complicate the immediate question of settling the arrears since June 30; and he very properly called attention to the active and incessant employment of the army since that date in a most trying and dangerous service, "in the performance of which both officers and men have discharged their duty with fidelity and courage, and without complaint," as well as without pay.

The hostility to Mr. Randall in the Democratic caucus came principally from the disappointed "filibusters" of last spring, who, by the by, have been betrayed into a terrible outburst of wrath by the result of the Ohio election, which they treat as the "handwriting on the wall," and as fixing "the brand of fraud" on Mr. Hayes's brow more firmly than ever. In fact, their violence of speech has been so great as to alarm the moderate men for its effect on public opinion. Mr. Randall's nomination is, however, a very reassuring feature in the Democratic programme. His course last session was, on the whole, a very creditable one. He laid a heavy hand on the jobbing schemes which came up at the end of the session, and, more important than all, to him more than to any one else the public is indebted for the defeat of the attempts of the Democratic extremists to set aside the decision of the Electoral Commission and plunge the country into anarchy.

The mass-meeting in this State to protest against the action of the Rochester Convention was held on Wednesday of last week, Professor T. W. Dwight in the chair, Mr. G. W. Curtis being the principal speaker. The audience was large and of the best quality, and Mr. Dwight's speech and Mr. Curtis's were both good; but we are bound to say, nevertheless, that we do not believe that the demonstration will have any great effect or be much heeded by the Conklingites. The oratory, like the President's civil-service reform, was marred by the passion for "harmony," and the dislike of "embittering sentiments." The impression left by the chairman's speech and the resolutions was that the Rochester Convention was an excellent body and had made first-rate nominations, but had left some omissions in its platform which it was perhaps desirable to correct, if it could be done without hurting anybody's feelings. He said "there were no factions, and, God helping, there never would be any" in the Republican party; "that it was a great national party, and its beneficent progress was not to be impeded by any drag-weight of local controversies"—which was a sort of absolution of Senator Conkling and his followers. The meeting, Mr. Dwight added, was "simply to show sympathy with the Administration," and not "to indulge in criticisms upon the conduct or views of any Republican," or, in other words, just such as might properly have been held had Mr. Curtis instead of Mr. Conkling had the control of the Convention.

Mr. Curtis was not so cautious, and, besides defending the Administration very warmly, did indulge in some trenchant criticisms of the Convention and its action. Mr. Salomon urged the necessity of civil-service reform, and Congressman Bacon assured the meeting that "Oneida County was sound," and warmly supported the President's civil-service order. The resolutions disclaimed any desire to "criticise the conduct" of "recent assemblages of our fellow-citizens, which have failed, as it seems to us, to express the best sentiments and most liberal feelings of our people," and "simply desired to do what had been left undone"; applauded the President's course in all particulars, and warmly commended the Rochester ticket. "The recent assemblage of our fellow-citizens" was a convention packed, by means of the gigantic abuse which the President is trying to reform, with the creatures of one man, the most conspicuous office-jobber and opponent of reform in the country; and "the failure to express the best sentiments and most liberal feelings of our people" consisted in coarse ridicule and denunciation of the President's policy and reforms by the chairman and principal manager, and the adoption of a platform on which the Administration was covertly denounced and civil-service reform burlesqued and made ridiculous, and in which all mention of the most important measure of State reform now pending—the Municipal Amendments to the Constitution—was carefully omitted. It must be confessed that this "failure to express the best sentiments and most liberal feelings" covered a great deal of ground.

We are sorry to observe that the meeting was guilty of a similar failure itself when it refrained from any allusion to the Amendments. We will go farther and say that if its promoters suppose that it is with weapons of this sort that Mr. Conkling and his kind are to be overthrown, and the abuses on which he and they fatten are to be extirpated, they are egregiously mistaken. The work will have to be done not only by criticism but minute and unsparing criticism, and by the application of rigid tests to all candidates for office. A meeting which was intended to make up for the shortcomings of the Convention as described by Mr. Curtis ought not, for instance, to have given the candidates of the Convention a sweeping ratification, and commended them without reserve to the voters, without finding out or letting the public know how these gentlemen stand with regard to the President's "policy" and the reform of the civil service. If they stand on the Rochester platform on these points, it is ludicrous to ask the friends of reform to vote for them. If they do not, nothing would be easier than to obtain from them an expression of their opinions, and to publish it; and this, we make bold to say, ought to have been the very first thing done by the promoters of the meeting, and it is in this way, and not by general declamation, that reform must be brought about.

The war with the Nez-Percés was brought to a close on the 5th instant by the surrender of the entire band of hostiles, after a severe defeat at the hands of General Miles and a four days' siege under fire. After their desperate engagement with General Gibbon at Big Hole Mountain, August 9, the Indians struck east and then northward, passing into the region about the headwaters of the Yellowstone, on the banks of which river they were overtaken by General Sturgis and his Crow Indians, on the 13th, and in the fight which ensued lost much of their stock. General Sturgis was next day reinforced from Howard's command, which was coming up, and the pursuit continued across the Missouri, towards the Canadian frontier. Meantime General Miles had been apprised by General Howard of the escape of the Nez-Percés and the direction taken

and, with admirable calculation, he made a forced march to head them off. On the morning of the 25th he crossed the Missouri River at the mouth of the Mussel Shell, and on the 30th came upon the Indian camp at the northern end of the Bear Paw Mountain, near the head of Snake River. An attack was at once made, and the fighting became very severe, but ended in cutting off the stock and in shutting the Indians up in a ravine, when both sides resorted to rifle-pits, and a regular siege began. The threatening of their water-supply at last compelled the village to surrender, and the arduous campaign was over. It then appeared that several chiefs had been killed, including a brother of Joseph's and the famous Looking Glass. Joseph's generalship in this long flight of fifteen hundred miles, and the manly and unflinching bravery of his warriors, have made the war memorable, and have extorted the admiration of our commanders. Armed with equally good weapons, in fact, they have proved as good soldiers as the regulars, while their un-Indianlike humanity towards those who fell into their hands has greatly strengthened their title to the best treatment that civilized warfare allows the vanquished. If the Government but half appreciates the genuineness of the grievance which drove them into revolt, we may confidently look for a leniency which will do honor both to Indian heroism and to American justice.

Niles G. Parker, the well-known ex-Treasurer of South Carolina, left Jersey City last week for the scene of his former exploits, upon a requisition from Governor Hampton for his arrest. His departure, we are informed by newspaper report, was deeply regretted by the members of the Free Union Presbyterian Church, to which he belonged; the First Reformed Temperance Club, of which he was president; and the Erie Branch of the Young Men's Christian Association, of which he was a prominent leader. A requisition has been issued also for the arrest of Kimpton, who, however, has disappeared. Cardoza, visiting South Carolina, was surrendered by his bondsmen, and is now in jail. One of these bondsmen, W. B. Nash, a State Senator—better known, perhaps, as "Beverly" or "Brick" Nash, a leader of the negroes, and recently a Hayes elector—has resigned, confessed his former misdeeds, and will make restitution to the State; and his example has been followed by another Senator, H. J. Maxwell. The Investigating Committee are again at work, and have procured the indictment of Smalls, a colored member of Congress, for bribery while in the legislature; and Rainey and Cain, also members of Congress, and also colored men, are said to be in the same box.

The anxiety of the public lest some of our prominent politicians should become disgusted with their native land during their summer trips abroad, and settle in Europe as dukes or counts, or something of that kind, is apparently by no means abated, if we may judge by the solemn disclaimers they continue regularly to make when they get back. Mr. Conkling made haste, on his return, to disavow monarchical leanings and to express his unabated attachment to America—in fact, his stay in Europe seems to have been in some degree painful. Mr. Washburne followed his example with greater justification, and went so far as to place Illinois above Paris in the matter of domestic comfort. Any alarm that may have been felt about Mr. Hendricks will, we trust, be dissipated by his speech last week in this city. He opened by declaring "truthfully" that, of all the countries he had visited during his travels in Europe, he "had seen none that could compare in his estimation with the United States, or even his native State of Indiana." In other words, he is sound as a bell. It must be said, however, that his "fit" for profitable travel in foreign lands seems, for a leading statesman, to have been rather slender. For instance, when he entered Austria he was under the impression that that empire was a pure despotism, and was "gratified to find that the people have a voice in the affairs and have open legislatures, and the people are represented in the enactment of their laws." As this state of things has existed in Austria now for ten years, Mr. Hendricks's remarks suggest the enquiry whether the State of Indiana would not compare more favorably with the empires of the Old World if her leading public men kept up even a slight acquaintance with contemporary history, and did not remain in ignorance of great modern events. He further added that "it is difficult to understand what the fight between Turkey and Russia is about," and "that it is more difficult to see that in this civilized age there should be such a thing between two nations as war." He is evidently a sweet, simple, good man, who has never heard of wars before, and we are sorry he should have caught the naughty Europeans fighting among themselves.

The Gilman case was disposed of on Friday last by his surrender in court and pleading guilty of forgery in the third degree, on which he received a sentence of five years' imprisonment at hard labor, which, however, may by good conduct be shortened to less than four. The punishment would be light for the offence if no account were taken of the frightful social penalty by which it is accompanied, and which makes even imprisonment for life seem trifling. A confession was read in court by his counsel, which had been prepared the day after the discovery for Mr. Gilman's pastor "and his wife and brothers and sisters and intimate friends." It ascribes his fall to bad investments and declining business income, combined with extravagant office and domestic expenditures, and charitable contributions, extending over fourteen years. It is a pathetic but very old story. The sum which is accounted for in this way, however, seems enormous—over $300,000.

The notable events of the week, financially, were the advance of 1 per cent. in the Bank of England discount rate (to 5 per cent.), the advance in the price of gold here to 103⅝ (of which ⅛ was subsequently lost), and the increased firmness of rates in the loan market. The Bank of England has been steadily losing gold to the Continent as well as to the United States, and, without doubt, while the rate was advanced partly to affect the Continental exchanges, the main reason was to check gold exports to New York, or at least to diminish them. Our exports of domestic products during September were valued at $30,677,425, the largest of any month on record. With the prospect that they will continue exceptionally large by reason of our enormous harvests and the short crops in England, it is apparent that we shall have, after paying for current imports and the foreign interest on our debts held in Europe, a balance in our favor. This can be discharged by remitting us gold or by sending over securities. A high money market in London will compel the transmission of more or less of the latter, and this is believed to be the real secret of the Bank of England's action. The foreign exchanges during the week, however, have part of the time permitted the export of U. S. securities to London, and the advance in the price of gold was caused more by the apprehensions which arise from the reassembling of Congress than by any other consideration. The firmness in the rates for money in the New York loan market is entirely natural. The only surprise is that rates have not been higher before; but this is due mainly to the fact that the cotton movement is late, and that the Southern demand for currency has accordingly been deferred. The prospect of permanently higher rates for money has induced applications on the part of the national banks for new note circulation; these for the week amount in New York to about $3,000,000. General trade is active, so far as it is directly concerned in the grain movement; otherwise it is dull, the unseasonably warm weather having had an unfavorable influence upon it. The gold value of the U. S. (legal-tender) note for one dollar ranged during the week between $0.9732 and $0.9673; the gold value of the 412½-grain silver dollar would have been as high during the week as $0.9319, and as low as $0.9160—the latter at the close of the week.

The French elections, although at this writing the returns are not complete, have certainly ended unsatisfactorily. The Republicans, although they will still retain a majority, have lost perhaps 49 seats, at best 35; while the Conservatives have gained perhaps 45 seats, and at worst 31. The Republicans hoped to gain 37 seats, bringing their total numbers up to 400; but if this was an extravagant expectation, any gain at all would have been a decided triumph. As matters stand, the Government will probably feel that it has

gained rather than lost by its appeal to the country, and will argue that if it was able to accomplish so much since May 16 by the policy of interference and coercion, it may hope to accomplish still more by another year's persistence in the same course, and then by another dissolution get rid of the Republican majority altogether. The Marshal is evidently a weak man, in the hands of reckless advisers, who feel now that no retreat is open to them, and of a very clerical wife, who is fond of the social position her husband's place gives her. Left to himself, he might be disposed to compromise; but he will not be left to himself. The Republicans have, however, a large majority in the Chamber, and they have undoubtedly made gains in the Senate since the dissolution, and with the unquestionable power this gives them they may, if well led and well supported by the country, bring the Marshal to terms. What they have to fear is the breakdown and desertion of their provincial supporters, unskilled in agitation and unused to long trials of strength with the administrative machine. The situation is perhaps the most critical in French history since the meeting of the States-General, because it is calling for a display of qualities which Frenchmen have hitherto had no opportunity of cultivating and have never seen the use of. To carry on a fight such as the Republicans are engaged in with the general of a large army which would turn the Assembly out of doors just as readily as suppress a riot, is a formidable task, which calls for as much patience and discretion as any people have yet had to display.

In the early part of the canvass "the clericals" kept out of sight, probably under a hint from headquarters. How timid the Government felt about them was shown in the refusal of the official papers to report a speech of welcome to the Marshal at Bordeaux by the Cardinal-Archbishop in the cathedral, in which he hailed him as the saviour of the church and of society, and prayed over him. Towards the close they got bolder, and the Archbishop of Bourges issued a circular to the curés of his diocese telling them that the coming elections "were of capital importance to France and the church," and that it was the duty of Catholics under the circumstances to pray as hard as they could that there might be no division among the Conservatives, and that the elections might produce a "strong, united, Conservative, and Christian Assembly," which would "oppose an unconquerable resistance to the efforts of radicalism." He therefore ordered a "triduum," or three days' prayers, in all the parishes of his diocese immediately before the election, and announced that the Pope had granted a special indulgence to all who took part in them. Fancy "a triduum" here for the success of the Democratic ticket, with a special indulgence from "SSmus Dnus Noster" to all who participated in it, by using the prayers *De Spiritu Sancto*, *Da pacem, Domine*, *Deus a quo Sancta*, and "the invocation, *Cor Sacratissime, miserere nobis*, repeated three times," that "Sammy" Tilden, for example, might get the nomination on the third ballot, or might carry "the doubtful States," or that "Boss" Kelly might get the Senatorship.

Contrary to expectation, this year's campaign in Armenia did not come to an end with the battle fought in the first week of October, and the repulse of Gen. Melikoff's army has been followed by an important Russian victory. Mukhtar Pasha, after baffling the combined attack made on him on October 3, found his positions too much extended and too feebly protected, possibly owing to fresh reinforcements received by Gen. Melikoff. He, therefore, early on October 9 began a contraction of his lines, abandoning the advanced position at and in the rear of Kiziltepe, and withdrawing his right wing toward the Aladja Dagh, a range extending southeast of Kars to near the banks of the frontier river Arpa Tchai. This movement being soon perceived by the Russians, they attacked Mukhtar's army during its execution, and a severe fight is reported to have taken place in the afternoon of Tuesday, ending with the repulse of the assailants and the occupation of the new position by the Turks. The Russians subsequently occupied most of the ground fought for on October 3 and 4, including the Yagni Hills, and, preparatory to a new attack, sent Gen. Lazareff on a turning movement south of the Aladja Dagh. He found the enemy in strong force before him, and asked for aid. Instead of sending him reinforcements, the Russians on the morning of Monday, October 15, attacked Mukhtar in front, from the northwest, and stormed the Aladja Dagh, "capturing many guns and prisoners," and driving Mukhtar "from the road to Kars." He is reported to have retreated in disorder, and to be hotly pursued.

From before Plevna no active operations are reported, if we except the continued digging of trenches. The unusual scantiness of communications is in part to be attributed to the clearing out of a host of foreign correspondents from the Russian camps. Some of the expelled seem to resent their discomfiture by sending from remoter stations accounts more doleful than ever of suffering entailed on the Russo-Rumanian forces by disease, privation, and neglect. Thus, one of the London *Standard's* correspondents estimates the loss by death within twenty days, in which there was no fighting, at 5,000 before Plevna, 4,700 in the army of the Crown Prince, 3,000 in the Dobrudja, and 2,000 at Tirnova and Shipka. All accounts, nevertheless, whether friendly or otherwise, agree that the numbers of the invading armies, after the arrival of the long-looked-for reinforcements, are not much in excess of those of the Turkish forces, and that the fatness of the land in which the operations have to take place is more of an impediment than a help. Osman Pasha has received fresh reinforcements and a new convoy of supplies, Shefket Pasha entering Plevna after an unmolested march from Orhanie, excepting a cavalry skirmish near Lukovitza. Gourko's great cavalry raid in that direction, as announced in advance from Bucharest, if ever really intended, seems to have been abandoned or postponed. Bucharest newsmen have also busied themselves considerably with an anti-Russian raid of Hungarians, "former republicans," into Little Wallachia, an affair which, after a vast deal of reporting and counter-reporting about its aim and magnitude, turns out to have been either a silly enterprise of infinitesimal proportions, or, which is more likely, an equally silly hoax. There was, however, some truth in previous statements concerning a conspiracy in Transylvania aimed against the Russian communications in Moldavia.

The Socialists have been showing signs of renewed activity by holding a Congress of the International at Ghent, in Belgium, consisting of about forty delegates, representing branches in all parts of Europe and in the United States. The discussions seem to have been attended with considerable difficulty, owing to the want of a common language, but in one way or another all were made acquainted with what was going on. The executive committee and the headquarters of the association are in Chicago, it appears, and a long communication from the committee, containing an account of the late strike here and its cause, was read by the secretary. It wound up by saying that "great changes are proceeding in public opinion here," and that "it is evident to all that the false Republic cannot last much longer in its present form," and that "unless the Socialistic movement shall reform it, a monarchy, or rather an oligarchy, will be established in a few years"—which brings it very near. The platform adopted by the Congress was the old one, with which the world is tolerably familiar, and which may be said in general terms to consist in the overthrow of all existing institutions. The fundamental plank is, however, the abolition of private property, and the "expropriation" of land, machinery, implements, capital, and all by the state or "Commune." The new and appalling difficulty in the way of human regeneration which this plan raises—that of getting the owners of property to give it up—and which may be said to be the greatest ever encountered by reformers in any age, was not treated at all in the discussions. It seemed to be taken for granted that it could be overcome by full discussion, and that as soon as people found themselves "cornered" in argument by a humanitarian logician they would incontinently surrender their goods.

THE OHIO DEFEAT.

THERE is, of course, the usual uncertainty as to the agency which was most powerful in bringing about the complete Democratic victory in Ohio. The theory that it was due mainly to desertions to the Workingman's party will hardly do, for the Democrats were at least as likely to have suffered from that as the Republicans, as they did not promise nearly as much in the way of Government interference between laborer and employer. The two causes which, according to the best information we can get, most contributed to the Republican defeat were, first, the vacillating and tricky attitude of the party leaders on the currency question, with the dangerous attitude of the party itself through the Convention on the labor question; and secondly, the dissatisfaction of a considerable number of Republicans with the President's "policy" at the South.

In so far as regards the effect of the Republican treatment of the currency and the labor question on the result, every friend of good government must rejoice over it. Nothing could be more unfortunate or more ominous than that speeches such as those of Judge West, the candidate for the governorship, or of Mr. Stanley Matthews, the Senator *ad interim*, should be followed by victory, or by anything but overwhelming defeat. It will be a bad day for America when such demagogy and communism as these gentlemen were guilty of are tolerated, much less rewarded, by any constituency as intelligent and respectable as that of Ohio. It is a good sign, too, as regards a great and growing evil in our political life, that such tactics as Mr. Sherman adopted with regard to the silver question should not have succeeded. By this great and growing evil we mean the disposition of public men to shirk the open discussion of all questions of importance on which the public mind is either ill-informed or not fully made up. There is nothing they seem to cultivate more carefully than the art of "non-committal"—or, in other words, the art of concealing their sentiments on subjects on which their own party is much divided. Contributions to sound and enlightened opinion on such subjects they are, for the most part, very reluctant to make, and the field is thus left clear to the lower class of demagogues and newspapers, who use their opportunities so energetically that a considerable portion of every constituency at every election is found, nowadays, possessed by some mischievous delusion.

The history of the silver question at the West furnishes an excellent illustration of the working of this reticence. The desire to get silver remonetized and made a legal tender was born of dishonesty, for it never made its appearance until silver had fallen in value, and thus became a tempting medium for the payment of debts. After making its appearance it speedily linked itself with the crazy notion that money of small purchasing power is the best money for "the poor man," or, in other words, that the less he gets for his dollar the better off he will be. This combination of knavery and folly soon began all through the West to take the place that had been occupied by the greenback heresy which the Republicans had borrowed from the Democrats, and against which there was such a hard fight in Ohio when Mr. Hayes was elected Governor two years ago. There were just the same reasons for fighting one as for fighting the other, and, as the Administration was brought into direct contact with the silver craze immediately after taking office, through the negotiation of the four-per-cent. loan, it was the duty of the Treasury to deal with it promptly, to speak out about it in clear terms, and thus throw the weight which a new administration always has on the side of honesty and good money. It did nothing of the kind, however. The President apparently had not studied the matter, and had no definite views about it. Mr. Sherman, it is to be assumed, had studied it, and knew what he thought about it, and we believe did not agree with the silver zealots. But he kept perfectly silent, and indeed allowed it to go out from the White House that the Government was not opposed to making silver a legal tender, and he was only compelled to speak by the Syndicate asking in what coin the four per cents were to be payable. He then declared that in his opinion they were payable in gold; but he was careful to say nothing more. In fact, as we pointed out at the time (June 21), he threw a sop to the silver men by declaring the *bonds*, in his opinion, payable in coin, "whatever may be the system of coinage which the general policy of the nation may at any time adopt." In other words, he kept as "shady" as possible about the propriety of suddenly converting a greatly-depreciated metal into a legal tender, and the cause of this reticence, we were told, was due to the anxiety of the Administration about the Ohio election. The demagogues were to have full swing, but not one word of encouragement were the sane and honest men to get. Towards the end of August he went to Ohio and made a speech in the canvass, which treated most things well, but upon the silver question, which was ravaging the politics of the West, he said not a syllable. Most thinking men will agree with us in saying that it is fortunate that this mode of dealing with grave political problems should not succeed, and that any party or man who resorts to it should be defeated or disappointed. In short, political morality requires that every public man who refuses to take a dangerous bull by the horns should be pursued by him and well gored.

It is for the public interest, too, that a party should be defeated which, immediately after the shocking railroad riots of last summer, drew up a platform recommending the establishment of a "Bureau of Industry," and the management of railroads by Congress in such manner as to produce both "fair returns" to the stockholders, and "fair wages to employees," and calling for such statutory arbitration between employer and employed as would "reconcile interests, and establish justice and equity between them." Platforms, we know, do not of late years seem to involve any responsibility, and the framers of this one probably had no expectation or intention that an attempt would be made to carry their crazy suggestions into execution; but if this be true, they *did* expect and intend that their language should soften, in the eyes of these rioters, the gravity of the rioting, and lead them to believe that it was the duty of the Government to compel the owners of one species of property to pay arbitrary rates of wages.

The wickedness of the platform was aggravated by the absurdity of the principal nomination. Judge West, whom the Republicans put up for Governor, made a speech on hearing of his nomination in which he boasted that he owned no railroad bonds or stock and no bank stock, and never expected to do so, as if the possession of savings and their investment in this way were discreditable; that he was the son of a "humble mechanic," and got his education in a forge, "blowing the bellows and wielding the sledge"; and he proposed that railroads should be compelled to charge such rates as would enable them to pay "just compensation" to their employees. Mr. Stanley Matthews followed him with demagogy, if possible, of a still more degrading and mischievous character. It is, therefore, creditable to the Ohio voters and fortunate for us all that a party coming before the country at such a time, with such schemes and with such representatives, should receive a crushing defeat. Its victory on such a platform and with such a candidate would have been almost alarming. The production of "Bill" Allen for the governorship by the Democrats in 1875 troubled the sensible and honest portion of the community a good deal; but compared to Judge West, "Bill" seems to have been a moderate and honest and sensible old fellow. The officeholders' plea that the President's order contributed to the defeat by depriving the party of its best workers, is one which was sure to be brought forward after a disaster, but it is a sufficient answer to it to say that the Democrats carried the State by 25,000 majority without the aid of a single officeholder or of a cent of "assessments"—which, if the question between the parties is simply which has the greater number of zealous volunteer "workers," entitles them fairly to the possession of the government.

The probable defection of the old Republican voters of the Reserve is the most serious cause of the Republican reverse, and the only one to be sincerely regretted. But we must, and not in any controversial spirit, point out to those Republican orators and writers who are mourning over it, that it is the natural and proper consequence of their own folly in the canvass of last summer. We in these columns—and we believe we stood

alone among papers of Republican sympathies or antecedents in doing so—urged the preaching of the platform and the Hayes letters; that is, the preaching of reconciliation and civil-service reform. We maintained that the canvass should consist of this and nothing else, and that in this way the voters would be educated and prepared for the policy, both towards the South and the civil service, which Mr. Hayes, if he was an honest man, would be compelled to carry out when elected. Nothing of the kind was done. Mr. Wheeler led off in the opening speech of the campaign with an appeal to the passions and memories of the civil war, and all the others followed him. The canvass became a string of wild denunciations of the South and of elaborate attempts to fill the Northern mind with hatred and distrust of the white people of that region, and this to the virtual exclusion of every other topic of discussion except Tilden's income tax. It was to our minds a deplorable spectacle, and the worst of it was that even the best men were swept away by the torrent. Mr. Curtis is now truly and ably pointing out that Hayes, in doing what he has done and what he still proposes to do, is but carrying out the platform on which he was elected. But this defence of the President would have been an easier task had Mr. Curtis himself foreborne during the canvass to join in the denunciations of the South, and opposed the practice of harping on "outrages" without consideration of their cause or proper remedy. As matters went, not only was the new programme of conciliation and civil-service reform not explained to the party, but it was in no way prepared for the execution of any such programme. Mr. Hayes was presented to the voters simply as a "bloody shirt" candidate, and as a defence against the payment of "Southern claims" and the assumption of the rebel debt; and he, whether well or ill advised we do not now undertake to say, refrained from correcting or interfering with this interpretation of him and of his proposed work. It is not wonderful under these circumstances that there should be in every State a body of honest and well-meaning voters whom "the policy" has taken by surprise, and who have totally forgotten that the Cincinnati platform pledged the President to use his influence and authority to bring about certain specified reforms in the civil service, and have not yet learnt that the Republican party must, if it means to live, take some more active duty than "standing ground." But the President's course is on this account none the less clear.

TWEED.

THE few years which have elapsed since the period of Tweed's exploits have already to a considerable extent disconnected our feelings from the facts of his public history, and as the once familiar names of his associates appear and reappear in the dreary testimony which for several weeks past he has been pouring out before a committee of Aldermen, the impression made upon the listener is not unlike that made by the repetition of an old story already partly forgotten. The confined "statesman" himself gives his recital with the air of an old campaigner who still chuckles from long habit over the memory of his deeds, but whose feelings only occasionally become enlisted in the narrative. Indeed, the nonchalance of the relater, his apparent indifference to the effect of his statements, and insensibility to their moral bearings, are, in some respects, the most interesting phenomena of his examination. Some of his answers to questions, if we could but set aside for the moment our knowledge of his career, would have all the effect of genuine naïveté, and, as it is, we are surprised into a forgetfulness of our habitual disgust for the man, and are led away into fruitless speculations concerning his psychological state. Tweed, in fact, possesses something of the interest which the physician attaches to an overgrown tumor or other abnormal development, the dissection or treatment of which constitutes the doctor's "beautiful case" even when the causes of its existence are not wholly fathomable. To the pious clergyman of the old school, Tweed, of course, presents no difficulties. He is simply "given over" to "hardness of heart," and may be employed, if occasion require, as an awful example, without any necessity of explanation. But it is worth noticing here that Tweed does not regard himself as "given over" or in any especial need of explanation. On the contrary, he has evidently, on the whole, a rather comfortable feeling of satisfaction with himself as he looks back on his past record, and cherishes a somewhat tarnished hope that his reputation as well as his person may yet be redeemed from the assaults of his enemies and oppressors. "Ah! politics, politics," he remarked to a friend as he left the City Hall at the close of one of his last interviews with his tormentors, "I am suffering from them now." And he probably, in part at least, believes this, and in his fall from power is not without some of the consolations of the martyr at the rack.

A man who can deliberately assert with reference to his present course, "I believe I am doing right, and am willing to submit myself to the just criticism of any and all honest men," is not wholly cast down or likely to regard himself as a monster of iniquity. That he has no suspicion of his chieftainship among sinners is apparent also from the connection of the above words. They are found in a written outburst of indignation against Mr. John Morrissey, State Senator and ex-pugilist, some of whose questions, proposed to the Committee, Tweed had been compelled to answer. Morrissey is taken to task roundly for some of the misdemeanors of his early life, and shown up as an unfit person to question the ex-boss, although the latter admits that "as an organizer of repeaters he had no superior, and at the time when the Ring was in power such capacity was always recognized." Even the most serious crimes are transfigured in the sight of this peculiar moralist and become satisfying virtues. Perjury is not confessed—for to use that word would be to imply that he regarded it as wrong—but referred to as a natural consequence of certain circumstances, and its special effects are complacently spoken of: "The understanding was that men's families and themselves should be protected, and we all agreed to stand by that. . . . My testimony was given to save men and their families, and a great many were saved. Most of it was false." It is evident, indeed, even to the most cursory reader of the recent revelations, that Tweed, in his own estimation, is not a criminal but "a man of the times"—an unfortunate, it may be, but none the less unusually clever representative of his age. It is true he admits that in his testimony he does not "favor" himself as a good and honest man, but even this expression implies a decided recognition of some share of goodness in his moral make-up, and, paradoxical as it may seem, even of honesty.

And it cannot be denied, we think, that in a certain sense he is indeed "a man of the times," and from one point of view, therefore, entitled to recognition as a representative man. His insatiable greed for money was accompanied by a good share of capacity for control. Not very many years ago, therefore, under a somewhat different civilization, he would have been, without doubt, a freebooter or brigand, and, at the head of a troop of followers, would have robbed upon the highway or plundered villages or laid towns under tribute. But in a different generation, when brigandage had changed its form and become possible only as modified into carpet-baggery, Crédit-Mobilier companies, freedmen's savings-banks, forgeries, and all the peculiar manifestations of the speculative era which ended (or at least came to a crisis) four years ago, Tweed took his position by a sort of natural selection or fitness for the times, and his career was such as might have been prophesied by a wise observer of the man and his opportunities. He was as dependent upon his surroundings as, in a somewhat analogous way, the Italian brigand is, or was until recently, dependent upon the villagers around him. Tweed could have done nothing without the Watsons, Keysers, Joneses, and Garveys who abetted him, as well as the Halls, Connollys, Sweenys, and other members of his band who plundered with him, without legislators willing to be bribed as well as tradesmen willing to connive. Tweed was an amazing villain, but was nevertheless a legitimate outcome of his time, and his present complacency, or absence of conviction of sin, as our clerical friends might express it, is readily explainable in view of his associates and opportunities.

But has his day gone by? His particular hour is undoubtedly

past, but we are not so sure that the day of great criminals is ended. The ever-increasing complexities of modern civilization furnish greater opportunities alike for saints and devils. Our social forces are so powerful that a slight derangement of them, sure to be taken advantage of by the criminal class, works infinite mischief. As civilization tends to make wars less frequent, but—owing to the invention of more highly destructive agencies, and the enormous expensiveness of vaster armaments, with the attendant financial derangements and interference with commercial relations—makes them more terrible than ever before, it is probable also that, in a somewhat analogous sense, civilization is reducing the number of criminals, but, for the time being, furnishes opportunities for greater crime and the production therefore of more amazing criminals than ever before. Whether highway robberies, larcenies, and the like are diminishing or not, may be an open question, with the chances in favor of an affirmative decision, but of more stupendous crimes—forgeries, defalcations, breaches of trust, swindles, and systematic peculations—we have witnessed recently a plentiful amount. Besides, Tweed and the Southern carpet-baggers may be said to have made one distinct addition to the catalogue of crime, as remarkable for its novelty as for its magnitude, and that is the seizure of a government by a band of criminals, for the purpose not only of dividing the taxes among themselves but of pledging the public credit for their own use and behoof. This is something absolutely new, and is peculiar to this age and country. Adventurers have seized on the sovereignty of great communities before now, but it was through love of power mainly—love of money only secondarily—and they have always had some sentiment, tradition, and prestige at their back, and have had some political ambition. Our "rings" have been in pursuit principally of "commissions," "divvies," or merely furniture and jewelry.

There is one thing more which is important to be noticed here. Social science, notwithstanding its manifold imperfections in many respects, teaches plainly that great crimes indicate, or any extraordinary prevalence of crime of any kind indicates, a cause probably preventible; and not unfrequently, also, there is suggested at the same time an obvious remedy. Tweed was the manifestation of a social disease, the particular cause of which becomes apparent on investigation as certainly as some fevers may be referred without doubt to defective drainage or malarial poison or improper food. The handling of enormous sums of money, and consequent opportunities to abstract "percentages," was made possible to Tweed for so many years solely by reason of our vicious system of municipal organization—a system which, in its worst features, is repeated in nearly all the large cities in the nation, and has fastened upon them all modifications of the same evil from which New York has suffered so terribly. We have for a long time permitted all the paupers and criminals in the community—those who have no interest whatever in municipal administration beyond fear of the policeman or desire for free soup or city work and wages—to have an equal share in the management of enormous financial interests with those who furnish the money and who alone are likely to desire its economical administration. Tweed's revelations should at least open the eyes of all loose talkers about natural rights and human brotherhood to the only possible practical effect of their *à priori* theories in a great commercial city. Power without correlative responsibility is a curse to those who exercise it and a constant injustice to those who suffer from it. To confer the privilege of disbursing money, or of choosing those who are to disburse it, upon one who has had nothing to do with its acquisition, has paid no share of it, and has every possible inducement to squander it, will soon, we believe, be looked upon in municipal affairs as the method of madmen, and any attempt to defend it as too irrational to call for serious discussion.

FOREIGN NAMES.

I.

IT was foolish on the part of a certain Englishman to express his astonishment at the fluency with which little children speak French in Paris. But it would be unjust to laugh at a foreigner admiring the consummate ease with which boys and girls of ten or twelve years read and write English in London or Boston. He may never have heard of children's spending hundreds, nay thousands, of hours in learning to spell. Persons whose native language, be it Germanic or Slavic, Semitic or Finnic, possesses an orthography based on a more or less strictly uniform representation by written signs of the sounds produced in speaking, may behold with wonderment how easily native readers of English recognize the changing value or the valuelessness of their *w*, *o*, *g*, or *h*, in such words as *how* and *hew* and *who*, *wrought* and *taught* and *draught*, *brow* and *brought* and *borough*; how the better-instructed distinguish in reading between the Thames that traverses London and the Thames that flows past New London, and discriminatingly give the syllable *Beau* the sound of *bō* in *Beauregard*, of *bū* in *Beaufort*, and of *bē* in *Beauchamp*; how some do not forget to read "Cirencester" *sisester*, and "Pontefract" *pomfret*, and even know how to pronounce the name of Sir Patrick McChombaich de Colquhoun, who lately told us all about Osman Pasha's origin and appearance; and how nimbly, in reproducing sounds on paper, almost all choose, according to the meaning, between *you* and *yew*, *hew* and *Hugh*, *so* and *sow* and *sew*.

And yet, in spite of all the irregularities of English spelling, which are the stumbling-block of the foreign student of the language, and the torment of many an English-speaking learner, Matthew Arnold is probably right when he tells us in his late report as one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, that the British nation will not be induced to take to writing, "Leed uz not into temtaishon." Nor will the American nation very soon either, though a grand innovation of this character might be a worthy object of ambition for a young and progressive republic. Anglo-Saxons on both sides of the Atlantic are generally taught to read and write correctly, though at an enormous sacrifice of time, and they are either satisfied with their early-acquired knowledge, or gradually improve it. With slight exceptions all English words are written and printed in one form by all educated people, and when that form is especially hard to remember, cheap dictionaries, which can everywhere be found, help the doubting writer; the author and journalist often rely upon the tried experience of their compositor and proof-reader.

This knowledge, however, and the common aids to it, are with Anglo-Saxons limited to what is generally taught, spoken of, and read, and but a little more. The common stock of the English vocabulary, scientific terms, Biblical names, names conspicuous in history, geography, and literature, can all be learned in their correct form, if there is no lack of will, opportunity, and time. For rarer foreign names bulky dictionaries of biography and geography or voluminous cyclopædias are required, and the incompleteness of all of them, and the inexactness and inconsistency of most of them, are soon discovered. Then, entirely new names appear from day to day in the newspapers, and the reader is bewildered by the variety of forms in which they appear, not only in different publications but often in the same. What causes the confusion is plain: one English correspondent adopts the spelling of his German paper or informant; another writes the name as he finds it in French; still another tries a transliteration of his own; and most editors have too little knowledge and time to examine and rectify. Here the barbarism of the English indifference to the value of letters shows itself in its fulness. Readers look at the names without pronouncing them, and writers spell at random.

Here is an example of present occurrence: All our newspapers report the movements of "Chefket" Pasha. This name once figured in the Bulgarian massacres. It is now connected with the defense of Plevna. It will probably be remembered in history, it matters not how ingloriously. But how have we to pronounce it? According to Turkish rules? Why, the Turks use the Arabic alphabet, and not the Roman. Is the *ch* to be pronounced as in English *chaff*? Our newspapers, in their war reports, constantly use *tch* as an equivalent for this sound in Turkish or Russian names, such as Rustchuk, Tultcha, Tcherkasski, or Gortchakoff. Is the *ch* the equivalent of our *sh*, as in the French *chef*, of a guttural *kh* as in the German forms Chosrew, Churschid, etc., or of *k*, as in our rendering of classical or Biblical names, such as Chephren, Cheops, Chephirah, or Chemosh? To recapitulate, is the Pasha's name Tchefket, Shefket, Khefket, or Kefket? There is absolutely nothing in the rules and ways of English journals, British or American, to indicate it. The confusion arises from the indiscriminate use of foreign combinations of letters, though they may be to us indefinite, meaningless, or barbarous, and though plain and distinct English equivalents may be at hand.

Of course, journals of the better class would soon adopt some tolerably rational rules for spelling foreign names, if such were observed by au-

thors of travels and history, translators of foreign works, map-makers, and especially by writers for cyclopædias. But this is far from being generally the case. To give an instance: Suppose a journalist interested in the doings and brewings of that bellicose little state, Servia, looks for precise information in Ranke's history of that country, as republished in English in the Bohn collection. The names of the author and the publisher are certainly both good. He relies on the correctness of the geographical and historical names and terms contained in the book, and on occasion reproduces them as he finds them, thus: *Sch*abaz (p. 72), *S*vornik (74), Kragu*j*evaz (77), U*sch*ize (89), Ni*sch* (98), Pos*ch*arevaz (127)—all German names of places well known to English gazetteers as Shabatz, Zvornik, Kraguyevatz, Uzhitze, Nish, and Pozharevatz—Milo*sch* (163), *Sch*eik (237); and he may not recoil from copying *Dsch*emaat and Krd*sch*alies (69), forgetting, as Bohn's translator did, that the *dsch* of Ranke's original is our short and plain *j*. Or suppose our journalist to be anxious to obtain fresh information about the Caucasus, the easternmost border of the present theatre of war, and to look for it in the article assigned to it in the new 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (vol. v., 1876). He reads of "Dych" Tau, 16,925 feet high, and asks himself, Is the name of that lofty mountain Dytch, Dysh, or Dykh? There is no presumption in favor of the common English pronunciation as in *rich* or *which*, for he finds in the same article "*Tch*erek," "*Tch*egen," etc., and there is nobody to tell whether the writer copied an English, French, or German traveller. A similar question arises when he reads of the river "Lachwa"; is it Latch-, Lash-, or Lakh-? The following *w*, apparently English, is no evidence in favor of *ch*, for there is "Krsto*w*a*j*a" near by, a Russian adjective which ought to have, but has not, been converted into Krsto*vaya*. And there he finds also "*Sch*ach Dagh," and "Uru*ch*," and "*Tschech*nia, or the country of the *Tchetch*ens"—which shows that there is no difference *in the same name* between *ch*, *tch*, and *tsch*—and also "*Sch*umi" for Shumi and "*Dsch*ufa" for Jufa.

He turns to his English atlases. They may not be better, though some are, than the two before us. We open the map of Russia, which contains the Caucasus. The first word that strikes us in one atlas, published in England, is "Vladi-Caucas"—half Russian, half what?—for Vladikavkaz. We glance at the other, published in America, and find north of that locality to the left *Cubane*, and to the right *Couma*, perfect French names of the rivers which English geographers call Kuban and Kuma. We turn to a higher latitude, and find in the former atlas, in a line, "Jaroslav," "Jurievitz," and "Jaransk," slightly imperfect German names of the towns which Russians and English call Yaroslav or Yaroslavl, Yurievetz, and Yaransk, and in the latter, in the same line continued, "Ourjoum," "Doubrovsko," and "Koungour," which is all French again, while extra-English "Vetl*oo*ga," near "Yaransk," "L*oo*ki," etc., remind us that our map is not bodily taken from a French atlas. Shall we speak of war-maps? The latest of the great London *Times* is before us. We look for the now memorable Yantra River and its chief affluent, the Zlatar, and find them marked "Jantra," "Slatar," after German maps. A prominent American daily, in maps and text, for months printed "Ardaban" instead of Ardahan, though its rivals and English models had the correct name. And yet, what should we say on constantly finding in European accounts of our Virginian campaigns instead of Rappahannock "Rappabannock?"

And here is one of the latest books of travel and statistics in English, Baker's 'Turkey' (1877). Its contents everywhere display the author's great familiarity with the localities and things described, yet he misspells names and terms in the regular polyglot way of English tourists and guides. His work, though the result of close observation, may have been somewhat hastily brought out as a companion book to Wallace's 'Russia,' which preceded it only by a few months—and, by the bye, is generally correct in the minutest particulars—but that circumstance cannot serve to excuse such un-English spellings, considering the real names, as "Milo*sch*" (repeated over and over again), "*J*antra," "*J*enikoi," "Vo*j*utza," "Karlo*w*a," "*Dzh*ami," "*Dj*umaa," and "Jene*dsch*e." His transliteration of Turkish vowels is equally careless and capricious. In his appendix, "Glossary of a few Turkish Terms, etc.," we find "*d*u*n*um," "*g*u*m*ruk," "*m*u*f*ti," "*m*u*s*selim," and "wokal*u*t" side by side with "Ana*doo*loo," "k*oo*rban," and "timett*oo*," as well as with "m*ou*ktar," "tap*ou*," and "vac*ou*f."

During a six years' editorial connection with two American cyclopædic publications, embracing twenty volumes, it has been the writer's duty to apply a strict system of rational orthography, uniform in respect to the spelling of foreign names and words. That system is neither too elaborate nor too learnedly profound for common use, nor does it require the application of signs not employed in printing popular English works. Combining uniformity with regard for more or less uncontested usage, the rules observed are far from being the most systematic and consistent that could be invented, and may admit of considerable improvement as Anglo-Saxon writers go on learning foreign things and acquiring orthographic habits; but for that very reason they may be found acceptable to writers and editors who, though desirous to be accurate and free from literary barbarism, can yet stand such inconsistency as calling certain towns—to return to the Turkish theatre of war—Nicopolis, Adrianople, Etropol, and Yamboli, without regard to the fact that the Greek *polis* was originally alike in all of these names, and, when rendering the Hebrew name of the place from which Nahum sprang, dare to write in plain English *Elkosh*, and not *'Elqōsh*, though this is good in Clark's 'Keil on the Minor Prophets.' Mainly for the benefit of such men of the press we propose to elucidate these rules in the following articles.

FOOD SUPPLY AND LAND IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, September 30, 1877.

SEPTEMBER is the dullest month in England of all the months in the year, though, for those whose interests are not swayed by political or professional excitement, it is the pleasantest. Most people are in the country or on the Continent, and the country and the Continent are as agreeable—perhaps more agreeable—at this time of the year than at any other time. But in an energetic age there are always some spirits who cannot rest, and dare not lie fallow even for a month. Time and opportunities wasted, as they believe, by the relaxation of a month on the moors or on a yachting cruise round the western islands of Scotland, hang round their necks like millstones, and the torments of a reproving conscience deprive them of all pleasure which less energetic animals experience by being idle. To such temperaments September is a weary month, but, with an ingenuity inspired by suffering, they have invented a means of utilizing September and making it nearly as good a working month as any other. They have organized meetings of the British Association, or of the Social Science Congress, to take place in September in different central towns of the United Kingdom, and not unfrequently get a good fortnight or three weeks' work out of these meetings. It is seldom that much actual good comes of these displays. A certain amount of intellectual fireworks is let off, mostly by the same or similar intellects; but little remains except the burned paper of the metaphysical catharine-wheels and the charred sticks of the scientific sky-rockets. Occasionally, no doubt, an address of more than usual ability and interest is delivered at some of the meetings. In 1874, for instance, Professor Tyndall signalized himself at a meeting of the British Association in Belfast by an elaborate oration which brought the whole clergy of the Church of England about his ears, and gave some show of meaning to the protest of the Professor of Divinity at Oxford, who wished to deprive him of an honorary degree on the ground that he had made himself notorious by "denying the credibility of miracles and the efficacy of prayer." This year the Social Science Congress met at Aberdeen under the presidency of a young lord—the Earl of Aberdeen—and it is somewhat interesting to observe that young Scotch lords are always brought out as presidents of these intellectual conversaziones. And perhaps it is as good a use of them to make as any other. We have the young lords just as we have the sentries on their black horses at the Horse Guards. They are both articles *de luxe;* but having them, it is only right to make use of them. So we use the one to preside at our September congresses and the others to ornament Whitehall, and they do it about equally well. Aberdeen is a bleak town in the east of Scotland, the centre of the granite country and the focus of Scotch Calvinism. In this grim locality we could not look for speculations as to the origin of species or the probabilities of a future life, such as are not uncongenial to the more mercurial temperament of Belfast. There has therefore been next to no theology. For all that came out of the congress the clergy of Aberdeen and of the whole of Scotland may slumber on without concern. But, in despite of theological speculation, we have had some good strong facts on British agriculture from one of the most capable men in England to deal with such a subject—namely, Mr. James Caird, C.B., whose name is probably not unknown to you. And this address of his is the one feature of any real interest or permanence which has shown itself throughout the long meetings of the society.

Mr. Caird was president of the section which deals with economy and trade, and he selected as the subjects of his presidential address our supply of food and the land question. On the first he took an

original, on the second an interesting and in the present day a useful view. A disciple of Adam Smith, he showed that this country—partly owing to its physical position, partly owing to the good fortune which has kept us industrious while other nations have been at war—was fast realizing the conditions towards the rest of the world which the great political economist assigned to an urban toward a rural population. The country supplies the town with food and raw material, in exchange for which the town supplies the country with manufactured goods. We have become "one great town, drawing from all quarters of the world its means of subsistence and the materials of manufacture," and we repay the world by the results of our manufacturing skill. This is a pleasant doctrine at a time when trade is languishing and the home harvest is in peril. It makes us feel that so long as we entertain peace and good-will towards all men we need not fear the future. Our population goes on increasing with mathematical regularity, and the food-supply at home remains stationary or even diminishes, but we do not feel the pressure. Since 1871, when trade was good, and every one was wealthy, the consumption of food in the United Kingdom has enormously increased, and when people have once got accustomed to good food they cannot easily fall back on bad food. How comes it, then, that with every condition to bring about hard times we do not suffer? Mr. Caird answers this question by appealing to our import trade. Before 1860 we imported on an average 4,500,000 quarters of foreign wheat; during the last five years our average import has been 12,400,000 quarters. We therefore are dependent on other countries for the main staple of our food. And, curiously enough, these countries do not fail us. Either in the East or West there are every year abundant harvests, and we profit by them. We import our corn from America, from France, from Russia, and from India; and when one or even two of these countries are unable to send us our normal supplies it happens that the others send us more than we had expected. Since 1873 the United States and Canada have given us half our supply of foreign wheat. In 1872, with a bad harvest, their export fell one-half; but it made little difference to us, as the abundance of France and Russia filled up the vacuum at no greater cost. In 1866 France sent us one-third of our whole supply. In 1871, the year after the war, she sent us none; but the plenty of Russia and the United States made good the difference. Of late India has been supplying us, and though, owing to the famine this year, the supply may be below what we have had for the last two years, this will be made good to us; and now that Indian cultivators have found a good market it is probable that the cultivation of wheat in India will greatly increase.

But this rosy view of things is well enough in the piping times of peace. How would these economical problems work themselves out if unhappily we were involved in war, and were isolated from the importing nations? Even this aspect of the case Mr. Caird is not afraid to contemplate. Wheat, Indian corn, and potatoes he regards as the essentials of life, and if we were cut off from our foreign supply of these—if, in short, the town were besieged by the country—we could produce enough within our own boundaries to tide us over the difficulty. We grow at present nearly 1,000,000 acres less wheat than we did twenty years ago. "We have only to revert to the acreage of 1856 to meet such a deficiency as would be caused by all Europe being shut against us. And beyond that we possess in our immense breadth of pasture-land a never-failing resource of stored-up agricultural power which could at once be applied to the production of corn, if from any circumstance that course became at once necessary and profitable."

On the land question Mr. Caird speaks good sense, though his views upon the subject will not find favor with the school of politicians whose battle-cry is "Free land, free church, free schools, and free labor." Like all sensible men, Mr. Caird would get rid of all artificial restrictions on the transference of land. He would advocate the expediency of an equal partition of land in cases of intestacy; the restriction of settlement on lives in being; enlargement of powers of sale to those subject to settlement; simplification of titles and easy means of registration. But he would not expect any great increase in the number of small proprietors from these changes, nor the diminution of the aggregation of land in a few hands, which the radical theorists deprecate. Land no doubt would be more easily, and perhaps more frequently, transferred if these alterations in the existing law were made. But to whom would the transferences be made? Not, certainly, to a class of poor peasant-proprietors, but to rich men who buy land from various motives, and who have more money than they require. "Land in this country," he says very truly, "has now become an article of luxury which rich men only can long afford to hold." The savings of capital in England are computed at £150,000,000 annually, for which there are very few investments which are at once safe and lucrative. Those who do not care for an immediate return invest in land, and no investment for those who can wait is likely to prove more remunerative in the long run. But it is not the peasant-proprietor class who can afford to wait. It is the rich man of business who has made his money and does not care for a large annual return. And this is the class of men who ought to possess land in this country. He can bring, and generally does bring, the energy and talent by means of which he made his money into the improvement of his estate. And while on the one hand experience shows that the great territorial magnates who hold large tracts of land by descent generally manage their estates liberally and well, and that the new wealthy proprietors who have recently acquired their landed estates are lavish in the adornment of them, on the other hand the small entailed proprietors, who not unfrequently farm their estates themselves, are the class whose estates are starved, and whose agriculture is at the lowest ebb. "The evil that exists in the present land system is *not* that we have great proprietors among us—for as a rule their estates are most liberally managed—but it is because of the too common existence of the possession of land by persons so heavily encumbered by settlements and debt that they are incapable of doing justice either to their propertier or themselves." From this view he easily passes on to the arguments for and against a peasant-proprietary class, and proves to demonstration that, in spite of Mr. Mill's opinion, in spite of the Young Radical opinion, and in spite of the experience of Flanders, Switzerland, and France, a division of land in this country into small estates of ten or twenty acres apiece could never answer. In France there are some 5,500,000 persons employed in the management and cultivation of the soil; in England there are about 1,340,000, including both owners and occupiers; but the average produce of an acre of wheat here is equal to that of two acres in France. "With five times the extent of land in wheat, they produce little more than twice the quantity; with nearly double the extent of territory, they have no more live stock. . . . We concentrate the well-applied labor of one-seventh of our people, directed by skill and economized by capital, on the full development of our agriculture, leaving free for other industries the power, intelligence, and capital of six-sevenths. If, like the French, five-sixths of the population were dependent on the land, each one providing from his small estate little more than his family consumed, we should, like them, long before this have been devising schemes for limiting our number within our means of feeding them; for that limitation is the natural consequence of the French system," and, as Rousseau says, "there is not a worse famine for a state than that of men."

Correspondence.

JUDGE GRANT AND DOCTOR WHITNEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A gentleman has shown me a letter from Doctor J. O. Whitney to the New York *Nation* of September 20, in which he makes allusion to a correspondence with Grant & Smith, and charges me with falsehood about a transaction which occurred in the year 1867. His letter to the *Nation* begins with a falsehood. He says: "In 1866 I learned for the first time that there was a Bar Association in Scott County." On the 22d of February, 1867, he addressed to Grant & Smith a letter of which the following is a copy:

"Pawtucket, R. I., February 22, 1867.

"Messrs. Grant & Smith:

"Dear Sirs: In my profession those who attach themselves to societies having relations to the American Medical Association, are liable to be dealt with for dishonorable practices. An instance of expulsion from Scott County Medical Society is on record, for example.

"If any organization in the legal profession exist in your State or county having any such powers, to which Messrs. Davison & True belong, do me the honor to inform me of the fact; and the names (or name) and address of the party having the good of such organization in especial keeping, if any person is so charged (or perhaps any member is competent and obliged to bring a complaint to notice), and oblige,

"Yours most respectfully,

"J. O. Whitney."

"P.S. *It is needless probably to say that this is confidential; so also will be its immediate reply;* any correspondence more remote cannot be, of course."

Perhaps Dr. J. O. Whitney would have escaped a conviction of falsehood if he had consulted us before violating our confidence. He says that he knew in 1866 that there was a Bar Association in Scott County.

If he knew that fact in 1866, why did he, on the 22d February, 1867, write to Grant & Smith a letter enquiring if there was one, and request that his letter and the reply should be confidential? And perhaps I may ask why he makes "a lie circumstantial," by saying that he knew he (Grant) was intimate with Judge Dillon, and that if he was hostile he could do nothing, when his confidential letter didn't name Dillon, but related solely to charges he wished to make against Messrs. Davison & True.

He states in his letter that he wrote a second letter to Putnam & Rogers, and that they reiterated the fact of the existence of the Bar Association, which Grant & Smith informed him did not exist. Why did he not publish his confidential letter to Grant & Smith, and the second letter from Putnam & Rogers, of which they have to-day furnished me a copy, as follows:

"DAVENPORT, IOWA, March 13, 1867.

"DR. J. O. WHITNEY, Pawtucket, R. I.:

"DEAR SIR: Yours of the 6th inst. received. A considerable period has elapsed since our Law Association has held a meeting or elected officers, and hence it may perhaps be considered *defunct*. We say this in explanation of the information you have received, which is in a measure correct. We presume, however, it could be revived and called together again.

"The charges against the attorneys you refer to are somewhat too vague, and you state conclusions rather than facts, and we cannot but think there is some mistake or misapprehension about the matter, for among our members of the bar here none enjoy a better reputation for honor or probity than those you refer to. However, if you think you have been wronged and wish us to enquire into it, if you will send us a detailed statement of the whole business we will look into it for you.

"Very truly yours, PUTNAM & ROGERS.

"P.S. If you have employed attorneys to examine a title, and they reported all right when in fact they knew to the contrary, as you state, you can hold them responsible for all the damage you may suffer in consequence.

"In that case your proper remedy would be by suit in istrict Court.

"Hastily yours, P. & R."

Now, this letter of P. & R., which he was just as careful not to publish as his own to G. & S., proves him to be the falsifier, and not Grant or Grant & Smith. Grant & Smith informed him that there was no Bar Association to try his case; Putnam & Rogers on 1st of March inform him that there is, and one of them is the person to make the charges, but on 13th of March wrote to him that the Association "is defunct"—that means dead—and that the information he had secured was, in a measure (a very large measure), correct. Putnam & Rogers offer to revive the Association and would take his case in hand. He has been silent for ten years, and then rushes into print and publishes a letter from G. & S. (made confidential by him) without consulting them, charging them with falsehood, when he is the sole liar in the whole transaction.

Now, if he had been the gentleman which his request for a confidential communication justified my partner in thinking he was, he would have asked our permission to publish our letter, and given us the reason why he asked it. Its proposed publication, so far as I am concerned, was to show that I told him a falsehood to favor Dillon, to whom his confidential letter never alluded. If he had consulted us we should have told him that the letter of Grant & Smith was written by Mr. Smith when James Grant was attending the Supreme Court in Washington, and that he never heard of him (he may have seen and forgotten him), of his grievance, of his letter to G. & S., or of their reply until this day.

JAMES GRANT.

DAVENPORT, IOWA, Oct. 1.

STATE REPUDIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the recent action of several States upon the subject of repudiation, and the views expressed by yourself in your issue of September 6, under the title of "Repudiation and Resumption," perhaps a further examination of the subject will not be out of place.

In the year 1839 Messrs. Baring Brothers & Co. submitted to Daniel Webster the enquiry, "Whether the legislature of one of the States had legal and constitutional power to contract loans at home and abroad?" This question was answered in the affirmative, and for reasons which are now at least undisputed. These reasons may be briefly stated as follows:

"All powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people" (*Art.* 10, *Constitution*). As the Constitution contains no prohibition or restraint on State legislatures in regard to making laws, and as the States have the power to levy all kinds of taxes, direct and indirect, except customs duties, thus furnishing the means of payment, the conclusion follows that the power to contract loans remains with the States "as an ordinary and usual power of government." After defining the term *bill of credit*, Webster approaches a subject in which many creditors of municipal and State authorities have a deep and unsatisfied interest, *i.e.*, the nature of the security for advances made. He uses the following language:

"The security for State loans is the plighted faith of the State as a political community. It rests on the same basis as other contracts with established governments—the same basis, for example, as loans made by the United States under the authority of Congress; that is to say, the good faith of the government making the loan, and its ability to fulfil its engagements. . . .

"It has been said that the States cannot be sued on these bonds. But neither could the United States be sued, nor, as I suppose, the Crown of England, in a like case. Nor would the power of suing give to the creditor probably any substantial additional security. The solemn obligation of a government arising on its own acknowledged bonds would not be enhanced by a judgment rendered on such bond. If it either could not, or would not, make provision for paying the bond, it is not probable that it could or would make provision for satisfying the judgment.

"The States cannot rid themselves of this obligation otherwise than by the honest payment of the debt. They can pass no law impairing the obligation of their own contracts. They can make nothing a tender in discharge of such contracts but gold and silver. They possess all adequate power of providing for the case by taxes and internal means of revenue. They cannot get round their duty, or evade its force. Any failure to fulfil its undertakings would be an open violation of public faith, to be followed by the penalty of dishonor and disgrace; a penalty, it may be presumed, which no State of the American Union would be likely to incur.

"I hope I may be justified by existing circumstances in closing this letter with the expression of an opinion of a more general nature. It is that I believe the citizens of the United States, like all honest men, regard debts, whether public or private, and whether existing at home or abroad, to be of moral as well as legal obligation; and I trust I may appeal to their history, from the moment when those States took their rank among the nations of the earth to the present time, for proof that this belief is well founded. If it were possible that any one of the States should at any time so entirely lose her self-respect and forget her duty as to violate the faith solemnly pledged for her pecuniary engagements, I believe there is no country upon earth, not even that of the injured creditor, in which such a proceeding would meet with less countenance or indulgence than it would receive from the great mass of the American people."

I, for one, cannot repress a feeling of shame as I read these words and think of the change that has come over "the great mass of the American people" in less than forty years.

In remarking upon the same difficulty mentioned by Webster, you say: "It is a lamentable fact that State repudiation cannot be stopped, for a State cannot be sued; and hence the moral is very obvious that the constitutional power of States to contract debts should be curtailed in every possible way." The implication, at least, is that suit is the only possible way of stopping this dishonorable course on the part of the State after the debt has been contracted. This I believe to be a mistake, for reasons which follow.

In England, if a person has a just demand against the Government, he can obtain justice by petition of right, though he be the humblest subject in the land. As has been said, the Chancellor theoretically grants this as a matter of grace, but in fact as a constitutional duty. In this country, where we are continually boasting our superiority, the person who has suffered injustice at the hands of the national Government must humbly supplicate his oppressor to do him justice. After tedious and unwarrantable delays, after his fortune has been dissipated in expensive lobbying, his humble petition is perhaps denied. The Court of Claims affords him little or no relief; and now we are told that, in case of State governments, we are not only without the right enjoyed by every subject of England, but we cannot expect even the tardy and occasional justice of the national Government.

Article 1, section 10, of the Constitution provides that "no State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque or reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex-post-facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility."

I suppose it will be admitted that a State which by legislative action, or by constitutional amendment depending upon a popular vote, repudiates its pecuniary engagements, passes a law impairing the obligation of contracts?

We find ourselves, then, in this position: the Constitution—filled with provisions which take away or limit the sovereignty of the States—

is, nevertheless, to be held inoperative and of no effect by reason of this sovereignty. The prohibition upon the States is too plain to be mistaken; yet the States can boldly set it at naught, and the laws afford no remedy. Under Article 3, section 2, of the Constitution, the judicial power of the courts of the general Government was held to extend to suits by citizens of one State against another State. The celebrated case of Chisholm *v.* Georgia established the suability of a State, and created such a general alarm as to cause the amendment to the Constitution contained in Article 11, which reads: "The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state."

It has been decided that by this article all jurisdiction of suits against States is taken away. For one, I do not believe that the language of the article goes to that extent. Our courts have construed this strictly, however, and a suit is held not to be against a State, although the State is the real party in interest, unless it is also the party named in the record. Under these decisions, I am disposed to believe that debts of some of the States, at least, can be enforced.

The duty of the State judges, sworn to obey and support the Constitution of the United States, and the appellate jurisdiction of the national courts, are subjects interesting to the constitutional lawyer, but are scarcely within the scope of this article. Congress has the undoubted right to devise a remedy for this whole matter, and the constitutions both of the national and State governments should be so reformed that a money demand on contract, against either the United States or one of the individual States, could be enforced in some court of competent jurisdiction. In these times, when there seems to be a general desire to escape the responsibility of pecuniary engagements, or to pay with promises instead of honest money, such action is imperatively demanded. Means must be devised to carry into prompt execution the letter and spirit of the Constitution, or this disgrace will be repeated and extended, and American commercial honor will be a thing of the past.

CHARLES H. ALDRICH.

FT. WAYNE, IND., Sept. 12, 1877.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will shortly publish 'Myths and Marvels of Astronomy,' by Richard A. Proctor, whose fondness for speculative views of this science is perhaps too well known. They have also in press 'Doubleday's Children,' a novel, by Dutton Cook.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin publish this month 'Great Painters of Christendom,' by J. Forbes Robertson, with nearly 300 illustrations; a cheap illustrated edition of Goldsmith's Poems and 'Vicar of Wakefield'; a 'Dictionary of Cooking'; and 'Common-Sense Papers,' on Cookery and on Housekeeping, by A. G. Payne and Mrs. Palmer respectively.——A. S. Barnes & Co. send us Parts 15 and 16 of Mrs. Martha J. Lamb's 'History of the City of New York,' with which the first volume is completed for the binder. We briefly noticed this work on the appearance of the earlier issues, and shall take the first opportunity of returning to it.——The Rev. Edward D. Neill has reprinted from the *Episcopal Recorder* his interesting 'Notes on the Virginia Colonial Clergy,' which include James Blair, the founder of William and Mary College, and the Tory Jonathan Boucher, who enjoyed for many years the intimacy of Washington, and has left a very curious account of him. Boucher saw and declared the evils of slavery, but in this he was preceded more than a century by Morgan Godwin, whose anxiety that the negroes and Indians should have religious teaching and baptism led the Assembly to assure masters by a special act that baptism did not make slaves freemen, and that they need not therefore scruple to let them be admitted to that sacrament.——Hurd & Houghton send us the *Atlantic* portrait of Whittier, uniform with those of Longfellow and Bryant, and lithographed by the same artist, Mr. J. E. Baker. The poet is represented as he appears in this his seventieth year, and of course grayer and more sober than in his former portraits. We do not feel competent to judge of the likeness.——The Philharmonic Society of this city opens its thirty-sixth season by a public rehearsal on Nov. 23. Its last concert is set down for April 6, 1878. The leadership of Mr. Theodore Thomas ensures performances of a higher quality than the Society has ever given.——In our recent account of the new 'Trade-List Annual,' we accidently ignored the fact that the Cincinnati firm heretofore known as Wilson, Hinkle & Co. expired by limitation last April, and that Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. have succeeded to the business, and are among the present patrons of the 'Annual.'——The Oriental Society holds its autumn meeting this year in this city, beginning on Wednesday, the 24th inst., at the University of the City of New York.——A late mail brings news of the death of Professor Grassmann, of Stettin, a man equally distinguished in the two discordant departments of mathematics and philology. As a mathematical philosopher he had few equals in Europe, while all students of language know him as author of numerous and strikingly original contributions to comparative philology. A short time since he produced an extremely valuable index-vocabulary to the 'Rig-Veda'; and he has been engaged of late on a metrical translation of the same 'Veda,' of which one volume, a half, has already appeared; whether he left the work complete we do not know. He was near seventy years old, but his death seems a premature ending to his active and valuable life.

—The Bible and Tract Distributing Society issues a lecture by Stanley Pumphrey, of England, on Indian Civilization, which is sandwiched between an introduction by John G. Whittier and a republished letter of Bishop Whipple, and printed in pamphlet form. The sandwich, however, is altogether good and healthy, forming one of the recent works about our native American race which show sense instead of sentiment, and observation of facts instead of theorizing about the red man being *ferœ naturœ* and withering at contact with the white. The greater part of Mr. Pumphrey's lecture is devoted to a comparison from his personal examination between the present condition of the tribes in the Indian Territory—Creeks, Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, etc.—with that at the time of their inspection by Commissioners John D. Lang and Samuel Taylor thirty-five years ago. The result shows a most gratifying and surprising advance. The array of facts and figures proves that in agricultural wealth, good order in self-government, education, and even religion, those Indians who have been left for even a comparatively short period without being driven to desperation by governmental injustice and white incursions, can stand a favorable comparison with our average frontier population. A point of equal interest and closely connected with his investigation, namely, the steady increase in the numbers of the Indians under such circumstances, is not enlarged upon by Mr. Pumphrey, and indeed was not prominently brought to public notice before the late Nashville meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, when Lieutenant-Colonel Mallery of the Army read a paper controverting the extinction and blight theory, his figures and deductions being endorsed in the discussion by Prof. Marsh of Yale College, and Prof. Powell of the United States Geographical and Geological Survey. The understanding of the Association was that certainly great numbers of Indians had since the settlement of America perished by wars of dispossession and imported diseases, and that some tribes had thus become nearly or quite extinct, but that there had been gross exaggeration of the precolumbian population, and also that for years past, in localities where any fair chance had been given, the Indians had increased so as already partly to recover their former losses. This truth, when appreciated by the people and Congress, will do much to require a permanent improvement in our Indian policy. While the civilization of the race seemed hopeless and their extinction imminent, their claims might be slighted, but not when they certainly can be made a considerable and useful part of the community. The plan hitherto has been a mere temporary adjustment of pressing difficulties for the supposed advantage of Government or selfish greed of speculators; now it must be the preservation, reclamation, and final elevation to citizenship of the race entrusted to our national custody. If that race can furnish, with no unreasonable delay, a goodly number of tax-paying citizens, it is obviously better than to expend both citizens and treasure in wars occasioned by unjust coercion, dishonoring our character both for integrity and good judgment.

—The guarantee fund of the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania, amounting to more than sixty thousand dollars, seems likely not to be wholly needed to meet an expected deficit, since the matriculants have increased in number. There is talk among the subscribers, accordingly, of carrying over the uncalled-for balance to the permanent endowment fund of the school. Meantime a Rhea Barton Professorship of Surgery has been founded, with an endowment of fifty thousand dollars, by the widow of that eminent physician. The public favor thus manifested has reminded the especial friends of the Academic Department that more endowments are needed there, and a writer in the *Penn Monthly* for October dwells appealingly on the subject. The change of location to the new buildings, in 1872, did not, he says, lead to the anticipated rapid increase in the number of undergraduates. In that year

there were 99, somewhat above the previous average; in 1873, 89; in 1874, 99; in 1875, 114; in 1876, 131; and the present term opens with 136—less than the ordinary size of a single class at Harvard or Yale. "Nineteen-twentieths of the graduates are, and always have been, city men." This circumstance should be not unfavorable to *esprit de corps;* but the graduates have none of it, the writer asserts, and take no interest in commencement-day. He accounts for it partly by the absence of the dormitory system. "The indifference of our city to literature and to the higher education in any but its purely scientific form," has been suggested to him as one cause of the neglect of the Academic Department; but we suppose it open to question whether this be a cause or a consequence. However, in proof of the fact, he alleges that fewer students from Philadelphia than from any other city in the Northern States are getting an academic education at any college; and he adds that the local magazines find few local contributors, "and have a larger circulation in New York, and even in Germany and England, than in this city." More and bountiful endowments, and enthusiastic alumni associations in all parts of the Union, are called for by the writer in the *Penn Monthly.*

—The newly-published 'Memoirs of Prince Hardenberg,' edited by Leopold von Ranke, has suggested to Professor Seelye an article on "Prussian History" in the September number of *Macmillan's Magazine.* He urges his countrymen to turn their attention to a neglected chapter in the political progress of Europe, and to learn the important lessons which must be supposed to lurk in the history of a state whose present greatness astonishes us, whereas seventy years ago it was in ruins. The first step for the student, he says, "is to move the battle of Jena out of the life of Napoleon into the history of Prussia. Instead of thinking of it as a military feat, he is to think of it as the beginning of a political revolution." Two grave misconceptions will be rectified by the proposed course of study: first, that Napoleon's work was greater than that which was done in Germany. As time goes on, the reverse appears to be true. In his day, "Napoleon's lawless violence was taken for creative genius; but now we see [not only] how small a part of his creation stands the test of time, but that all attempts to revive it only prove its worthlessness more decisively; and how even after being restored it falls again." His was, to be sure, "a great impulsive force, which roused mankind out of lethargy," but only because he failed; "had his empire endured . . . it would have produced a far more fatal lethargy than any that it disturbed." His place is not among the Cæsars and Charlemagnes, "but with Louis XIV., Philip II., and others who have merely established ephemeral and mischievous ascendencies." On the other hand, "we are apt to jump from the one book on the subject which we have read, Carlyle's 'Frederic,' to those modern Prussian triumphs which we know so well, and to argue: Then Carlyle was right after all, and the heroic form of government turns out to be, in the long run, the best!" Professor Seelye asserts that directly the contrary conclusion will be found to accord with the facts, and that "Frederic's government did not lead to those modern triumphs, but to the unparalleled catastrophe of Jena, and after that catastrophe the necessity was forced upon the country of radically destroying his system." Hardenberg's part in this revolution has hitherto been inferred from the spurious 'Mémoires tirées des Papiers d'un Homme d'Etat.' We can now study it, but unfortunately only for the years 1804-07, from Hardenberg's own papers, which he left sealed, to lie unopened for fifty years. The venerable Ranke, in two volumes preceding and following the two of the Memoirs, gives a history of the whole period from 1793 to the War of Liberation—not so fully for the period subsequent to the Peace of Tilsit, thinks Professor Seelye, as might be desired; and again with rather more than justice to Hardenberg and less to Stein—a natural opinion for the biographer of "the proud Reichsfreiherr," but undoubtedly founded on a correct estimate of the greatness of the two statesmen.

—This number of *Macmillan's* ends as it begins, with Germany. Lady Duff Gordon contributes several amusing pages drawn from Mrs. Austin's notes of observation of German society during her residence in Dresden and Berlin, in 1841-3. They range from scandals about divorce to stories of second-sight, the stage, the German fondness for titles, the conceit and timidity of Niebuhr, etc., etc. As good as any is that related by Jacob Grimm of a major who saluted a mare ridden by a groom, on learning that it belonged to Prince George; a story which failed to excite Prince B.'s risibles when told him for a joke, and only drew from him the solemn remark: "Ah! that feeling is no longer to be found." There is a horrible tale of Russian brutality, albeit in the interest of military discipline on foreign soil; and there is the familiar legend of Voltaire's grudge against Habakkuk, and his impatient retort when taxed with having attributed to him what the prophet had never written: "C'est égal! Habakkuk était capable de tout." A third article of a totally different character will repay perusal. We refer to Mr. Wallace's first chapter on the "Colors of Animals and Plants." The writer first does justice to the temperate regions as compared with the tropical in abundance of bright colors, especially in the vegetable world; then makes a "functional or biological classification of the colors of living organisms," with illustrations; next gives a sketch of the nature and cause of color and its changes; and finally sets forth his theory of protective, warning, typical, and sexual colors. On the last head he opposes Mr. Darwin, contending for the validity of natural selection as a *vera causa* wherever sexual selection has been called in to help out the former theory. Mr. Wallace's objections have an undeniable *prima-facie* force. His position is summed up in the sentence: "The only way in which we can account for the observed facts is by the supposition that color and ornament are strictly correlated with health, vigor, and general fitness to survive."

—In a recent French journal—the *Temps* of the 27th of September—there is an interesting account by M. Charles Blanc of the precious collection of works of art left by the remarkable man for whom France is still in mourning. M. Thiers's was a most vivacious and versatile nature; there are few things in which, at some time or other, he had not interested himself. His love of art was life-long, and his collection had long been famous. It is well known that his first work was that of an art-critic. His entrance into public life was by literature, and his entrance into literature was by the publication of a pamphlet on the Salon of 1822. (M. Charles Blanc recalls the fact that M. Guizot's earliest prose had, in like manner, been an account of the Salon of 1810.) The peculiarity of M. Thiers's collection, which was the result of forty years of constant vigilance, is that it was in no degree accidental in its composition, like those of most amateurs, who take whatever occasion offers them. M. Thiers's possessions were the result of a definite plan drawn up and matured in advance. He knew exactly what he wanted, and the things he finally owned were the things he had wanted from the first. His plan, says M. Charles Blanc, was to form a sort of résumé of the arts of the whole world—a collection of small reproductions and mementoes of all the great typical works in painting and sculpture. M. Charles Blanc must mean that this was but a part of his plan; for this would limit the collection to simple copies. He speaks also of his rare specimens—in bronze, in terra-cotta, in majolica—of Italian work of the great period, and of his precious collection of drawings. He mentions that he intends himself to draw up an elaborate catalogue of these things, and hints that some of them are likely to find their way to the Louvre.

—The first letter received from Stanley, addressed to the editors of the *Herald* and *Telegraph*, was written on the 13th of August at Cabinda, on the West Coast of Africa, near the mouth of the Congo River. At that time Mr. Stanley was still greatly prostrated from the effects of his unparalleled journey, and his letter contains very little definite information in addition to what has already been received by telegraph, but whets the appetite by its indications of what may be expected as soon as the explorer's nerves have had time to recover their wonted tone. It will be long before he can make up an accurate map of his journey since leaving Nyangwe, in the Manyuema country—the farthest point toward the Congo of Livingstone and Cameron—ten months before; but, in the meantime, we are promised in his next letter a rough sketch of the hitherto unknown part of Africa through which the Congo takes its course. When, at the equator, the Lualaba turned north-northeast, Stanley admits that for a short time he was partly inclined to believe that the theory of Livingstone might be correct, and that the Lualaba had, by some unknown means, a connection with the Albert Nyanza, and, consequently, with the Nile, although this theory was opposed to all his own prophecies and previous beliefs. He was soon, of course, disabused of this notion; but north of the equator, and coming from a northeasterly direction, the Lualaba receives a great affluent, two thousand yards wide at its mouth. The source of this river is yet a mystery, and Stanley conjectures that it may prove to be the Welle of Schweinfurth, or even come from the Albert Nyanza. The map of Western Africa with which Stanley was furnished, he asserts, was absolutely incorrect, and must have been drawn wholly from reports and not from investigation. To errors of this map were due the loss of his sole remaining white comrade, Francis Pocock, as well as fifteen black men, twelve canoes, and $18,000 worth of ivory. To the same errors he ascribes also his own narrow escape from death, the mutiny of his command, and the almost total ruin of the expedition.

The two important generalizations of this hurriedly written letter are: (1) that, aside from contributions to geography, the greatest discovery of the expedition has been a vast field for trade, particulars concerning which are promised hereafter; and (2) that the natives of West Central Africa—that is, from Lake Tanganyika to the mouth of the Congo—are, as regards organization, very different from those of East Central Africa. In the East the people are gathered in large provinces under powerful despots, so that their partial civilization may be readily effected by discreet missionaries who can secure the good-will of the rulers. In the West, on the contrary, there are no great provinces, but only small districts and villages, each governed by its respective chief and each at war with all its neighbors. The love of barter, however, is universal, and the trader, instead of the missionary, may here become the civilizing agent.

—Accompanying the above letter were copies of three others originally despatched from Nyangwe in November, 1876, just before Stanley's departure for the unknown wildernesses of the Lualaba. The most important of these relates to the slave-trade of Central Africa, some of the horrors of which are described. The responsibility for its continuance is thrown upon the weak prince of Zanzibar, one of whose officers, Said ben Salem, Governor of Unyanyembe, is one of the greatest slave-traders in Africa. The slaves are employed as porters by the Arab dealers in ivory, and in this capacity their condition is at least no worse than when in their free and savage state. The atrocities of the traffic, moreover, are not seen until the traveller has gone a long distance from the eastern coast. When, however, the slaves are landed at Ujiji, their condition is most pitiable. The "withered wretches" are brought across the lake in canoes into which they are "crowded into a mass like so many starved pigs." On the journey from their homes in Marungu and Manyuema to Ujiji they are reduced by starvation to the condition of living skeletons, and hosts of them die on the way. The greatest iniquity, however, is in the manner of their capture. The Arabs have established a trading post at Nyangwe purposely to hunt slaves, and because the natives of the surrounding country—which, by the way, is rapidly becoming depopulated,—are milder and more easily captured than members of more warlike tribes. The natives are literally hunted by organized bands, who slay all that offer the slightest resistance, and reserve the women and children and inoffensive males for the Arab dealers. A determined pressure of civilized nations upon Zanzibar can alone put an end to this hideous traffic.

—At the Peabody Museum of American Archæology, if our memory serves us, are exhibited pictures which some Australasian governor wisely devised for winning the confidence of his aboriginal subjects. On companion sheets were posted rudely-colored prints, showing a black killing a white settler, and the black hung with the usual formality; and again a white killing a black, and the white hung as demanded by impartial justice. This mode of publishing the laws proved, we believe, as successful as it deserved. A pictorial propaganda of a similar nature has been we might say attempted in China, except that a book is the medium and not blank walls. Our readers may remember the report of the Chinese Commissioners to Cuba, with its shocking, often unmentionable, revelations of inhumanity both at the Coolie ports in China, on the high seas, and in the blood-stained Queen of the Antilles. These have been summed up in a sort of preface, which is an endeavor to justify the title of the work, 'A Hell upon Earth.' Then follow forty-two plates illustrating typical wrongs and outrages in Cuba and Peru in such an order as to form, says the *Celestial Empire*, "what might not be inaptly termed 'The Coolie's Progress.'" On the reverse of each is letter-press giving the necessary explanation, which is sometimes an excerpt, not always ungarbled, from the Commissioners' report. Suicide in all its phases is represented in these plates. A few of the scenes we owe solely to the artist's imagination, like that in Plate 39—"an absurd picture of four coolies on their hands and knees, baa-ing like sheep and barking like dogs, for the amusement of their overseer"—and probably that in Plate 36, where the sugar is being refined with men's bones. Plate 31 shows a post-mortem examination—"a revolting picture on a subject which is more hateful in Chinese eyes than can well be expressed in words," in spite of the cruel dismemberment practised in their punishment of criminals and captives. Plate 12 is quite as characteristically Chinese, but is both more natural and more touching: "A wretched coolie, lying asleep, is dreaming of his old home. He fancies himself walking up to the door of his father's cottage, and meeting the old man coming out with stick (the companion of old age) in hand. But he wakes to find himself a slave, doomed to drag out his weary existence at the sugar-press or in the fields." There is a noticeable moderation of tone in the letter-press throughout.

LAUGEL'S FRANCE POLITIQUE ET SOCIALE.*

M. AUGUSTE LAUGEL, who is known to our readers as the author of several interesting historical studies, has just published a volume to which the peculiarly critical position of affairs in France gives a particular importance. It offers us, in combination, a résumé of the salient points in the historical process of which the France of to-day is the result, and a sort of general psychological view of the French national character. There are no people of any pretentions to liberal culture, of whatever nationality, to whom the destiny of the most brilliant nation in the world is a matter of indifference; and at a moment like the present, when she seems to stand at the parting of the ways and to be about to make a supreme choice between the habit of revolution and the experiment of tranquillity, any well-considered words that may elucidate the mystery of her recurrent dilemmas are sure to find a hearing. M. Laugel writes with a certain tone of condensed and refined patriotism which will command the sympathy of the generous reader; but it must be added that the impression left by his book is not cheerful. He is not an optimist, and he is not at any great pains to pass for one.

The author first devotes a chapter to an account of the formation of the French race, and then another to the formation of the nation. Any review of the elements of which the race gradually composed itself must lead us to assent to M. Laugel's affirmation that "its genius is the richest that can be imagined, inasmuch as it has taken something from all the superior races of humanity": more from the Celtic and Latin races, that is, than England and Germany—more from the Germanic than Italy and Spain. He points out afresh that in spite of the general interfusion, of the rising and spreading of the Roman tide in the south, and the propagation in the opposite quarter of the Norman and German elements, it was in that middle region "of which Touraine is the centre and the core" that the distinctively French character began to define itself. "The first flowering of a really French art took place on the banks of the Loire. . . . The more literature became really French, the more she drew near also to the centre and the heart of France." M. Laugel devotes a series of pages to the characteristics of the French race, in which the reader will perceive that he pays it a great many handsome compliments, to not a few of which, however, the reader will find himself disposed to assent. The author has spoken of the "strange docility" of the French character and its want of the political instinct—its tendency to make the people "spectators rather than actors in the drama of public affairs," its social rather than political genius. As regards docility, M. Laugel remarks that the terrible disorders in which the French have so often steeped themselves have arisen from the submission of the mass of the people to a few "audacieux." "The armies of the League and of the Huguenots were never numerous; the men who maintained throughout France the Reign of Terror were perhaps not five thousand in number." The French are an irritable and quick-tempered people, but this same "strange docility" is certainly one of the things most striking to the stranger who lives among them. The first and last object that he perceives at the frontier is an official sign indicating a "défense" to do some particular thing—a "défense" patiently and inveterately submitted to by the public. He feels, however, that the author is very right in saying that the French national character is not servile. "The race is protected against baseness (*bassesse*) by the grace and fineness of its mind, by its laborious tastes, by that spirit of economy which gives to every one the sentiment of a relative independence. At the great periods of our history we must imagine a host of narrowly-established lives, arranged according to rule, animated with humble ambitions, happy with a little, parsimonious; sustained in their monotonous effort by a natural gaiety, by the pleasures of the mind, by the love of the family, and, finally, by the vision and the brightness of the national glory. . . . Everything combines, from childhood upward," he adds, "to accustom the Frenchman to take a designated place in a *grand et bel ensemble*; ideas of order and submission are in the air he breathes." It must be added that these are the characteristics of the classical and traditional Frenchman—of that old French type which there is some reason to think we are gradually seeing superseded.

It is apparently M. Laugel's belief that these more beautiful and familiar things are passing away. He writes in his latter pages as if,

* 'La France Politique et Sociale. Par Auguste Laugel.' Paris: Germer Baillière; New York: F. W. Christern. 1877.

as regards these matters, the fountains of the deep were opened and some of the best attributes of the French race might not impossibly be submerged. These pages are perhaps the most interesting and most eloquent in the volume before us ; but we must mention the series of chapters by which they are connected with the passages to which we have already alluded. The one upon the characteristics of the French nobility points out very forcibly the reasons why it has never played the great part to which some of its brilliant qualities might have entitled it. It was a military much more than a territorial aristocracy—an aristocracy in which the younger and older members alike attached themselves to the sword, and never tried to make their fortunes by commerce or by peaceful professions. Moreover, as the author says, "there was always in France a natural tendency to divide property, and, in consequence, to weaken and ruin the nobility. The younger sons obtained a portion of the patrimony, which, in spite of its smallness, they made the source of a title. They separated themselves from the people by their titles, and thus the people grew used to seeing them both exclusive and poor. The power and weight of the nobility, therefore, became, in a large measure, simply a matter of the imagination. The author traces the enormous multiplication of titles of nobility through the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when, according to the classification of De Tocqueville, even the peerage, the highest rank in the scale, had fallen from the category of real forces into that of "vanities." He relates the stages by which the crown depressed and disfranchised the peerage to the advantage of the magistracy, and he gives a picture of the extraordinary redundancy of noble or ennobled families at the end of the last century. "There were four thousand administrative offices which conferred nobility and all its privileges." The author has a fine passage, which we shall venture to quote, upon the sacrifice of its feudal rights made by the French nobility in the States-General of 1789 :

"The greatness with which it was made is well known ; it was even too complete. . . . The French nobility was, on this famous night, faithful to its historic character ; it showed itself the most generous nobility in Europe, the least grossly attached to money, to the earth, to everything that is material ; the fruits of conquest which others have known how to preserve with so jealous, and sometimes so cruel, a care, melted away in its fingers. It was too fond of the life of adventures, of play, of war, of hazard and exposure; its passions were too juvenile and too feminine, and it thought it could sufficiently defend itself against the encroachments of the baser sort by ironical pleasantry and scorn. . . . It was the last representative of the chivalric spirit ; it has always had a certain *emportement* in its fidelity, in its devotion, in its courage, in its vices and virtues alike. It cannot be accused of having been too grasping and too hard ; it has ever preferred light and delicate pleasures to the solid advantages bestowed by power, strength, and wealth ; we must see in it the flower of French society rather than the trunk or the root ; but what Frenchman could ever erect this into a reproach ? Where will the world find more accomplished models of taste, dignity, and ease ; anything more exquisite in its kindness, more simple in misfortune, more dignified before the insults of destiny ? In other countries there clings even to the great people something vulgar ; whereas the French nobility has brought feelings and manners to such a refinement that for a long time now there has been nothing low even in the people."

We may hazard the conjecture that in this agreeable portrait of the French aristocracy the author has not been without a secret intention of portraying also, by implication, the aristocracy of a neighboring country, where this class is remarkable for the success with which it has retained territorial dominion and political power. He speaks, with a detail into which we have not space to follow him, of the characteristics of the French monarchy, of those which marked the Reformation in France, and of those of the French church. Many people have amused themselves with wondering what would have been the effect of Protestantism obtaining in France a large and permanent foothold—the effect, it may be said, to a certain extent, of the non-occurrence of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. Few speculations are more interesting or more vain ; but M. Laugel appears to think that the action of the Reformation in France was essentially limited. In the first place, it was aristocratic ; and in the second place, it was anti-patriotic—it had no scruples about bringing in foreign allies. He comments upon the faint trace it has left in French literature; it is associated with but a single eminent name—that of Agrippa d'Aubigné. Of the French church the author speaks with deference and moderation, and to the purity of character of the clergy of our day he pays a liberal tribute. He notes the extinction of the Gallican church, and the increasing ultramontane tendencies of actual French ecclesiasticism ; but these tendencies do not appear to excite his alarm. "France has filled great missions in this world ; she is busy, perhaps, to-day with some great work of spiritual unity of which future ages will see the accomplishment." Upon the Revolution and its consequences M. Laugel has, of course, much to say ; but the reader will probably agree with him that everything has been said about the Revolution. It is interesting to observe that, from the point of view of a Liberal, M. Laugel deems that in 1789 the Tiers-Etat "failed of generosity and of political foresight ; it refused to sacrifice its resentments to the cause of liberty ; it wished to humiliate at any price the crown and the nobility." M. Laugel does not believe in that cardinal doctrine of a certain school of Liberals—the *inevitableness* of the Revolution ; he thinks that in 1789 a liberal and constitutional monarchy might easily have been founded. It is to be noted that the doctrine in question does not enjoy, in various quarters, the credit which for so many years attached to it ; as regards the dogma that the Revolution was a necessary evil, it is becoming the fashion to suppress the adjective and emphasize the noun.

We have left ourselves too little opportunity to speak of the pages in which the author discusses the present condition and the future of France. We confess that the latter does not strike us as quite so darkly uncertain as the image of it foreshadowed by M. Laugel. Within the last six years the country has given to an admiring world the most extraordinary proofs of robust vitality, and appears only to desire the opportunity to pursue, undisturbed, the same really impressive exhibition. The dangers of the "demagogy" of which the author speaks are not peculiar to France ; they are common to civilization in general, and France has, perhaps more than other countries, some of the qualities that are most opposed to them. M. Laugel, while recognizing the deeply democratic character of the French nation, points out the somewhat anomalous fact that the democracy of the future, in France, must of necessity be an armed one. It is a new problem that presents itself to the political philosopher. "What rules of legislation and government may not be applied to a great democratic, centralized and, by necessity, military nation ?" He admits that his chief hope for the France of the future is in the army. The army can best be trusted to preserve the purity of the national character, its ideal, the exemption from the insidious passions of a populace at once refined and depraved, and from the levity of that prosperous and sceptical bourgeoisie of which, on page 297, the author draws an admirably vivid picture. If the army should be false to this mission, says M. Laugel, "France would have nothing left but to wrap her head in the folds of her political purple and to wait for death !"

English History, for the Use of Public Schools. By the Rev. J. Franck Bright, M.A., Fellow of University College and Historical Lecturer in Balliol, New, and University Colleges, Oxford ; late Master of the Modern School in Marlborough College. Period III. Constitutional Monarchy. William and Mary to William IV. 1689–1837. With Maps and Plans. (London : Rivingtons. 12mo, pp. 674. 1877.)—Mr. Bright's history of England needs no praise. The two former instalments have received so high commendation that all we need do now is to put upon record the completion of the work and briefly characterize its especial merit. Moreover, we have said on another occasion (see *Nation*, No. 587) that Mr. Bright's strong point is political history; now, in the period covered by this volume political events stand in the first line rather than constitutional growth or even military operations. The careers of the two Pitts form the central feature of the work ; and these are admirably told.

This history of England is not very far from Mr. Green's in bulk; the pages are considerably smaller, but number nearly twice as many; yet the two books can hardly be considered rivals, so different are their plan and style. Their distinctive character may be traced in their titles. Mr. Green's 'History of the English *People*' is essentially a history of civilization, of the progress of thought, of social movements, in which national and constitutional life form only one element in the life of the people. His subdivisions embrace social rather than chronological periods, and there is even an almost ostentatious disregard of conventional lines. As a book of suggestive reading for persons already acquainted with the outline of events, nothing could be better. Mr. Bright's history, more formal in its plan, gives for this reason a more systematic view, and will perhaps do better service if one has only a single work. Less discursive and eloquent than Mr. Green's, it is far from being dry or uninteresting. The style is clear and vigorous, and the story is told with excellent effect. We will instance, as particularly good, the passage describing Mr. Grenville's measures that led to the troubles with America (p. 1045), etc.

Mr. Bright has worked up his auxiliary matter with great care. At the head of every reign is a genealogical table (when there are the materials

for it), with lists of contemporary princes, archbishops of Canterbury, lord chancellors, first lords of the Treasury, chancellors of the Exchequer and secretaries of state; we are surprised, by the way, that the chief-justices are not also given. Each volume has a good index and excellent maps. The maps in the present volume are (colored): countries to the north of France in 1702, a very good and instructive map; centre of Europe, for the close of the eighteenth century, very interesting in showing the relations of France and Germany; and India, showing the growth of the English power; four small maps (uncolored): North America, in which we note that Bennington is put east of the Green Mountains; Spain, Portugal, and India. There are also numerous plans of battles—Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, Malplaquet, Dettingen, Waterloo, with those in the Peninsular campaign, and one or two in America. In that of Bunker Hill, Boston Neck is given according to its present plethoric proportions; probably the person who draughted it never heard of the Back Bay.

On the whole this is probably the best English history for reference in existence. We only regret that it does not include part, at least, of the reign of Victoria, in which case the present thick volume could have been divided.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*
Allen (G.), Physiological Æsthetics	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Bacon (Rev. L. W.), Church Papers, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Bridgman (Dr. M. F.), Mosses: Poetry	(A. Williams & Co.)
Burnett (Mrs. F. H.), Surly Tim, and Other Stories	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Chambers-Ketchum (Mrs.), Lotos Flowers: Poetry	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Creasy (Sir E. S.), History of the Ottoman Turks	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Field (Marie E.), The Wings of Courage	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) $1 25
Harrison (Prof. C.), The Odes of Horace in English Verse, Book I	(Ginn & Heath)
Hill (Prof. A. S.), General Rules for Punctuation, 7th ed., swd	(C. W. Sever)
Hugo (V.), Histoire d'un Crime, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Humphrey-Bennett Discussion on Christianity and Infidelity	(D. M. Bennett) 1 00
Joynes (Prof. E. S.), Otto's Introductory French Reader	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Keller (M. J.), Elementary Perspective	(Robert Clarke & Co.) 1 00
Lamb (Mrs. M. J.), History of the City of New York, Vol. I	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Life of General George B. McClellan, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 50
Littré (E.), Supplément au Dictionnaire de la Langue Française, Part 6, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Lowder (Rev. C. F.), Twenty-one Years in St. George's Mission	(Rivingtons)
Marsh (G. P.), The Earth as Modified by Human Action. (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	3 00
Matthews (C.), The Enchanted Moccasins	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Maudsley (Dr. H.), Physiology of Mind	(D. Appleton & Co.)
McLaughlin (Miss M. L.), China Painting, swd	(Robert Clarke & Co.) 75

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 25, 1877.

The Week.

CONGRESS has accomplished little during the week. The Senate has spent considerable time over the claims to seats of Messrs. Kellogg, Spofford, and Eustis, of Louisiana. Spofford was elected by the Nicholls Legislature after the settlement. The Committee on Elections is now hearing evidence in his case and Kellogg's. Some of those who uphold the President's course with regard to Louisiana are said to believe that Kellogg has the best legal claim to a seat, and, in spite of the fact that he represents nothing but the Federal machine in New Orleans, the State may be obliged to put up with him. Mr. Stanley Matthews has introduced a bill for the distribution of the remainder of the Geneva award, providing for a revival of the Court of Commissioners of *Alabama* Claims, and making it their duty to examine all claims presented for damages done by any Confederate cruiser. A bill for the remonetization of silver has been introduced by Senator Jones. The House, which has been in session but a portion of the time, has done nothing but listen to argument in the Colorado case. Bills for the repeal of the Resumption Act and for the payment of half the customs-duties in legal-tender have made their appearance. Mr. Randall has not yet appointed his committees; and the President has as yet sent in for confirmation to the Senate only a portion of the appointments made prior to the meeting of Congress. He has, however, nominated General John M. Harlan, of Kentucky, for the vacancy on the Supreme Court bench; a selection which, while respectable, we suppose would not have occurred to him if he had been bent solely on maintaining the character of the court.

The New York *Times* suggests, and other papers concur, that the Senate ought for its own credit to take up Patterson's case. This man has been indicted in South Carolina for an infamous offence, but shelters himself against extradition by pleading his Senatorial privilege, which protects him against arrest except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace, and refuses to surrender himself for trial. The proofs against him are, we believe, clear, which doubtless accounts for his unwillingness to plead, and the Senate ought in common decency to examine them, and, if found sufficient, expel him, and let the police get a fair chance at him. He is almost the last of the criminal carpet-baggers left in high office, and at least "one penitentiary"—as the politicians say—"is yawning for him."

A "recent assemblage of our fellow-citizens," composed of Senators and Representatives, was held in Washington on Friday, at Secretary Sherman's, of which an outline report has been telegraphed to the press. There were nineteen present, including Mr. Sherman, and the principal object of the gathering was to determine what course the party should adopt in the House, in case the Democrats should carry out a wicked design which they are said to entertain of introducing a resolution in the House approving of the President's "policy." No decision was reached; but only two of those present, Mr. J. D. Cox and Mr. Crapo, declared their intention of voting for it. The others seemed to waver between "sitting silent" and voting solidly against it. Only two approved of the civil-service order and the Southern "policy." Most of them seemed to feel very sore, and to be disposed to keep away from the President. Some attached most importance to the "policy," others to the civil-service order, others to the introduction of a Democrat into the Cabinet. Most of them appeared to feel that the President had "gone back on them." They are evidently not much affected by the argument that he is carrying out the Cincinnati platform, for it probably has never occurred to them that platforms were intended to be carried out. The persons present were Hale and Frye, of Maine; Butler and Crapo, of Massachusetts; Blair, of New Hampshire; Hendee, of Vermont; Townsend, of New York; Errett, of Pennsylvania; Foster, Garfield, Cox, and Danford, of Ohio; Conger, of Michigan; Burchard and Cannon, of Illinois; Dunnell, of Minnesota; Price, of Iowa; Page, of California, and Thornburgh, of Tennessee. The President has evidently reached the parting of the ways, and must now either fight or surrender, at the same point at which Grant surrendered.

Most of the reports from Washington reveal the existence of considerable despondency among the Republican managers. Even those who are disposed to submit to "the policy" doubt whether the party can be kept up without the aid of the postmasters. The postmasters, they say, are sulky, and won't "work," so the great party is on its last legs. Who would have supposed when listening during these recent years to the accounts of the grand mission of the party, and of its splendid record and its noble composition—"the intelligence and morality of the North"—that it was all postmasters after all? that if the postmasters lost interest in it, or a few thousand poor clerks failed to contribute to its funds from their scanty salaries, this glorious organization would go to pieces, and let freedom and humanity and the American Union shift for themselves? And yet this, if we are to believe "the practical man," is exactly what is impending. Who ever dreamed, when the Government first undertook the carriage of letters, that the postmasters would come to play this proud rôle in the political history of the Anglo-Saxon race; that they would hold the destinies of great parties and great peoples in their hands, and that they would pass in an hour from the humble duty of sorting letters and selling stamps to the task of making and unmaking governments, of taking power from one statesman and giving it to another, and that an appeal would lie to them from the President of the United States as to his manner of exercising his constitutional discretion? It is to be observed that even in this extremity no Republican member of Congress, or set of members of Congress, offers the country any programme or policy on any pressing question of the day—any plan of civil-service reform, except Conkling's burlesque; any scheme of legislation with regard to the tariff, or the currency, or anything else. The one thing they propose is to "stand guard" over the offices, and curse anybody who meddles with them.

Mr. "Zach" Chandler has issued from his retirement in Michigan, in the character of a "practical man," to furnish a plan of civil-service reform. He says the great trouble with all "civil-service advisers" is that they are not competent to carry on large business enterprises. "That great apostle of civil-service reform," for instance, "Mr. George William Curtis, although he can write good editorials, if put in charge of Harper's publishing house would bankrupt it in a year." From which Mr. Chandler apparently deduces the conclusion that we need not pay any attention to what Mr. Curtis says about civil-service reform. Here is Mr. Chandler's own plan:

"There were no patent, strictly-defined rules for civil service. What did men do in the management of their own business? If they found an incompetent man, they discharged him and put a competent man in his place; if they found a lazy man, they discharged him and put an industrious man in his place; if they found a dishonest man, they discharged him and put an honest man in his place; and when they found a good man, when they had a competent man, in their employ, they promoted him, whether he was in a Government office or on a farm."

After giving all due attention to this, we are bound to say that we do not see wherein it differs from Mr. Conkling's great plan produced at the Rochester Convention. Mr. Conk-

PACIFIC RAILROAD LEGISLATION.

AT the close of the last Congress there was pending in the Senate a bill to provide for the settlement and liquidation of the indebtedness of the Union and Central Pacific Railroads to the United States. Two bills had been reported for this purpose, proceeding upon very different principles—the one by the Judiciary Committee, the other by the Pacific Railroad Committee. The bill of the Judiciary Committee went upon the theory that, inasmuch as the act of 1864 subordinating the Government's mortgage on these roads to another mortgage of equal amount, and doubling the land-grant to the companies—both of which privileges had been accepted by them—reserved the right on the part of Congress "to alter, amend, or repeal," it was therefore competent for Congress to prescribe by law what sum or sums should be paid into the Treasury annually by these companies out of their net earnings in liquidation of their indebtedness to the Government. This view of the scope of legislative powers would seem to have been sustained by the decision of the Supreme Court in one of the Wisconsin railroad cases, wherein the reserved right to alter, amend, or repeal has been given even a wider latitude than was claimed for it by the supporters of the Judiciary Committee's bill. The act of 1862 incorporating the Pacific Railroad companies, and making certain grants to them, prescribed that they should pay into the Treasury "at least five per cent." of their net earnings each year in liquidation of their Government debts. This act also reserved the right to alter, amend, or repeal, coupled with the proviso that it should be exercised with "due regard to the rights of the companies." No work was done under the act of 1862, and it was declared by the moving spirits of the enterprise that none could be done. Accordingly the act of 1864 was passed, with its additional grants and its enlarged proviso as to the power of amendment.

The Judiciary Committee's bill was straightway opposed by the Supreme Court decision in the case of "The United States *v.* The Union Pacific Railroad Company," involving the right of the Government to withhold the entire amount of earnings of these companies for the transportation of troops, mails, and Government property, instead of one-half. The court held the law of the case to be that the indebtedness of the companies to the Government, whether in the way of interest or principal, would not be due until the maturity of the bonds, about the year 1895; and that only one-half of the transportation earnings could be withheld to be applied to such indebtedness. Senator Christiancy, supporting the Judiciary Committee's bill, pointed out the fact, sufficiently obvious, that the Supreme Court had not undertaken to decide what laws Congress might pass on this subject, or what validity such laws would have, but what laws Congress had actually passed, and how they were to be interpreted and enforced. The law as it stands calls for one-half of the transportation earnings, and at least five per cent. of net earnings, to be applied to the liquidation of an indebtedness maturing in 1895. This was all that the court decided, or could decide. Nevertheless, the decision was made the reason or pretext for substituting for the Judiciary Committee's bill another bill of very different character. This bill, introduced by Senator Gordon, of Georgia, and adopted by the Pacific Railroad Committee, had its origin in the councils of the Union Pacific Railroad Company.

Two years or more ago the president of this company addressed a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury suggesting that the indebtedness of his company to the Government was getting to be so large that it ought to be a matter of serious concern to the creditor, and that it seemed to be a fit subject for compromise. Terms of compromise were mentioned, the substance of which was a small semi-annual payment to be made by the company, amounting to about one-third of the accruing interest on the debt, interest on these payments to be compounded semi-annually until the whole should be equal to the principal of the subsidy bonds with simple interest computed from the date of their issue. This plan made light of the fact that the debt would be actually due in 1895, and that any extension of it beyond that time would be the same thing as a new subsidy to a completed, and, as matters now stand, a highly prosperous, dividend-paying, road. It concealed, or at all events involved, the fact that the interest to be paid by the company on the proposed new subsidy—the subsidy commencing in the year 1895—would, under the arrangement, be but a trifle more than three per cent. per annum, and simple interest at that, while the allowance by the Government to the company on all amounts paid into the Treasury was to be at six per cent., compounded semi-annually. The framers of this plan of settlement doubtless took the idea from the problem in the school arithmetics, How long will it take for one cent invested at compound interest to buy all the property in the world? It was rather too much for even a Louisiana carpet-bagger to sanction. Accordingly, the Pacific Railroad Committee, under the superior guidance of Senator West, fixed the year 1912 as the date at which the compound interest juggle should terminate and the whole debt should be settled and paid. This was the same thing as granting a new subsidy of seventeen years' duration—the original one having been for thirty years—at a reduced rate of interest after the year 1895. Senator Booth offered an amendment to the Railroad Committee's Bill requiring that the whole debt should be paid at its maturity under existing laws, which was rejected by yeas 24, nays 28, most of the carpet-baggers voting in the negative. Finally, Senator Morrill moved that the bill be laid upon the table, and Senator Sherman suggested as an amendment that it be postponed till the next session, urging with great force that the measure was of too much importance to be disposed of in the crush of the last hours of an expiring Congress, and pointing out the fact that there had been no investigation into the financial condition of the two companies, and that even their annual reports for the preceding year had not been received by the Senate. This motion was vigorously opposed by Senators West and Conkling, but it prevailed by yeas 29, nays 28. Senator Thurman has just introduced a bill embodying the principles of the Judiciary Committee's bill at the present session.

The liability of the Central and Union Pacific Companies to the Government at the present time is about $38,000,000 each, and the annual interest accumulating against them is about $1,600,000 each, less the amounts earned by them for Government transportation. The Union Pacific Company is paying dividends of 8 per cent. per annum to stockholders, besides accumulating an unknown sum described in its annual reports as "floating assets." The Central Pacific is in a more flourishing condition even, and though it is a matter of public record that the stock of both companies is largely an ideal creation, for the purposes of this article the shares will be treated as capital paid up in accordance with the requirements of law. The Government's lien is acknowledged to be a second mortgage, but inasmuch as there are third mortgages on the property which command a high price in the market, as well as a large capital stock interested in the permanent well-being of the property, no reasons are apparent for sacrificing the claim of the Treasury or abating it in any degree whatever. Nevertheless, reasons were advanced in behalf of the Railroad Committee's bill, by the supporters of that measure, which will undoubtedly be repeated this winter, and which we will briefly consider.

Setting aside the testimony offered to show how much the Government has gained indirectly by having a railway through the Western territories, as irrelevant and as fully balanced by the profits made by the companies in the construction and operation of the road, there remains but one argument, so far as has been disclosed by the debates, in favor of the bill, viz., that if the Government does not take what is here offered it will fare worse. This threat—for it is nothing else—runs through the whole discussion, in language more or less conciliatory and more or less minatory, commencing with the first proposal of the company to the Government; but it was not relied upon exclusively, as would appear from the remarks of Senator Booth, who called attention one day to the fact that the lobbyists of the bill had invaded the floor of the Senate in such numbers that Senators were nearly crowded out of their chairs. The theory presented by the advocates of the bill was that the amount due from

the two companies at the maturity of the subsidy bonds, as things are now going on, would be more than they can pay, and more than the property will then be worth after deducting the amount of the first mortgages; therefore, as half a loaf is better than no bread, it is the dictate of wisdom to relinquish a part of the claim in order to secure the remainder. The proper reply to such a threat would be something like this: "You (debtor) tell me (creditor) that although you are able to pay the debt, I am not able to collect it. We will see about that. I will first exhaust my remedies, and if they fail I will consider your plan of compromise." A mortgagee having the power of legislation over the mortgagor is not usually considered to be in a disadvantageous position if the mortgaged property is worth the debt. This is the position in which the Government stands to the Pacific Railway Companies. If it be contended that Congress has not the power of legislation over the companies to the extent at least of protecting its own claim, that may be a fair subject of dispute and of litigation in the courts; but to say that because the companies or their agents deny this power of legislation, therefore it is not worth while to have any lawsuit about it, is to abandon the Government's case at the outset. This is what was done by several Senators in set speeches, without any consciousness of the fact that they were betraying their own client. They were ready to give up a case involving a vast sum of money, not only without exhausting their remedies but without even resorting to them. The reserved power of amendment and repeal is of little worth if it cannot be exercised to prevent the debtor companies from running off with the creditor's money. It is plain from the language of the original act (that of 1862) that the right to exact a portion of the net earnings as security for the liquidation of the debt was one of the governing ideas of the law, and that it was not intended to be limited to five per cent. or any other figure, but was left open to be fixed according to the future revenues of the property. *A fortiori* does the act of 1864, with its larger grants and its more complete reservations of legislative control, confirm this view. No Senator has the right to say that he will not sanction further litigation to enforce the claims of the Government against these companies. If he is not in the Senate to protect the just claims of the Government by all lawful means, he ought not to be there at all. It is not doing violence to the proprieties of speech or to the facts of the case, to say that these companies spend twelve months in every year in swindling the Government or devising means to do so, and it is disheartening to hear Senators, who have perhaps given the subject a few days' consideration, and have not even made an investigation of the particular matter in hand, declaring that they will do nothing to enforce the rights of the Government lest perchance it should lead to the unpleasantness of a lawsuit.

THE LAW OF PANICS.

IN discussing "Panics" some years ago (Sept. 23, 1873) we drew attention to a fact which we think had previously been little noticed—that the interval between them is twice as great in this country as in England, and that it is only this country and England and France which have until very recently been exposed to them. Since 1870 they have begun to appear in Austria and Germany, and even Russia, which have had one apiece. In England the first was in 1797; the others have followed in 1807, 1817, 1826, 1837, 1847, 1857, and 1866, or at intervals of about ten years. In this country the first was in 1815, and they recurred in 1836, 1857, and 1873, or at intervals of about twenty years. The reason why they appeared first in England and next in this country is the earlier development in these two countries not only of commercial and industrial enterprise, but of the system of buying and selling on credit—that is, not with money, but with promises to pay money. Without credit you cannot have panics. They do not show themselves in an agricultural community, or a barbarous or insecure community. They have never been known on the greater part of the European continent until now, for the same reason assigned by Mr. Bright for the absence in that region until very recently of banks of issue. The sense of insecurity consequent on long familiarity with wars and invasions was so strong, and the belief in the possibility of war or invasion at any moment so deep, that no bank could make arrangements for the run that would surely follow the outbreak of hostilities; and in view of this contingency nobody would be willing to hold paper promises to pay in lieu of gold and silver.

That England has been, during the last seventy-five years, more panicky than the United States, is due in part to the more rapid growth and greater volume and extent of her trade and industry, but also, there can be little question, in part to the fact that panic is a mental condition which may be warded off by a more hopeful temper or less dread of the consequences of failure. In other words, to repeat what we said in 1873 on the same subject, "the extent of our resources and the greater ratio of increase of population make it harder to overdo the work of production in this country than in England, and to this we must add the greater strength of nerves produced by greater hopefulness."

But the cause of panics is the same in both countries. New men take hold of business on a rising wave, and push the work of producing and exchanging by every means in their power, until, all of a sudden, demand begins to slacken, and then everybody takes fright, and credit collapses. What is most curious about the process is, however, that almost up to the day of the panic few, if any, suspect that there is any danger ahead. The prosperity seems sound and healthy. People are all buying much because they have much to spend. Merchants are giving their notes freely for goods because experience justifies the belief that the goods will be got rid of easily. Workingmen are receiving high wages, because employers are making large profits, and they are making large profits because there is an active market. In short, whichever way we look, or whatever tests we employ, we detect nothing wrong. Moreover, though there are, of course, always croakers in prosperous seasons, there are none whose croaking is entitled to much attention by reason of their position or reputation. The leading capitalists, manufacturers, financiers, and economists almost always join in the general chuckle over the condition of business. The elaborate explanations of the causes of the collapse always come after it has occurred and when everybody knows all about it. Now, as we said two weeks ago, he would confer a great benefit on the civilized world who would furnish a trustworthy sign that a panic was near at hand, and who would, in scientific phrase, discover the law of panics, and thus enable prudent men to disregard the general hopefulness and restrict their dealings before the crash came. The great difficulty in the way of any such discovery, of course, lies in the fact that the panics which have already occurred are too few in number to furnish materials for any generalization of much value. At this moment people in both hemispheres are naturally more interested in the signs of approaching recovery than in those of impending ruin, but it is easy to see that if any such signs could be discovered they would be as good in the one case as in the other. The signs that business is improving and that the tide of prosperity has begun to flow, are the same signs on which we must rely to tell us when we are near high water and the subsequent ebb.

The signs which have been selected in this country by some financial writers are the Clearing-House returns. In the clearing-houses, which exist in all the great cities, the banks settle their accounts by an exchange of the checks deposited in each against those held against it by the others, and it is argued that, as the number and amount of these checks are large and increasing, it shows that business is improving, and improving in the ratio of the increase. The same test has been resorted to in England by those who are looking eagerly for good times, and it has been found encouraging, as the London Clearing-House returns show an increase for a considerable time, compared with the corresponding period of last year. The money article in the London *Times* points out, however, that this test is undoubtedly fallacious there, first, owing to the fact that the London clearings only represent a very small proportion of the check payments of the country at large, there being only twenty-

six banks in the House, and few of these having any country agency; and, next, because not only is a multiplicity of check-payments not a sign of active trade, "but it is extremely probable that a time of dull trade may directly act as a stimulus to payment by check, persons being more and more driven to trade within their means, or, in other words, without bills." The writer holds that the true sign of a revival of trade is a sharp demand for money, indicated by a high rate of interest and a plentiful issue of bills for discount. In this country, the Clearing-House returns are of more value as an indication of *something* than those of London, because we get them from a considerable number of business centres scattered over a very wide area; but it may well be questioned whether they furnish any better indication of the condition of business, or rather whether large returns show that business is reviving. Here, as well as there, the demand for money is the one sure sign of improving trade, and after it comes an increase in the number of discounts—or, in other words, a revival of credit. But the condition of the money market is, on the other hand, harder to get at here than in England or France, because we have no great central bank, like the Bank of England or the Bank of France, which feels the pressure on the market, and records it in its rate of interest from day to day. The credit system in England, too, is so concentrated in London—that is, all commercial bills are so sure to find their way there, sooner or later—that if there were any direct and accurate means of ascertaining the number of them afloat, it would furnish a very accurate test of the condition of business. There is no such means. That bills are increasing or decreasing, however, is ascertained in a general way by the rise or fall in the rate of interest. Moreover, there is, in France and England, a mode of ascertaining whether they are increasing or diminishing which is not within our reach here, and that is the amount discounted at the Bank of England and the Bank of France. From the tables they furnish on this point a writer in the last number of the *Journal des Economistes*, M. Clément Juglar, has endeavored to show that in England and France a steady rise in the amount of discounts for about six years ends in a crisis; that this is followed by four or five years of a decline in the amount of discounts, and that the cessation of this decline marks the close of the crisis and the turning of the tide; and that there is a tolerably steady relation between this flow and ebb of the discounts and the amount of metallic reserve, and circulation, and deposits. His tables our space will not permit us to reproduce, but they go to show that both in the Bank of England and that of France, beginning with the year 1832, every crisis has been preceded by about six years of steadily rising discounts, steadily declining metallic reserve, and diminishing note circulation, and has been followed for about the same period by reverse movements; and that when these last are arrested it has always been a sign that the revival has begun, the rate of interest running up to 10 per cent. at the moment of the crisis and declining to 2 per cent. at the moment of the beginning of the revival. According to this theory the tide is now just turning.

THE CHURCH AS AN AID TO GOOD CONDUCT.

THE Episcopal Church, at the late Triennial Convention, took up and determined to make a more vigorous effort to deal with the problem presented by the irreligion of the poor and the dishonesty of church members. It is an unfortunate and, at first sight, somewhat puzzling circumstance that so many of the culprits in the late cases of fraud and defalcation should have been professing Christians, and in some cases persons of unusual ecclesiastical activity, and that this activity should apparently have furnished no check whatever to the moral descent. It is proposed to meet the difficulty by more preaching, more prayer, and greater use of lay assistance in church-work. There is nothing very new, however, about the difficulty. There is hardly a year in which it is not deplored at meetings of church organizations, and in which solemn promises are not made to devise some mode of keeping church members up to their professions and gathering more of the churchless working-classes into the fold; but somehow there is not much visible progress to be recorded. The church scandals multiply in spite of pastors and people, and the workingmen decline to show themselves at places of worship, although the number of places of worship and of church members steadily increases.

We are sorry not to notice in any of the discussions on the subject a more frank and searching examination of the reason why religion does not act more powerfully as a rule of conduct. Until such an examination is made, and its certain results boldly faced by church reformers, the church cannot become any more of a help to right living than it is now, be this little or much. The first thing which such an examination would reveal is a thing which is in everybody's mind and on everybody's tongue in private, but which is apt to be evaded or only slightly alluded to at ecclesiastical synods and conventions: we mean the loss of faith in the dogmatic part of Christianity. People do not believe in the fall, the atonement, the resurrection, and a future state of reward and punishment at all, or do not believe in them with the certainty and vividness which are needed to make faith a constant influence on a man's daily life. They do not believe they will be damned for sin with the assurance they once did, and they are consequently indifferent to most of what is said to them of the need of repentance. They do not believe the story of Christ's life and the theory of his character and attributes given in the New Testament, or they regard them as merely a picturesque background to his moral teachings, about which a Christian may avoid coming to any positive conclusion. No man who keeps himself familiar with the intellectual and scientific movements of the day, however devout a Christian he may be, likes to question himself as to his beliefs about these matters, or would like to have to define accurately where his faith ended and his doubts began. If he is assailed in discussion by a sceptic and his combativeness roused, he will probably proclaim himself an implicit and literal acceptor of the Gospel narratives; but he will not be able to maintain this mental attitude alone in his own room. The effort that has been made by Unitarians and others to meet this difficulty by making Christ's influence and authority rest on his moral teachings and example, without the support of a divine nature or mission or sacrifice, has failed utterly. The Christian Church cannot be held together as a great social force by his teaching or example as a moral philosopher. A church organized on this theory speedily becomes a lecture association or a philanthropic club, of about as much aid to conduct as Free-Masonry. Christ's sermons need the touch of supernatural authority to make them impressive enough for the work of social regeneration; and his life was too uneventful, and the society in which he lived too simple, to give his example real power over the imagination of a modern man who regards him simply as a social reformer.

This decline of faith in Christian dogma and history has not, however, produced by any means a decline in religious sentiment, but it has deprived religion of a good deal of its power as a means of moral discipline. Moral discipline is acquired mainly by the practice of doing what one does not like, under the influence of mastering fear or hope. The conquest of one's self, of which Christian moralists speak so much, is simply the acquisition of the power of doing easily things to which one's natural inclinations are opposed; and in this work the mass of mankind are powerfully aided—indeed, we may say, have to be aided—by the prospect of reward or punishment. The wonderful results which are achieved in the army, by military authority, in inspiring coarse and common natures with a spirit of the loftiest devotion, are simply due to the steady application by day and by night of a punishing and rewarding authority. The loss of this, or its great enfeeblement, undoubtedly has deprived the church of a large portion of its means of discipline, and reduced it more nearly to the rôle of a stimulator and gratifier of certain tender emotions. It contains a large body of persons whose religious life consists simply of a succession of sensations not far removed from one's enjoyment of music and poetry; and another large body, to whom it furnishes refuge and consolation of a vague and ill-defined sort in times of sorrow and disappointment. To these persons the church prayers and hymns are not trumpet-calls to the battle-field, but soothing melodies, which give additional zest to home comforts and luxuries, and make the sharper demands of a life of the highest integrity less bearable. Nay, the case is rather worse than this. We have little doubt that this sentimental religion, as we may call it, in many cases deceives a man utterly as to his own moral condition, and hides from him the true character and direction of the road he is travelling, and furnishes his conscience with a false bottom. The revelations of the last few years as to its value as a guide in the conduct of life have certainly been plain and deplorable.

The evil in some degree suggests the remedy, though we do not mean to say that we know of any complete remedy. Church-membership ought

to involve discipline of some kind in order to furnish moral aid. It ought, that is to say, to impose some restraint on people's inclinations, the operation of which will be visible, and enforced by some external sanction. If, in short, Christians are to be regarded as more trustworthy and as living on a higher moral plane than the rest of the world, they must furnish stronger evidences of their sincerity than are now exacted from them, and evidences which, instead of being the indulgence of personal taste, will consist of plain and open self-denial. The church, in short, must be an organization held together by some stronger ties than enjoyment of weekly music and oratory in a pretty building, and almsgiving which entails no sacrifice and is often only a tickler of social vanity. There is in monasticism a suggestion of the way in which it must retain its power over men's lives, and be enabled to furnish them with a certificate of character. Its members will have to have a good deal of the ascetic about them, but without any withdrawal from the world. How to attain this without sacrificing the claims of art, and denying the legitimacy of honestly-acquired material power, and, in fact, restricting individual freedom to a degree which the habits and social theories of the day would make very odious, is the problem to be solved, and, there is no doubt, a very tough one. General inculcation of "plain living" will not solve it, as long as "plain living" is not defined, and the "self-made man" who has made a great fortune and spends it lavishly is held up to the admiration of every schoolboy. The church has been making of late years a gallant effort to provide accommodation for the successful, and enable them to be good Christians without sacrificing any of the good things of this life, and, in fact, without surrendering anything they enjoy, or favoring the outside public with any recognizable proof of their sincerity. We do not say that this is reprehensible, but it is easy to see that it has the seeds of a great crop of scandals in it. Donations in an age of great munificence, and horror of far-off or unattractive sins, like the slaveholding of Southerners and the intemperance of the miserable poor, are not, and ought not to be, accepted as signs of inward and spiritual grace, and of readiness to scale "the toppling crags of duty."

The conversion of the working classes, too, it is safe to say, will never be accomplished by any ecclesiastical organization which sells cushioned pews at auction, or rents them at high rates, and builds million-dollar churches for the accommodation of one thousand worshippers. The passion for equality has taken too strong hold of the workingman to make it possible to catch him with cheap chapels and "assistant pastors." He will not seek salvation *in formâ pauperis*, and thinks the best talent in the ministerial market not a whit too good for him. He not unnaturally doubts the sincerity of Christians who are not willing to kneel beside badly-dressed persons in prayer on the one day of the week when prayer is public. In fact, to fit the Protestant church in this country to lay hold of the laboring population a great process of reconstruction would be necessary. The congregational system would have to be abandoned or greatly modified, the common fund made larger and administered in a different way. There would have, in short, to be a close approach to the Roman Catholic organization, and the churches would have to lose the character of social clubs which now makes them so comfortable and attractive. Well-to-do Christians would have to sacrifice their tastes in a dozen ways, and give up the expectation of æsthetic pleasure in public worship. There cannot be a vast Gothic cathedral for the multitude in every city. The practice of the church would have to be forced up to its own theory of its character and mission, which would involve serious collision with some of the most deeply-rooted habits and ideas of modern social and political life. That there is any immediate probability of this we do not believe. Until it is brought about, its members must make up their minds to have religious professions treated by some as but slight guarantees of character, and by others as but cloaks for wrong-doing, hard as this may be for that large majority to whom they are an honest expression of sure hopes and noble aims.

FOREIGN NAMES.

II.

IN establishing rules for the spelling of foreign names a dividing line must first of all be drawn between names belonging to languages which, like the English, use the Roman alphabet and those belonging to languages whose alphabets are different. The German is included in the first class of languages, since, besides its modified form of the Gothic, it also uses the Roman letters.

The principal rule for the whole first division is: Write every word as you find it in the respective language, using every letter and sign commonly or frequently used in English works on foreign topics, and, whenever practicable, also substitutes for letters and signs peculiar to certain languages, and not generally understood by educated English readers. To give examples, write, without regard to pronunciation, *Alençon, Angoulême, Mézières; Cid, Salvá, Marañon; Minho, Maranhão; Cantù, Cività Vecchia; Götz, Rückert; Mickiewicz, Czartoryski; Deák, Eötvös*, etc. All these names are exactly so written by writers in the respective languages, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, German, Polish, and Hungarian, and the peculiar signs which mark some of them are understood by many English readers and already widely used in English literature. To write, according to the sound, *Tchartoryski*, instead of Czartoryski, would be as absurd as writing *Tchaldeenee* for Cialdini. On the other hand, it would be equally useless and troublesome to write, according to the strict Polish usage, *Częstochowa*, instead of the common substitute Czenstochowa, or *Kościuszko*, with a softened *s*; as the value of *ę* or *ś* is hardly known to one out of ten thousand English readers. The mark above the *s* may safely be ignored, and *en* is a good substitute for *ę*. Such is also *ö* for the Danish *ø*, as in *Jørgen*, and for the Hungarian *ő*, as in *Petőfi*; and we justly write *Abo*, instead of Åbo, as the Swedes have it, and call the great rivers of Sweden Tornea, Lulea, Pitea, etc., always ignoring the circular mark above the *a*, although it changes the sound. Of course, all this refers only to the general use of forms, when we apply our own names to men or places; when, in an explanatory way, the original rendering is to be fully stated, the strictest reproduction is required.

An important exception to the general rule is this: Whenever there is a well-established English form for a foreign name, that is to be preferred to the stricter national form. Hardly anybody writes *Venezia* for Venice, *Napoli* for Naples, *Kjöbenhavn* for Copenhagen, *Warszawa* for Warsaw, *Trento* or *Trient* for Trent, *Praha* for Prague, or *Wien* for Vienna; few write *Köln* for Cologne, *München* for Munich, or *Livorno* for Leghorn; and the best English usage still prefers *Lyons, Marseilles, Brussels, Ghent, Mentz, Leipsic, Cleves*, and *Treves* to the national names *Lyon, Marseille, Bruxelles, Gand, Mainz, Leipzig, Kleve*, and *Trier*. The time is surely not far off when writers of eminence will inaugurate sounder literary usages, but it will be the task of new Macaulays, Carlyles, and Prescotts to lead in the reform; writers for cyclopædias, gazetteers, and journals can do no better than slowly follow.

In the same way in which English history speaks of the treaty of Ghent, of the battle of Leipsic, of the council of Trent, or of the capture of Warsaw, giving preference to its own established forms above similar and more correct foreign ones, it has also arbitrarily decided between the rival claims of nationalities as to names of places, and there can be no appeal from its decision. We must still state, following our German guides in history, that Wallenstein was assassinated at Eger in Bohemia, though we have learned that the Bohemian name of that town is Cheb; that Maria Theresa appeared before the Hungarian diet at Presburg, though Hungarians correctly tell us that their diet was then held at Pozsony; that the capital of Austrian Poland is Lemberg, though the Poles call it Lwów, and the capital of Croatia, Agram, though called Zagreb by the Croats. This historical usage, however, must be confined within narrow limits. Wherever the proper national form is similar to the historical, and the latter not exclusively used, the former is to be selected. Thus, *Poltava* is to be preferred to *Pultowa, Kalisz* to *Kalisch, Breisach* to *Brisach, Mühlhausen* to *Mulhouse, Basel* to *Basle* or *Bâle, Bern* to *Berne, Zürich* to *Zurich*, while, on the other hand, *Komárom* is not to be substituted for *Comorn, Torun* for *Thorn*, or *Gdansk* for *Dantzic*. As a rule it can be stated that the English usage decidedly prefers the German names to the Polish in Posen and other Prussian provinces, and to the Czechic in Bohemia and Moravia, but more rarely to the Magyar and Slavic in the countries of the Hungarian crown; the Polish, with few exceptions, to the German or Russian in the so-called Kingdom of Poland and in Galicia; the Russian always to the Polish in Lithuania, Volhynia, Podolia, and Ukraine; and the French sometimes to the German on or near the Rhine. Such exceptional French names, however, as *Aix-la-Chapelle* for *Aachen, Coire* for *Chur, Lucerne* for *Luzern*, are becoming rare, and *Soleure* may now safely be given up for *Solothurn, Deux-Ponts* for *Zweibrücken*, and *Juliers* for *Jülich*. *Mayence* is probably as often used as *Mentz*, and *Mainz* may be equally good; but the writer must make his choice, in this as in similar cases, and cling to it, refraining from giving us a sing-song like this (in Murray's 'Continent'): "Mayence, the *Moguntiacum* of the Romans. . . . The most remarkable objects in Mainz, . . . St. Boniface, . . . first archbishop of Mayence,

. . . The Elector of Mainz. . . . Its tower commands the best view of Mayence. . . . Mainz was the cradle of the art of printing. . . . Mayence carries on a great trade. . . . A bridge . . . unites Mainz to Cassel, or Castel. . . . Station in Mayence," etc.

Classical Greek names must be exceptionally grouped with those originally written in Roman letters. The English have taken them all not from the original texts but from Latin transcribers, and only such independent specialists as Grote can afford to call Hellenic men and places by their proper Hellenic names, such as Alkibiadês, Kleisthenês, Kyrênê, and Pheidôn, for which English writers have learned from Cicero, Nepos, and other Romans to substitute Alcibiades, Clisthenes, Cyrene, and Phidon. Those ancient Persian, Median, Lydian, and Egyptian names, too, which we have learned from the Greeks and Romans, must remain in popular works as the Latin texts have them: Cyrus, Cyaxares, Crœsus, Amasis, etc. The Latin terminations are often dropped or altered, and the popular English names which arise from the change are universally adopted. Thus, even Grote knows only King Philip, Athens, and Thebes, not Philippus, Athenæ, or Thebæ. Where our knowledge is derived from sources discovered in modern times, such as hieroglyphs or cuneiform inscriptions, strict transliteration is required. We then say, with George Rawlinson, Sheshonk, Osorkon, etc., or, after Brugsch, Sebek-hotep, Shasu, etc., omitting the latter's dot under the *h* in "hotep," as proper only in scholarly dissertations, and substituting in "Shasu" for his *š* the plain English equivalent *sh*. Our *kh* and *k* are good equivalents for his *χ* and *q*. The Egyptologist's or Assyriologist's way of spelling must, of course, be closely studied before transliteration is attempted. The *ch* alone, as found in various applications in Brugsch, Ebers, Rougé, Chabas, Mariette, and others, has caused a great deal of confusion in English books. Hence it probably is, *e. g.*, that the classical Cheops appears as Shufu in Rawlinson's 'Manual of Ancient History' and in the 'American Cyclopædia,' and as Khufu in the English edition of Lenormant's 'Ancient History of the East,' in the new 'Britannica,' and in the 'Condensed American Cyclopædia,' which, on better information, dropped the form used by its predecessor. Philip Smith, in his 'Ancient History of the East,' avoiding a difficulty, writes *Chufu*. But here again the question arises, How is the word to be pronounced? Was the name of the pyramid-builder Tchufu, Shufu, Khufu, or Kufu?

Corresponding to the difference between classical and modern Greek names is the difference between Biblical and post-Biblical Hebrew names. For the Biblical, which the English have not taken from the Hebrew or Greek originals, but from the Vulgate and the patristic writers, we have a plain rule: They are to be written as we find them in the English Bible. To call (in popular writing, we repeat) the great Hebrew prophets by their original names, Mosheh, Yeshayahu, and Yirmeyahu, instead of Moses, Isaiah, and Jeremiah, or the first and last Evangelists Matthæus or Mattithyahu and Yohannes or Yohanan, would not be quite as absurd as to speak of Yitzhak Newton or Yaakob Astor, but, to say the least, unnecessarily strange. The names of all post-Biblical Jews, too, if derived from the Scriptures, must retain their Anglicized form, and it matters not whether the bearers of them were Talmudists, mediæval rabbis, or modern celebrities. We thus speak alike of Moses (not Mosheh) Maimonides and Moses Mendelssohn, of Solomon (not Shelomoh) ben Gabirol and Solomon Judah Rappaport, of Judah (not Yehudah) the Holy and Judah Touro. On the other hand, a strict transliteration is demanded of rabbinical and other more or less pure Hebrew names which are not taken from Scriptures, and therefore have no popular English forms. And in this field, he who writes on Jewish subjects, if he is not himself possessed of sound Hebrew knowledge, will have to look for trustworthy English guides, and examine closely his German or French authorities before adopting their spellings. Unfortunately, careless imitations, even by writers of extensive knowledge, are frequent, and cyclopædias swarm with such names as Na*ch*man, *S*akkai, and *Z*ebi, in which *ch*, *s*, and *z* (all correct in a German authority) improperly stand for the Hebrew letters of which the English equivalents are *h* (or *'h*), *z*, and *tz* (or *ts*).

How far this carelessness is carried may be illustrated by one striking example. Samuel Davidson, "D.D. of the University of Halle, and LL.D., London," has translated Fürst's 'Hebrew and Chaldee Lexicon,' inclusive of his introductory "Contribution to the History of Hebrew Lexicography." In the lexicon proper the translator fortunately followed good English models, such as Robinson's Gesenius, and, deviating from his author, wrote *Rashi*, *Mishna*, etc., not *Raschi*, *Mischna*. But for the introductory essay on lexicography he had no English model before him, and he therefore blindly copied "A*sch*e" (for Ashe), "Ha*j*a" (for Haya or 'Haya), "*J*ezira" (for Yetzira), "*Ch*abib" (for Habib), "Ma*ch*asora" (for Mahazora), "*Z*ema*ch*" (for Tzemah), "*Jach*ja Abu-*S*akari*jj*a" (for Yahya Abu-Zakariyya), "Abu *J*usuf *Ch*asdai" (for Abu-Yusuf Hasdai), "Mazlia*ch*" (for Matzliah), etc., etc., and even "Me*nach*em," "*E*sra," and "No*ach*"—good Biblical names in German—for Menahem, Ezra, and Noah! Thus, the English translator of a great Hebrew lexicon "to the Old Testament," in copying his elaborately correct German author, sets an example of ignoring both the English Bible and the Hebrew alphabet.

VERONA.

VENICE, Sept. 26, 1877.

I WOULD advise all travellers who go from Milan to Venice to stop for a little while in Verona. If they have never yet seen Italy they will take in Verona a plunge into the true Italian life, for Turin and Milan cannot be called truly Italian; they are too cosmopolitan. I arrived a few days ago at Verona, and took my lodgings in an old Italian palace, now converted into the Albergo delle due Torre, a squalid house if you look at the corners and the carpets, but having a true Italian air with its long balconies at each floor in the great interior court. My window opened on the little square before the old basilica of Santa Anastasia; I saw its quaint porch with its faded frescoes and charming marble sculptures. Right before me was a curious tomb built on the top of a wall and, so to speak, in the air. After dinner I went immediately to the famous square of the Signori. I love to mingle at once with the people, and to live their life. I found a great crowd in the square, which is, so to speak, the heart of the city. Night had already come; on all sides rose the walls of the huge palaces built in the Middle Ages and during the Renaissance. Hundreds of men, women, children, and soldiers were circulating about the statue of Dante, a modern work, which looks like a white ghost, owing to the freshness of the marble. A military band was playing for the people. In the night the square looked as it did at the time of the famous Scaligeri, whose gloomy palace, with its iron gratings, is still protected by an immense tower in the shape of a campanile. On all sides were dark passages, one being the famous passage called Volto Barbaro by the people since Can Signorio killed in it Can Grande with his own hand. This same ferocious Can Signorio strangled one of his brothers, which made Petrarch say, with a play on the word *cane*, that Verona, like Actæon, was devoured by its own dogs. This passage leads to the Piazza delle Erbe, the market-place, so lively by day, full of flowers, of fruits, with its market-women under huge parasols; its numberless shops; the curious old houses, with balconies, galleries, porticoes, huge frescoes half defaced by time, but still showing all sorts of painted forms. These two squares, joined by the Volto Barbaro, are like the two ventricles of the heart of Verona. You see immediately that the people here was sovereign; there was but one step from the market to the *municipe*, to the palace of the prince, who became always the leader of the democracy. The noise in the daytime is almost deafening; groups are formed everywhere. Verona still leads the old life of a little municipal republic.

The passage opposite the Volto Barbaro will bring you before the little court, surrounded by an iron fence, which is one of the jewels of Italian art. In this court are the famous tombs of the Scaligeri. For more than a century these men, imbued with the ideas which were expressed by Machiavelli in his 'Principe,' made themselves the Cæsars of the little republic; they had all the vices and virtues of their time; they were ferocious, vengeful, brave, passionate lovers of art, and some of them of literature. When, in the evening, you stand in the square of the Signori, you must imagine the palace of the Scaligeri full of attendants; sentries in uniform are going to and fro on the long balconies; torches are burning on the top of the high watchtower. The tyrant is there at home; he dares not go down into the street unless surrounded by his guards; he speaks to the people on the square from a high window, like the Doge of Venice. Even when a Scaliger dies, he cannot go far from this heart of the city, from the seat of the power of his family; his tomb is placed close by; the best sculptors of Italy are summoned, and years are spent in erecting these grand and costly monuments, which seem more like the tombs of emperors and kings than of the magistrates of a city. The expression of these curious monuments is that of an intense pride. There are three very large tombs that are little monuments in themselves, with marble roofs, which are always surmounted by the Scaliger on horseback, with his lance in his hand, and bearing on his breast the ladder (*scala*), which was the emblem of the family. You will find this ladder everywhere: in the ornaments of the magnificent iron fences, which look like iron lace, in the escutcheons carried by a number

of angels, on the sides of the cenotaphs. You will find also everywhere the curious helmets of the Scaligeri—a helmet with wings on the sides and with a dog's head (*can*) on the top. Can Signorio has his tomb surrounded by six warrior-saints, all in armor, who seem to form his court after his death; they are Saint Valentine, Saint Martin, Saint Sigismund, Saint Quirinus, Saint George, Saint Louis, the King of France. This petty tyrant of an Italian city summoned them all round him.

The tomb of this Can Signorio is the most admired of all, on account of the excessive complexity and richness of its ornamentation. For my part, I perhaps prefer the tomb of Mastino I., which is of the same size, but is a little more simple. I was excessively interested in the sculptures, which are most apparent in this last tomb. They are on the four sides of the pyramidal roof which covers the cenotaph. The four subjects chosen by the sculptor are these: 1st, Adam and Eve, with the tree of knowledge between them; 2d, Adam sitting and Eve sitting, with Cain and Abel, still in infancy; 3d, the assassination of Abel by Cain; 4th, Noah asleep, and his children. It is almost evident that the sculptor did not choose these subjects without an ironical meaning. He proposed to himself to bear his testimony against the dissensions which had existed among the Scaligeri. Can Signorio was a Cain himself; but one can hardly imagine how an artist dared to make such allusions, and to engrave them for eternity, or for centuries, on the very tomb of a Scaliger. He was fortunately aided by the religious habits of his time. Scenes from Genesis had always the first place in the ornamentation of the basilicas. On the whole, the more you look at these tombs, which are one of the holy places of art, the more you feel that the true Christian spirit is wanting in them. They express nothing but human passion, pride, ambition. You perceive in them one of the symptoms of the revolt of the flesh against the severe Christianity of the Middle Ages.

By a happy and delightful contrast Verona can show you the two extremities, as it were, of a long Christian period. In the tomb of the Scaligeri you see already the bold spirit of the Renaissance; in the basilica of San Zenone you see one of the pearls of early Christianity. While the tombs of the Scaligeri are in the noisy and crowded part of the city, the basilica of Pepin, son of Charlemagne, is now in a deserted quarter, along the Adige. The church is almost in a solitude; it rises, with its immense campanile, in a desert. The impression it gave me was all the more vivid. San Zenone may be said to be the finest type of the Roman basilica—the civic monument of men—turned into a religious church, a monument of God. There is hardly anything changed in the lines and principles of construction; only the walls rise higher. I confess a great admiration for this old style, where the round arch is not yet replaced by the irrational pointed arch. After you have admired the quaint porch, with the curious pieces of bronze still fixed on the old wooden door, its marble columns supported by lions, you enter the church by descending a few steps. The impression is very singular; these descending steps are like a reminiscence of the catacombs, of the time when Christianity had to hide itself. The church itself is the highest expression of what can be obtained by simplicity: you see nothing but the roof, with all its wooden supports, merely adorned by golden and silver stars on a grayish ground; the stone wall, without any ornament, rises above alternate huge square and round columns. The square have their capitals unadorned—mere stones slightly rounded, and showing embryonic forms of leaves, as if the vegetation had not accomplished all its work; these capitals are very fine in their simplicity; the round columns have capitals showing curious combinations of vegetable and animal forms; they have the shape of a turban. From the very entrance of the church you see the immense naked floor of the church, ending in a staircase which leads to a crypt, full of a vegetation of heavy capitals; two lateral staircases lead to the choir, which thus stands high above the people. The impression of this simple arrangement is very majestic; the eye understands at once all the uses of the church; it sees the crypt where St. Zeno's tomb lies, the choir, the roof. The ideal problems of a work of art are here solved in a perfect manner. The mind is satisfied, and can, with a sentiment of peace and comfort, descend from the huge whole into all sorts of amusing details. There is no bewilderment, no trouble in the sensation; after seeing the whole you see the parts. All over the walls and on the columns are the remains of old frescoes, painted sometimes one above the other, like manuscripts written over manuscripts. They are like thin veils of the parts; they look more like painted placards than like parts of a regular ornamentation.

It is quite clear that the representation of the human form was thought too pagan in the early days of Christianity. It was only by degrees that the art of painting took an increasing importance in the churches; the first essays allowed were the traditional scenes from Genesis and the Old Testament generally, the figures of some apostles, the heads of saints, winged and withered bodies. Naturalism re-entered into art only in the fifteenth century. San Zenone is the type of the severe Christianity of the tenth century; it marks a curious contact between the German spirit, or rather the spirit of the barbarian, and the old Latin spirit. It is well placed at Verona, not far from the Alps, not too far from the Apennines. There are three more churches in Verona built on similar plans—the Cathedral, Santo Fermo Maggiore, and Santa Anastasia—but I have devoted myself only to the model church. I think it advisable always to mark in a place like Verona the nucleus of the artistic nebula: San Zenone for one age and the tombs of the Scaligeri for another are, so to speak, natural centres of reflection and admiration. To such places the mind can attach all its sensations; they might be called the nails of memory.

Correspondence.

A BULL AT LARGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article on "The Ohio Defeat," in this week's *Nation*, I find the following paragraph concerning Secretary Sherman:

"Towards the end of August he (Mr. Sherman) went to Ohio and made a speech in the canvass, which treated most things well, but upon the silver question, which was ravaging the politics of the West, he said not a syllable. Most thinking men will agree with us in saying that it is fortunate that this mode of dealing with grave political problems should not succeed, and that any party or man who resorts to it should be defeated or disappointed. In short, political morality requires that every public man who refuses to take a dangerous bull by the horns should be pursued by him and well gored."

Without any discussion as to whether Mr. Sherman did or did not deserve to be gored, in common with a great many readers of the *Nation* I am exceedingly anxious to know what you propose to do with the "bull"? Are you gratified at the prospect of seeing an original "repudiationist" like Mr. Pendleton occupying Mr. Sherman's former seat in the Senate? How should you like to see Gen. Ewing succeed Mr. Sherman as Secretary of the Treasury, after March 4, 1881? You seem to be pleased with the result of an election that promises to bring both these statesmen into greater political prominence. M.

Baltimore, October 18.

[Mr. Pendleton is, on the questions now pending, no worse or more dangerous "bull" than Mr. Stanley Matthews, the present and would-be future Republican Senator; in fact, he is less dangerous, because less able. We should *not* like to see General Ewing succeed Mr. Sherman as Secretary of the Treasury, after March 4, 1881, but we think the goring Mr. Sherman has just received is one of the best means of preventing so undesirable a consummation. In fact, if the Republican party were to begin to carry States on such platforms and with such candidates as those Ohio has just produced, it would make little difference who was in the Treasury in 1881. General Ewing would be just as good as anybody on either side who would be likely to get the place. To the much-loved argument, "The Democrats are just as bad," or "Are the Democrats any better?" *Corruptio optimi pessima* is a full and fatal answer.—Ed. Nation.]

DOCTOR WHITNEY AND JUDGE GRANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: By a series of absurd charges James Grant has compelled me to again trespass upon your space. First, he accuses me of a breach of confidence. I did not ask Mr. Grant as to the mere existence of a bar association; I asked for special information regarding such an one. The information which his letter contains was wholly gratuitous, and does not touch the point on which confidence was requested. To consider such a reply as confidential is preposterous. Second, the intimacy of Mr. Grant with Judge Dillon I knew by general repute. Third, I did not mention Dillon in my letter of February 22, 1867, because it was a preliminary enquiry; had I filed allegations his name would have appeared. Fourth, I

did not publish Putnam & Rogers's letter of March 13, 1867, from lack of space only; it neither added to nor detracted from their first letter. In both letters they speak of the discontinuance of meetings. In the first they state that one of their firm is of the board of censors, and that I can present charges through them; in the second, they renew this offer. Had the association been dead, they would have said so distinctly. Fifth, Mr. Grant denies all knowledge or remembrance of me, and says he was in Washington at the time of the correspondence in 1867. Was he also absent at the time of a correspondence in 1866?

JAMES O. WHITNEY.

PAWTUCKET, R. I., October 17, 1877.

[This closes the controversy, so far as we are concerned.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO. send us a new and revised edition of Mr. George P. Marsh's 'The Earth as Modified by Human Action.' This work has a perennial interest for the author as well as the public, and in this respect it takes honorable rank with Mr. J. R. Bartlett's 'Americanisms' and Mr. John Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations.' Mr. Marsh has gathered into an appendix the corrections and fresh information necessary to keep his treatise abreast of the times. Among other topics therein referred to is Prof. J. D. Whitney's view of the cause of the treelessness of prairies. Mr. Marsh seeks to counteract the effect of Prof. Whitney's discouraging remarks on the possibility of tree-culture where nature has not succeeded.——D. Appleton & Co. have republished in this country Maudsley's 'Physiology of Mind' and Allen's 'Physiological Æsthetics,' already reviewed, from the English editions, in Nos. 624, 638 of the *Nation*. They also issue in a single volume Huxley's 'American Addresses,' consisting of his three lectures on Evolution in this city, his address at the opening of the Johns-Hopkins University, and a lecture at the South Kensington Museum last December on the Study of Biology.——Estes & Lauriat have brought out in book-form, under the title of 'Our Common Insects,' several papers contributed to the *American Naturalist* by its editor, Dr. A. S. Packard, jr. They are partly scientific and partly popular in intent and manner of expression, and are freely illustrated.——Hurd & Houghton's reissue of Little & Brown's standard edition of the British Poets is continued (under the style of the Riverside Edition), by the publication together of Coleridge and Keats in two volumes, at a very moderate price. The prefatory Life of Keats records Mr. Lowell's judgment of the poet. The same house has at length produced the second part of Isaac Sprague's 'Illustrations of the Wild Flowers of America.' The interval has been turned to good account by the lithographers, who, in the four new plates, seem to have brought the art of color-printing for flowers well nigh to perfection. At least, no ordinary hand-coloring can match that of the plate of the Blue Flag or of the Columnar Cone-flower of the present fascicle. Probably this style of work is still costly; but if the publishers could see their way to reduce the price one-half, they might quadruple the sale at once and supply a real demand.——'Hawthorne, and Other Poems,' will be the title of a collection of Mr. E. C. Stedman's poems written since 1873, to be published by J. R. Osgood & Co.——Mr. William Everett is engaged on a life of his father, the late Edward Everett, and desires the loan of letters and manuscripts and communications of any character likely to assist him in his work. His address is Holmes Place, Cambridge, Mass.——The *New Englander* will next year be issued bi-monthly instead of quarterly, after the fashion set by the *International* and *North American* Reviews. Special attention will be given to the "materialistic Atheism" which, "under the name of 'science,' . . . calls for fresh vindications of the Christian Faith against old foes with new faces."——Bulletin No. 43 of the Boston Public Library contains bibliographical references on the Early History of Virginia, the Popham Colony, and the History of Mental Philosophy (Part iv.), and continues its check-list for American local history as far as Litchfield, Conn.——We regret to announce the death of Mr. John G. Anthony, for many years a devoted coadjutor of Agassiz's in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Cambridge, where he had charge of the conchological department. Long residence and extensive travel in the Ohio Valley had made him our first authority on fresh-water shells. He accompanied the Thayer expedition to Brazil, but sickness prevented him from taking part in it after its arrival. In addition to his special work, Mr. Anthony always maintained an interest in botany and horticulture. He was a native of Rhode Island, and was in the seventy-fourth year of his age.——The newest map of the seat of the war in Turkey is one, based chiefly on the Austrian map, by Keith Johnston, in the October number of the *Geographical Magazine*. For the operations around Plevna it will be found very serviceable.——A recent number of the London *Athenæum*, in a review of Hovelacque's work on linguistics, has this sentence: "For all that, philology cannot be classed as a physical science—no more than it is, what Prof. Whitney, in American fashion, calls it, an 'institution.'" Those who have given themselves the trouble to understand Professor Whitney's views know that he has never called philology anything of the kind; the blunder is, in fact, a senseless one. We might enquire whether it is English fashion, or only *Athenæum* fashion, to use such choice language as "cannot no more."

—The fall announcements of English publishers abound neither in wholly new nor very remarkable works. Nevertheless, if we begin our summary with history, we can mention three which are certain to be of first-rate quality: 'Democracy in Europe,' by Sir T. Erskine May, 'The Historical Geography of Europe,' by Edward A. Freeman, and 'The Personal Government of Charles I., 1628–1637,' by S. R. Gardiner. Victor Hugo's 'History of a Crime' of course is promised in English. We may mention also a translation of Max Duncker's 'History of Antiquity'; 'New Ireland,' by A. M. Sullivan, M.P., with a 'History of Belfast,' by G. Benn; and 'London in the Jacobite Times,' by Dr. John Doran. The chief books of travel seem to be 'Upper Egypt, its People and its Products,' by C. B. Klunzinger, M.D.; 'Travels in the Footsteps of Bruce,' by Lieut.-Col. R. Playfair; 'On Horseback through Asia Minor,' by Capt. F. Burnaby, who must have been ennuyed by the absence of obstacles to his roaming; 'Dr. Beke's Discoveries of Sinai,' by Mrs. Beke; 'Khiva,' by Lieut. Hugo Stumm; 'Burmah, Past and Present,' by Major-Gen. Albert Fytche; 'Fifteen Thousand Miles on the Amazon and its Tributaries,' by C. B. Brown and W. Lidstone; 'The Land of Bolivar,' by J. M. Spence; 'A Summer Holiday in Scandinavia,' by E. L. L. Arnold; 'Under the Balkans,' by R. Jasper More; 'Among the Spanish People,' by the Rev. Hugh James Rose; and 'Through Holland,' by Charles W. Wood. Many, if not most, of the foregoing are illustrated; some very profusely. The *Challenger* expedition gives us 'The Atlantic,' a preliminary account of general results, by Sir C. W. Thompson; 'The Physical Geography of the Sea,' by Dr. W. B. Carpenter; 'Thalassa, or the Depth, Temperature, and Currents of the Ocean,' by J. J. Wild; and even a '*Challenger* Album,' by the same author. Arctic exploration, on the other hand, produces 'Shores of the North Polar Sea,' by Dr. E. L. Moss; and 'The Barents Relics,' by Charles L. W. Gardner.

—In the list of biographies the 'Life of Sir Robert Walpole,' by A. C. Ewald, should find eager readers among those accustomed to defend our civil service by pointing to Walpole's for a worse. 'The Life of Pius IX.,' by T. Adolphus Trollope, may also count on a certain number of American readers, as will certainly the 'Life and Aims of Thoreau,' by H. A. Page, De Quincey's biographer. Prof. Villari's 'Machiavelli and his Times'; James Sime's (and also Helen Zimmern's) 'Life and Writings of Lessing'; King Oscar II.'s 'Memoirs of Charles XII.'; the 'Correspondence between Goethe and Schiller, 1794–1805'; Balzac's Correspondence; and the 'Memoirs of Mme. de Staal (Mlle. de Launay),' will likewise merit attention. Science musters Haeckel's 'History of the Evolution of Man'; and Viollet-le-Duc's 'Mont Blanc,' its constitution, transformations, and glaciers. A link between science and art is 'Anatomy for Artists,' by John Marshall; and in the latter domain we note also 'The History of Ceramic Art in Great Britain,' by L. Jewitt; 'The Geometry and Optics of Ancient Architecture,' Egyptian, Greek, and Roman, by John Pennethorne; Viollet-le-Duc's 'Lectures on Architecture'; and 'The History of Furniture,' by A. Jacquemont, translated and edited by Mrs. Bury Palliser. Under the head of languages, noteworthy seem a translation of Robinson Crusoe into Persian in Roman characters; a new (Ollendorffian) method for writing and speaking Russian, by Prof. Henry Riola (Trübner), with a Russian-English Dictionary, by J. Curtin (same publishers); and 'German Poetry for Repetition,' edited by C. A. Buchheim. With Lady Catherine Charlotte Jackson's 'Literary Salons of Paris in the 18th Century,' 'Spenser for Children,' by M. H. Towry, and 'Hungarian Poems and Fables for English Readers' we close our excerpts.

—The beginning of our popular magazine literature dates back—according to Mr. E. L. Burlingame's article on "Dead Magazines," in

Appleton's Journal for November—to the year 1752, when the *Independent Reflector* was begun in this city by Governor Livingston and the elder Aaron Burr. For the next seventy years there was a "running fire" of magazines, all of which have dropped out of existence, the names of very few being recognizable by modern readers. Some of these had a comparatively long lease of life. The *Monthly Anthology*, with which the familiar names of Tudor, Buckminster, John Quincy Adams, and Ticknor were associated as managers and writers, survived eight years, leaving the same number of solid volumes, the contents of which Mr. Burlingame ungraciously affirms must have been originally valuable chiefly as a soporific. Its home was in Boston. The *Museum of Foreign Literature* and the *Casket*, both published in Philadelphia, lasted for seventeen years, "yet hardly held one contribution that makes it worth a modern reader's while to search their pages." Very different in character was Dennie's *Port Folio* of this city, which ran for nearly twenty-five years, and is, we are told, a perfect treasury of good things. None of these, or any of the shorter-lived magazines, whose name was legion, resembled their modern successors in literary style. All of them were stilted and decorous, and filled with imitations of Addison and Steele. The connecting link between the old magazines and the new race, whose contributors are supposed to write "according to their own unregenerate instincts—naturally and in the spirit of their time," was perhaps the *New York Mirror*, started as a weekly in 1823. For several years, under George P. Morris, it closely imitated its old-school predecessors, changing its character in 1830, when it was edited by Morris, Theodore Sedgwick Fay, and N. P. Willis. Willis was, "in a sense, the true forerunner of the professional magazine writer of the present. Condemn as we may his superficiality and the tawdriness of his brilliancy; despise as we may his unscrupulousness in the use of his materials; and pronounce him, as we must, unworthy of any real dignity among honest literary reputations, it is still true that he caught in perfection what may be called the modern magazine idea." His papers were "precursors of the kind of magazine papers that were brought to their perfection years later by really great hands." The first of the later type of American magazines, the *Knickerbocker*, was begun in 1833 by Charles Fenno Hoffman, passing soon, however, into the hands of Lewis Gaylord Clark, who, for twenty-five years, wrote its "Editor's Table" and "Gossip." The *Southern Literary Messenger*, with which the name of Poe was intimately associated, *Graham's Magazine*, and *Putnam's Monthly*, are the principal subjects of the concluding portion of Mr. Burlingame's interesting and very readable article. We cannot, however, agree with him in thinking that a history of American magazine literature "would be a rarely interesting book." There are grains of wheat enough for a good magazine article—perhaps even for several of them—but in a book the chaff, we fear, would become insufferable.

—To the end of an article on "Civil-service Reform" in the November *Galaxy* the editor of the magazine appends a note, stating that the writer, Mr. John I. Platt, "should not be confounded with the gentleman of the same family name who presided over a political convention recently held at Rochester, New York." The note is timely, for if the gentleman referred to, Conkling's Platt, should undertake to write an article on civil-service reform it would certainly be the twin of his *Galaxy* namesake's. The fact that the editor's note was thought necessary reveals, almost without reading, the character of the article. The reform advocated is the "reform" of the platform of the New York Republican Convention. The civil service, as it now exists, may not be "the best civil service on this planet," "but for all that it is a very good service," and any proposed reform should not be a reform of methods. The civil service is made up of men; it is not a machine. These men "should be in harmony with and subject to the dominant party," because "parties represent principles." "The same reason that applies to the selection of Cabinet officers applies in a lesser degree to subordinates all the way down." "The offices are . . . a sacred trust to be administered in obedience to the will of the people, and therefore only to be confided to those who are in accord with that will," etc. One might suppose that the writer knew nothing of wire-pulling and log-rolling, and had never heard of convention-packing, or that many of the "sacred trusts" are administered by the "workers" of the Congressmen who appoint them, and whom they repay by work "in kind," or that at least nine-tenths of the sixty-two thousand office-holders have work to perform of a kind with which political principles have nothing whatever to do. The first step which he proposes toward reforming the civil service is "to let it alone," to allow its few defects gradually to slough off, etc., the precise method which would meet the approval of all the "ins" and all the "workers" and all the "statesmen" of the Conkling and Platt families. "The ideal service," says the writer, "will not contemplate the official as a machine, but as a man." If many more articles of this character are admitted to the *Galaxy*, we shall begin to believe that its editors contemplate writers as "men" entitled by natural right to equal welcome, however puerile their productions.

—A statue of Roger Williams was dedicated last week in Providence by the city, which erected it. The orator of the occasion was Professor J. L. Diman, and his discourse was in every way worthy of the subject. It is pleasant to find the last word on a problematic character, and his much-disputed career before his expulsion from Massachusetts Bay, in accord on the Rhode Island side of the line with the last word (Dr. Henry M. Dexter's) spoken on the other. The causes which led to Roger Williams's expulsion were independent of his views, subsequently incorporated in his new commonwealth, concerning the separation of church and state—or, as is less accurately but more commonly said, concerning religious toleration. All this was conceded by Professor Diman, and the shade of Cotton Mather himself might have listened complacently to this portion of the address. On the other hand, we should suppose that no apologist of the Puritans would now be disposed to deny Williams the full measure of eulogy here bestowed on him as the first statesman who established a form of government "which drew a clear and unmistakable line between the temporal and the spiritual power." Professor Diman contrasts his protection of religious differences with the much-vaunted toleration of Calvert in Maryland, as two things not to be confounded; and he also ranks the Providence covenant above the *Mayflower* compact. The political maxim of government for the general good imbedded in the latter "was implied rather than consciously affirmed, while the principle to which Roger Williams and his associates set their hands was intentionally and deliberately adopted as the corner-stone of the new structure they were building." What follows is of course true: Williams "cleared the path which even Massachusetts has been content to tread. The principle which he laid down is now the accepted and fundamental maxim of American politics." But here the interesting enquiry is suggested whether the Puritan or the Providence principle had actually most to do with the separation of church and state in our national government. Professor Diman does not allude to this, and even leaves it a natural inference that but for Roger Williams this separation might not have taken place. Whoever has looked into the history of disestablishment in Massachusetts knows that it was brought about by development from within; and not only by the amelioration of the laws consequent upon the break-down of the theocratic idea of government, as by the "Religious Freedom Act" of 1811, but by the strict application of them, as in the Unitarian dispossession of the Orthodox churches begun in 1820. Chief-Justice Parker, in the Dedham case of that year, "insisted that he merely applied principles that had before been laid down—old principles that had been slumbering in the ecclesiastical law and policy of Massachusetts since 1780, and long before."

—From the press of Norstedt & Sons, in Stockholm, Sweden, has recently been issued a new translation of the Elder Edda. The translator is August Godecke, and he has produced not only the best Swedish version, but without doubt the most successful translation hitherto made of that celebrated collection of Old-Norse poems. This is the second Swedish translation, the first being that of A. A. Afzelius, published in 1818. In Danish we have five translations of the Elder Edda, two old ones, that of Sandvig (Copenhagen, 1783–85) and that of Finn Magnusen (Copenhagen, 1821–23), and three modern ones—viz., one by V. B. Hjort (1863), one by Fred. Winkel-Horn (1869), and one by H. G. Moller (1870). Of these, Finn Magnusen's and Sandvig's are not only out of print, but also completely antiquated; Hjort's is so flimsy, and in all respects so unlike the original, that it scarcely deserves to be mentioned. In Winkel-Horn's translation the metre is entirely different from the Old-Norse *Fornyrdalag*, and though it must be admitted that the translator in this manner has succeeded to a considerable extent in making the lays of the Elder Edda appear to us like poetry, or, as he states in his preface, "in producing an æsthetical work," still it cannot be denied that by departing from the form of the original he has sacrificed considerable of its spirit and substance. H. G. Moller has kept close to the original in form and general character, but his translation is wanting in strength and spirit. As a whole, it is heavy, stiff, and unnatural. While there is no translation of the Elder Edda in Norway, where these lays received their present form, only two in Sweden, and five in Denmark, it is a remarkable fact that Germany has produced no less than ten translations, and some of these (for instance, Simrock's) have appeared in several editions. The first German translation was that of F. H. von der Hagen, and ap-

peared in Breslau in 1814; the last is that of B. Wenzel (Leipzig, 1877). To those who can read German we would especially recommend Karl Simrock's and Adolf Holzmann's translations. In English, the Elder Edda has been published twice; the first time by A. S. Cottle (Bristol, 1797), and the second time by Benjamin Thorpe (London, 1866). The former is worthless, while the second is rather a *transposing* than a translation. To all who can read Swedish we heartily recommend the contribution of Godecke. His work is so well done that it is difficult to conceive how those old lays could be more adequately rendered in a modern tongue. Godecke has, of course, made use of the excellent critical text-editions that have appeared during the last few years, especially those of Rugge (Christiania, 1867), of Sven Grundtvig (Copenhagen, 1874), and of Karl Hildebrand (Paderborn, 1876), and he has kept remarkably close to the original, while he has rendered every line perspicuous, vivid, and full of the characteristic ring and force of the Old Norse. Like Simrock's, this translation is carefully annotated, is furnished with a good index, etc., making in every way a satisfactory volume even to those who are not initiated into the mysteries of Edda-lore.

POETRY AND SCIENCE.*

TO explore the function of Poetry as the ally of Philosophy and Theology in answering those problems of the visible universe which Science forbears to consider—such was the object of the lectures which Principal Shairp has here knit together into a book. Just what shape the investigation should take, we presume he settled without debate or misgiving. Having, with her free consent, shut Science out of the field upon which he was entering, he felt entirely absolved from employing the scientific method of enquiry. Instead of illustrating from the poetry of all ages the increasing sensibility of man's soul to supernatural impressions from the outer world, and a progressive tendency to interpret these impressions in a certain way, our author preferred the theological method of assuming his premises. "Nature," he declares (p. 35), "as mere isolated appearance, without a mind to contemplate and a power to support it, is meaningless." Further on he says, more explicitly (p. 82): "If Nature is to be the symbol of something higher than itself, to convey intimations of Him from whom both Nature and the soul proceed, man must come to the spectacle with the thought of God already in his heart." And again (p. 83): "Neither morality nor religion will he get out of beauty taken by itself. If out of the splendid vision spread before him—the sight of earth, sea, and sky, of the clouds, the gleams, the shadows—man could arrive directly at the knowledge of Him who is behind them, how is it that in early ages whole nations, with these sights continually before them, never reached any moral conception of God? how is it that even in recent times many of the most gifted spirits, who have been most penetrated by that vision and have given it most magnificent expression, have been in revolt against religious faith? It is because they sought in Nature alone that which alone she was never intended to give." And finally (p. 84): "He who takes the opposite road, who, instead of looking to visible Nature for his first teaching, begins with the knowledge of himself, of his need, his guilt, his helplessness, and listens to the voice that tells of a strength not his own, and a redemption not in him but for him—he will learn to look on Nature with other and calmer eyes, and to discern a meaning in it which, taken by itself, it cannot give."

It appears, therefore, at the very outset, that Nature cannot satisfy man's longings and questionings, and that she refers him back—hopefully, to be sure, and with strengthened conviction—to the teachings of Philosophy and Theology. The doubts which these teachings leave in the mind, she dissipates, just as they in turn prevent her from being regarded, "taken alone," as "an inexorable and cruel Sphinx." The services which the poet and the theologian render are thus reciprocal as regards each other, but as regards mankind the poet's relation is purely subordinate. He utters a false note when he derives from the contemplation of Nature a lesson opposed to that doctrinal theology which Principal Shairp asserts to be the very key to Nature's meaning. On the other hand he owes a certain subjection to Science, since Nature can have no message in conflict with "the body of truth which Science has made good." Milton's

> "Built in the eclipse, and rigged with curses dark,"

for example, is in harmony with the pagan form of the poem in which it occurs, but would no longer pass muster as a true report of Nature or of Nature's God. Moreover, Science may be of the greatest utility to the poet by furnishing fresh material for his imagination. The two chapters to which this consideration gives rise—namely, "Will Science Put Out Poetry?" and "How Far Science May Modify Poetry"—are among the best that this volume contains.

That Science cannot modify Theology is tacitly assumed by Principal Shairp. On the same side of the line that inexorably divides the two he places man's "need, guilt, helplessness, redemption," and his origin, his destiny, the existence of a First Cause. This assumption and association are of course common to theologians, who have always sought to make disbelief in dogma synonymous with atheism. They have always resisted heresy in order to "save" the Deity, precisely as French monarchs and reactionists (to borrow an illustration from contemporary politics) have resisted progress in order to "save" France. France has not perished, as Thiers remarks in his late manifesto, but three monarchies have gone under; and in like manner dogma after dogma has been discarded, but God remains. Is there any reason for thinking that this process, by which the domain of Theology has been steadily narrowed, has now come to an end, and that there will be no more trespassing and encroachment? Or can any one appreciate the full bearing of the Development theory, and be blind to the fact that it affects not only man's rank as a created being, but his relation to the moral order and purpose of the universe? Suppose Mr. Darwin's views on the origin of the moral sense in man to prevail: will the poet of a generation taught to respect them approach Nature as her interpreter through the medium of his sense of man's "need, guilt, helplessness, redemption"; and if not, will Nature suddenly have lost her meaning? will natural piety cease to exist?

No, our author will respond; it will still exist, but it will not suffice: it is neither religion nor morality. "It cannot be denied," he says of Wordsworth, to whom he devotes the last and by far the longest chapter in the book, "that in his pure, but perhaps too confident youth, the Naturalistic spirit, so to call it, is stronger in his poetry than the Christian. He expected more from the teaching of Nature, combined with the moral intuitions of his soul, than these in themselves, and unaided, can give. He did not enough see that man needs other supports than these for the trials he has to endure." It is, in fact, only towards the close of his career, when "the moral tendency became predominant," that he appears barely to satisfy the lecturer's idea of a perfect interpreter; while as for his predecessors, neither Milton nor Cowper nor any of the English poets, from Chaucer down, here passed in review, is allowed to have dealt with the outward world in a manner to meet the requirements of the theologian. In all, the Naturalistic spirit predominates over the distinctively Christian; and we are forced to conclude on this showing that the contemplation of Nature is not favorable to orthodoxy, or that orthodoxy is unfavorable to the production of the highest poetry. This, as the result of lectures designed to induce acquaintance with the poets, is certainly discouraging. We cannot help thinking that a more cheerful prospect would have been gained by a final lecture upon Emerson, or by the simple quotation of his "Each and All" and "The Problem"—protests as ample if not as powerful as Wordsworth's "against the views of the world engendered by a mechanical deism"; and in which Nature is so far from being dumb and meaningless to those who fail to bring her a certain creed, that

> "One accent of the Holy Ghost
> The *heedless* world hath never lost."

Some of the postulates which we began by quoting open up lines of thought which would quickly take us beyond our limits. For example, it is conceded by Principal Shairp that "the ethereal blue of the sky on a fine spring day delights every man; and something of the delight is no doubt due to the mere eye, to the adaptation of the object to the visual organ." It would be in accordance with the prevailing scientific views of the day to suppose that the lower animals, through infinite gradations, also derive a pleasure from their natural environment. Association may, and in the case of the higher animals probably does, intensify this pleasure, and help to fix certain scenes or phases of Nature in their minds. That these may recur in their dreams, along with other thoughts, will hardly be contested; and if, as Jean Paul says, "the dream is an involuntary act of poetry," the imagination of the animal may even by day be busied with a genuine, if humble, attempt to take in the voice of Nature. Mr. Darwin is free to admit "that no animal is self-conscious, if by this term it is implied that he reflects on such points as whence he comes or whither he will go, or what is life and death, and so forth. But how can we feel sure that an old dog, with an excellent memory and some power of imagination, as shown by his dreams, never reflects on his past plea-

* 'On Poetic Interpretation of Nature. By J. C. Shairp, LL.D., Principal of the United College of St. Salvator and St. Leonard, St. Andrews.' New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1877.

sures or pains in the chase? And this would be a form of self-consciousness." How, too, can we feel sure that he does not feel the mystery of death, even if he does not speculate upon it? And if Houzeau's notion be correct, that when dogs bay at the moon "their imaginations are disturbed by the vague outlines of the surrounding objects, and conjure up before them fantastic images," then not only, as Mr. Darwin remarks, "their feelings may almost be called superstitious," but may be considered as on a par with the sense of the supernatural which primitive man first acquired from the inexplicable or awful phenomena of Nature, and which may or may not be regarded as the beginning of religion.

In conclusion, we venture to notice how close a scientific interpretation may be given to the familiar lines in Wordsworth's "Ode on Intimations of Immortality," beginning

"Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting,"

if we apply them to the doctrine of heredity, and let the instincts which are born with us, and which as we grow older are more or less overlaid and effaced by the conscious formation of our own characters and the operations of reason, stand for the heaven that "lies about us in our infancy," and fades at last "into the light of common day."

PARKMAN'S FRONTENAC.*

THE scope of Mr. Parkman's new volume is well stated in the preface: "In 'The Old Régime in Canada' I tried to show you from what inherent causes this wilderness empire of the Great Monarch fell at last before a foe, superior indeed in numbers, but lacking all the forces that belong to a system of civil and military centralization. The present volume will show how valiantly, and for a time how successfully, New France battled against a fate which her own organic fault made inevitable." Count Frontenac himself, who died in 1698 in his seventy-eighth year, after being governor for eighteen years, he declares "the most remarkable man who ever represented the Crown of France in the New World," and adds that it was he alone who made possible "the grand scheme of military occupation by which France strove to envelop and hold in check the industrial populations of the English colonies." If the last volume dealt principally with institutions and causes, this volume, largely illustrative of the practical working of these institutions, is chiefly narrative—the first quarrelsome administration of Frontenac, the disastrous ones of De la Barre and Denonville, and then the triumphant return of Frontenac, and his revival of French glory and prestige. The Iroquois, and their relation to the two rival governments of Canada and New York, were the leading objects of concern with all three governors. The tribes of the West were safe enough allies for France so long as they could be kept at enmity with the Iroquois; and the greatest peril that threatened the French ascendency during this period was when, under the influence of the stupid mismanagement and treachery of De la Barre and Denonville, joined with the favorable trading facilities offered by the English, the Western tribes came very near uniting with the Iroquois in an alliance with the English. The return of Frontenac, followed by active and successful enterprises on his part, and infinite tact in the management of the Indians, spoiled all this; and the volume ends with a grand gathering at Montreal (1701) of all Indian nationalities, and a hearty alliance with France. This was under Frontenac's successor, Callières, but it was the work of Frontenac.

There are two things which are especially striking to the reader of this work, which are not in themselves new, but which this narration brings into strong and vivid relief. These are the contrast in character of the French and English systems of colonization, and the nature of Indian warfare as compared with that with which we are familiar at the present day. Indian warfare is horrible enough even now, as the wars and massacres of the last few years have amply illustrated; but it has been divested of all its worst features—it is no longer the warfare of savages, but of communities which have been exposed to civilizing influences. At the period treated in this book its barbarities were at their height, because while the Indians themselves were still almost completely savage they were associated with and directed by persons of a high civilization. The Indians committed the atrocities, but their French allies encouraged them in them, and lent them the aid of their own superior intelligence. The most odious incidents in this volume are when the Jesuit missionary persuaded the Hurons to torture an Iroquois prisoner in order to ensure enmity between the two nations (p. 205), and when Villebon, governor of Acadia, coolly remarks that he gave a prisoner (Indian) "to our savages to be burned, which they did the next day. It would not be possible to add to the torments which they made him suffer" (p. 356).

The rival systems of colonization are depicted with great force—that of France based upon feudalism, that of England upon industry; and industry carried the day, as it has done in the great movement of modern history. The whole narrative, so far as it describes the contact of the French and English colonies, illustrates this contrast, and it is admirably summed up in chap. xviii. ("French and English Rivalry"): "The rival colonies had two different laws of growth. The one increased by slow extension, rooting firmly as it spread; the other shot offshoots, with few or no roots, far out into the wilderness. It was the nature of French colonization to seize upon detached strategic points and hold them by the bayonet, forming no agricultural basis, but attracting the Indians by trade and holding them by conversion. A musket, a rosary, and a pack of beaver-skins may serve to represent it, and in fact it consisted of little else" (p. 395). Here, as in other characteristics, the English were the Romans of the modern world; for the Romans too held with the plough what they had conquered with the sword. A very striking paragraph, following that just cited, brings out another significant cause of the French failure. Whatever else it might be, New France must be Catholic, and Huguenots, driven from their homes, were "denied even a refuge in the wilderness." "Canada must be bound to the papacy, even if it blasted her." "British America was an asylum for the oppressed and the suffering of all creeds and nations, and population poured into her by the force of a natural tendency. France, like England, might have been great in two hemispheres, if she had placed herself in accordance with this tendency, instead of opposing it; but despotism was consistent with itself, and a mighty opportunity was forever lost." On page 325, and the following pages, Mr. Parkman corrects a story which has been handed down by many writers, to the effect that "Frontenac, in order to ridicule the clergy, formed an amateur company of comedians expressly to play 'Tartuffe'"—which was done with gross and insolent discourtesy. This story he shows to have originated in nothing beyond a report that "Tartuffe" was to be played, and a payment of money by the bishop in order to prevent it—the money being immediately contributed by Frontenac to the hospitals. Frontenac, indeed, although a good Catholic, was no friend to the Jesuits, who controlled the ecclesiastical affairs of the province, and with whom he was constantly at loggerheads.

As admirable specimens of Mr. Parkman's style, we will mention his description of Acadia in chap. xvi. (p. 335), and the story of the heroic defence of the Fort of Verchères by Madeleine de Verchères, a girl of fourteen (p. 302). And nothing is more characteristic of Frontenac than the incident related on page 254, of the governor leading the war-dance, "whooping like the rest. His predecessor would have perished rather than play such a part in such company; but the punctilious old courtier was himself half Indian at heart, as much at home in a wigwam as in the halls of princes. Another man would have lost respect in Indian eyes by such a performance. In Frontenac, it roused his audience to enthusiasm."

With the present volume closes the history of New France in the seventeenth century—ending with "King William's War" and the Peace of Ryswick. Yielding to the natural desire to make use of his best materials and most attractive subject, the author announces in his preface that "passing over for the present an intervening period of less decisive importance, I propose to take, as the next subject of this series, 'Montcalm and the Fall of New France.'"

Dernières Pages. Par George Sand. (Paris: Calmann Lévy. 1877.)—Madame Sand's industry was equal to her talent, and the quantity of her work was not less remarkable than the quality. Her diligence did not decline with age; the latter years of her life were indeed even more productive than the earlier ones. She wrote a large number of newspaper articles, and she was not above performing in this line the most modest functions. Obituary notices, short reviews of books, prefaces, fragmentary reminiscences—these things flowed constantly from her pen, and had always a certain value from being signed with her name. This was not their only value, for in every utterance of George Sand, however brief, there is always an appreciable touch of wisdom and grace of style. Every scrap that fell from her pen has now been collected, and these 'Dernières Pages' contain the very last possible gleanings. Most

* 'Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV. By Francis Parkman, author of 'Pioneers of France in the New World,' 'The Jesuits in North America,' 'The Discovery of the Great West,' and 'The Old Régime in Canada.' (Part V. of 'France and England in North America.') Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. 463.

of them are very slight, but the book is worth glancing through, for the author had this characteristic of a great mind, that her touch was never vulgar or vulgarizing, and that every now and then, even when the topic is the slightest, it strikes a charming gleam. Only three of the short articles of which this volume is composed deserve specification—the rest are mere trifles. One of these is of the most rambling character: beginning with an account of a walk in the woods in midwinter, and of some curious botanical observations, it terminates in an interesting and discriminating appreciation of the personal character of Napoleon III., who at the time the article was written was on his death-bed. Madame Sand judges the late Emperor partly from personal impressions; she relates that, at one period, having twice had an interview with him on behalf of an unfortunate person (apparently a political prisoner), she made up her mind that he was deluding her with false pretensions and not keeping faith, and left Paris abruptly, without presenting herself at a third audience. She afterwards received news not that (as in the anecdote of Louis XIV.) the King had almost waited, but that the Emperor had waited altogether. She judges him leniently and liberally, thinks him above all a dreamer, a kind of sinister Don Quixote, and says, very justly, that the French people owes it to its own self-respect not to try to make out that the sovereign to whom they submitted for twenty years was an unmitigated villain. This is what Victor Hugo so loudly proclaims; and in this case, what does Victor Hugo make of complaisant Paris, the most amiable, the most high-toned, the most exemplary city in the world?

In another article Madame Sand gives an entertaining account of her granduncle, the Abbé de Beaumont, who figures in the early pages of 'L'Histoire de ma Vie,' and upon whose portrait, having received some fresh documentary evidence about her ancestor, she desires to bestow a few flattering touches. He was the robust and handsome bastard of a great nobleman of the old régime (the Duc de Bouillon), whose only legitimate child was a helpless and peevish cripple, and the account of his unrequited devotion to his at once more and less fortunate brother is sufficiently affecting. But the most charming thing in these pages is the history of the theatre of marionettes—in plain English, the puppet-show—which has been for many years a brilliant feature of the author's home at Nohant. Madame Sand has written few more delightful pages. There are puppet-shows and puppet-shows; Madame Sand takes the institution very seriously and earnestly pleads the cause of *fantoccini* as a domestic amusement. The account she gives of the gradual elaboration and finally brilliant perfection of the troupe of marionettes of which her son had constituted himself operator is peculiarly interesting, and all that she says about the possible extension of the development of the entertainment is full of a characteristic appreciation, both of artistic and human things. We recommend the perusal of these pages, and we urge their being acted upon. Or must we be French and frivolous to care about ingenious and artistic pastimes? We should almost recommend that the article be translated, and circulated as a tract, for the benefit of domestic circles infected with what Matthew Arnold calls "dreariness."

A Descriptive Catalogue of Playing and Other Cards in the British Museum; accompanied by a concise general history of the subject, and remarks on cards of divination and of a politico-historical character. By William Hughes Willshire, M.D.Edin. (Printed by order of the Trustees. 1876. Pp. vi.-360. The Same. Supplement with illustrations. 1877. Pp. vi.-88.)—This full title fairly indicates the scope of the book before us. Dr. Willshire has given us an abundance of valuable matter in a manner provokingly disjointed. The main part was printed before the supplement was projected; it contained descriptions of the 255 packs, or parts of packs, then in the Museum. The second part describes 42 numbers added to the Museum collection since the printing of the main catalogue, and also supplies twenty-four full-page plates, some of which are colored by hand, and most of which are produced by the process of photogravure of MM. Goupil & Cie.—a process especially suited for work of this kind, as it brings out not only the lines of the design but the quality and tint of the original paper, and differentiates—if we may venture the word—the character of the original engravings. In these plates are figured forty or more of the most interesting specimens of the Museum collection—beginning, of course, with the Carte di Baldini, or so-called Mantegna cards, in regard to which, and their connection with a set of Albert Dürer's designs, reference may be had to Prof. Colvin's recent articles in the *Portfolio*. The subjects of the plates seem hardly as well chosen as those which accompanied M. R. Merlin's quarto volume on the 'Origine des Cartes à Jouer,' published in Paris in 1869. M. Merlin (auspicious name!) was the first to cast a ray of white light on the origin of playing-cards, and Dr. Willshire quotes from him copiously and frequently, and is disposed to accept his conclusions.

The old idea that they were invented by a certain Pierre Gringonneur to amuse the sick King Charles VI. of France, is now exploded. Dr. Willshire does not even take the trouble to lay the ghost again. Cards seem to have appeared suddenly and almost simultaneously in Europe and in Asia. Were they invented in Asia, passing thence at once into Europe, or *vice versa*, or were the inventions in the two continents independent? An absolute answer is impossible, but M. Merlin's investigations make it most probable that the invention in Europe was at least independent. In Europe and America numeral cards are now in universal use, save among the lower classes in a few of the Latin nations, who cling to the *tarots* pack, from which the numeral cards are derived. *Tarots* in turn, if we follow M. Merlin (and we can see no reason for not doing so), had their origin in a modification of the Mantegna or Baldini sequence, of Venetian or Florentine birth. Anterior to these again was a series of designs executed by hand in Italy, possibly, nay, probably, for childish amusement and known as *naïbis*. Whether these owed anything to the East or not it is impossible now to say. M. Merlin thinks not; he sees in the series of *naïbis* a revelation of the Catholic thought and Italian ideas of the epoch, and believes that to seek further is needless. Positive evidence is wanting, and in default of this the chain of evidence breaks at the Italian origin of playing-cards. The collection of cards here catalogued is not as ample as it was to be expected that the British Museum would possess: although there are nearly 300 numbers, many interesting packs are absent. Dr. Willshire records no silver pack, though they are not very rare: M. Merlin had one, of which he gave illustrations in his book; and a fine and full set of fifty-two, engraved at Augsburg toward the end of the seventeenth century and belonging to Mr. M. T. Tueski, was to be seen at South Kensington in 1873. In many of the minor modern cards, fanciful variations of the regulation suits and sets, the Museum collection is deficient. There is, for instance, a pack (E. 206) of the second quarter of the last century, published in London, on each card of which there is a stanza of song with the stave of musical accompaniment; but we do not find in the catalogue the more curious pack of this century, each card of which contains four bars of music, so that by the arrangement and rearrangement of the cards an almost endless variety of waltzes and polkas may be composed. In historical English cards (E. 185 *et seq.*) relating to the Spanish Armada, the Popish plot, the Rye-House plot, James II., Marlborough, the Rump Parliament, etc., the collection is far richer. In the artistically interesting packs which bear upon the early history of wood-engraving, closely connected at its birth with the genesis of playing-cards, the collection of the Museum is fairly full. How close the connection was is still in doubt; although to this day playing-cards are sometimes stencilled and lithographed, it was only the almost contemporaneous invention of printing from the block which made their popularity possible. Dr. Willshire's familiarity with the styles of early engravers has stood him in good stead in deciding more than one vexed question, and his acquaintance with early prints has been made of use in frequent reference to the first pictorial representations of games at cards. The furniture of the book—index, table of contents, etc.—is excellent.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*
Avery (B. P.), Californian Pictures in Prose and Verse	(Hurd & Houghton) $5 00
Baby Ballads	(Lee & Shepard) 1 00
Bryce (Prof. J.), Transcaucasia and Ararat	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
Calvert (G. H.), Charlotte von Stein	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
De Vere (A.), Antar and Zara: Poems	(Henry S. King & Co.)
Dolbear (Prof. A. E.), The Telephone	(Lee & Shepard) 75
Farquharson (Martha), Elsie's Children	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 1 50
Fetherstonehaugh (Hon. Mrs.), Lil: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Fisher (Prof. G. P.), Beginnings of Christianity	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 3 00
Hackländer (F. W.), Forbidden Fruit: a Tale	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 50
Hall (Capt. C. W.), Adrift in the Ice-fields	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Jevons (Prof. W. S.), Principles of Science, 2d ed	(Macmillan & Co.) 4 00
Packard (A. S., jr.), Our Common Insects	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 50
Nystrom (J. W.), Steam Engineering	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
Payson (E.), Doctor Tom: a Tale	(Dresser, McLellan & Co.)
Pennell (H. C.), Pegasus Re-saddled: Poetry	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Poetical Works of Coleridge and Keats, 2 vols	(Hurd & Houghton) 3 50
Robinson (Leora B.), Patsy: a Story for Girls	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Roe (Rev. E. P.), A Knight of the Nineteenth Century	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 1 50
Sand (Mme.), Tower of Percemont	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Seiss (Rev. J. A.), A Miracle in Stone	(Porter & Coates) 1 25
Sturtevant (Prof. J. M.), Economics; or, The Science of Wealth	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Taylor (R. W.), Xenophon's Anabasis of Cyrus, Books III., IV	(Rivingtons)
Thompson (Prof. R. E.), Hard Times and What to Learn from Them, swd	(Edward Stern & Co.) 15
Thornbury (W.), Life of J. M. W. Turner, R.A.	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Van Laun (H.), History of French Literature, Vol. III.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
Walford (L. B.), Pauline: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Warren (Prof. S. E.), Elements of Descriptive Geometry	(John Wiley & Sons) 3 50
Warner (Susan), Diana	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Wheaton (C.), Six Sinners: School Days in Bantam Valley	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Worcester's New Primary Spelling-Book	(Wm. Ware & Co.)

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1, 1877.

The Week.

CIVIL-SERVICE reformers and the public generally were considerably surprised a few days ago at hearing that Mr. Evarts had, out of regard to the claims of the great State of Pennsylvania, requested the Congressional delegation from that State to suggest some one for the English mission. They promptly suggested the name of Mr. Simon Cameron, who was dismissed from Mr. Lincoln's Cabinet for corruption in 1862, and has ever since been, as he had been for many a year before, one of the most mischievous and unprincipled politicians in the country. The delegation say they had a positive promise that their nominee would be accepted, whoever he might be. This, we believe, Mr. Evarts and the President deny; but even if the promise had been made, it could not be kept. To make it was at least an act of folly; to keep it would be little short of a crime, and of course would make the pretensions of the Administration as civil-service reformers hereafter ridiculous. The reasons why this attempt to dicker with the Pennsylvania politicians should never have been made at all, are obvious enough. If the result convinces Mr. Evarts that the strait and narrow way is the best, however, we shall all be gainers by it. This, with other things, including Mr. Devens's letter encouraging office-holders to take part in the canvass, and showing that the order did not prohibit this, are indications, we fear, that the Cabinet is getting a little frightened by the opposition, and thinks, as Mark Twain says, that "war is not what it is cracked up to be." The course of events is, in fact, curiously like that of General Grant's first year. The onslaught of the land-jobbers and Indian-Ring men on Mr. Schurz, for instance, is very like that of the same classes headed by Old "Zach" Chandler on Mr. J. D. Cox. The President is now for the first time called on for a display of his real quality. If he is able to bear a year or two of isolation and rely on public opinion to drive Congressmen two years hence into acquiescence with him, he will win. If he has not the stomach for this ordeal, he will be a more melancholy failure by far than General Grant, for Grant had his military services to fall back on. The growing courage of the politicians is shown in the refusal of Mr. Arthur, doubtless under Conkling's instructions, to resign his place in the Custom-house. We are glad of this. It shows that the battle cannot be fought with soft words or pretending that the misdeeds of the politicians are merely little "omissions," which, if they do not object, it may be well for their fellow-citizens to supply.

There is a good deal of talk in the papers which are applauding the President but doubting whether he can succeed even if he tries, of the absolute necessity to him of "popular support" in his work of reform, and they tell us that unless the people come to his assistance he is sure to be beaten. We have no doubt whatever that the great body of the voters of the Republican party, certainly, heartily approve of the President's course as traced out in his letter of acceptance with regard to civil-service reform; but it seems sometimes to be forgotten that for the people to support him he must be doing something which they see and clearly comprehend. They cannot support him unless they know what he is about, and the thing he is about must be plain and distinct and simple. They will support him, for instance, in any definite and consistent policy, but they cannot support civil-service reform in which there is a considerable mixture of the old civil-service abuses. They will support him, too, in an open fight with Congress on this point, but the fight must be open and persistent. They cannot support him in hostilities which are chequered with private dickering and compromise, and of which they never know the real bearing. He must, in short, himself lead the way, and make known his aims and motives as he goes along. "The people" cannot go on to Washington and "interview" him and the members of the Cabinet to know what is the meaning of this and that strange occurrence. They must have the issue on which they are to make a stand presented to them in their homes in black and white.

Mr. Randall's appointment of the House committees will at last, it is to be hoped, enable Congress to take up and speedily dispose of the work of the extra session, but this grows daily less probable. If we are to judge of the necessity of legislation by the number of bills and resolutions introduced into the House on Monday alone—850 in round numbers—there is plenty of work to be done. The greater number of these were, of course, private bills, of which Congress might well be rid altogether. Among those of national interest were bills referring to remonetization, the repeal of the Resumption Act, Mississippi levees, the Tenure-of-Office Act, the Geneva award, the Bankrupt Act, the tariff, Indian affairs, Presidential elections, the Paris Exhibition of 1878, etc. Mr. Randall appears to have made up his committees with a great deal of shrewdness. It is, of course, a dishonor to the country to accept Fernando Wood as chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, and, consequently, leader of the House, and it is not evident that the composition of this committee is such as to make it distasteful to Mr. Randall's protectionist constituents. The Committee on Banking and Currency will apparently favor all the popular wild-cat schemes of finance; that on Appropriations will be rigidly economical; the Indian Affairs Committee is expected to advise a transfer of the Indian Bureau to the War Department; the Committee on Pacific Railroads is about equally divided between subsidizers and those opposed to the extension of Government aid, but the chairman, Mr. Clarkson N. Potter, is understood to oppose the Texas & Pacific subsidy. The Senate has done almost nothing except to confirm a few of the President's nominations and to receive a large additional number. Mr. John Welsh of Philadelphia was nominated for Minister to England, and is, of course, an unexceptionable choice. Mr. E. W. Stoughton was nominated for the Russian mission, and is also unexceptionable in point of fitness. Messrs. Theodore Roosevelt, Edwin A. Merritt, and L. B. Prince were nominated in the places of Arthur, Sharpe, and Cornell at the New York Custom-house. Mr. Roosevelt has every possible qualification for the Collectorship—wealth above the temptations of any office, character, great business experience—and it cannot be that the merchants of New York would lightly brook his rejection by the Senate. Messrs. Merritt and Prince, being active politicians, are in little danger of rejection.

The conclusions reached by the majority of the Silver Com mission appointed by the last Congress have been given to the public, after a long period of profitless dispute among themselves. The views of the minority (Messrs. Boutwell, Gibson, and Bowen), adverse to the remonetization of silver on any basis, were published several months ago. Of the majority, three members are in favor of remonetization on the French basis of 15½ to 1, while two members adhere to the "dollar of the fathers" and the basis of 16 to 1. It appears, therefore, that no agreement of any practical importance has been reached by a majority of the Commission, and none, we presume, of any utility has been expected, there being but one man in the whole number appointed who had any reputation for scientific training and attainments applicable to the subject-matter of the enquiry, and he not a member of Congress. The majority, although unable to agree as to the basis, are united in the opinion that the chief cause of the decline in silver since 1870 has been the demonetizing acts of Germany, the United States, and the Scandinavian countries; that the commercial crisis which afflicts America and the greater part of Europe is due to silver demonetization; that the crisis will be-

come chronic, and the business paralysis perpetual, if gold is relied upon exclusively as the standard of value; that specie resumption is not practicable unless silver is first remonetized, and may not be even then; that remonetization of silver here will probably deter France from wholly demonetizing it, but even if it should not have that effect, and if other countries should go on demonetizing, "the result for us will be an advantageous exchange of commodities which we can spare for money which we need"; and, finally, that silver remonetization would introduce a period of prosperity among us, greater in the exact proportion that other nations demonetized that metal and poured it into the United States in exchange for wheat, cotton, gold, petroleum, and whatever we have to sell.

It is humiliating that such an exhibition of rawness should be sent forth to the world as the centennial product of our political training, and it is painful to think that the business interests of a great people are exposed to the danger of having such nonsense enacted into law. As part of the movement for a speculation in gold now rife in Wall Street it is intelligible enough, but to proclaim soberly that demonetization of silver by the United States at a time when we had no silver to demonetize was one of the causes of the decline of that metal; that the commercial crisis in countries having no metallic standard whatever is due to silver demonetization somewhere else; that any advantage is to be gained from selling good breadstuffs and provisions to Europe for a bad kind of money which Europe will not take back from us except at an unknown and varying rate of discount—all this is most distressing folly. Since Congress adjourned last spring gold has fallen within 2½ per cent. of par. This country enjoys facilities at the present time for obtaining as much of that metal as she needs for resuming and maintaining specie payments in the due and ordinary course of trade. Sterling exchange continues below par, and gold continues to flow hither in obedience to commercial laws. Nobody makes any exertion to bring it—the Bank of England makes considerable exertions to retain it—but it comes nevertheless. In the midst of circumstances so favorable to resumption Congress comes together, and the gold premium suddenly rises to 3 per cent., while sterling exchange continues to fall—a phenomenon which would be impossible but for apprehensions of mischievous legislation, seized upon as they have been by speculators, who know that silver remonetization will advance the gold premium to the figure representing the excess of value which an ounce of the one metal possesses over sixteen ounces of the other. It would seem as though Providence, which so seldom interferes to save peoples from the effects of their own economic blunders, had set in motion so powerful a train of circumstances to restore a sound currency to the United States that naught but the utmost exertions of their rulers could frustrate and overcome it. In the common endeavor to thwart the designs of a propitious fate Senator Jones and his followers of the Silver Commission have achieved thus far the highest distinction.

General Walker, the Conservative candidate for Lieutenant-Governor of Virginia, has been so outspoken in his stump-speeches against repudiation of any kind—especially in the favorite form of readjustment—that the repudiators have started Colonel Robert A. Richardson as an independent candidate to run against him. The effect of this has been to reduce all the issues of the canvass to the single question of the payment of the State debt, and the discussions in the press and on the stump have been so full and clear that if Virginia should now vote in favor of repudiation none of the men of the country districts would be able to offer the excuse, set up recently in a similar affair for the Minnesota farmers, that they did not understand the case. General Walker in one of his speeches states that the Virginia State Agricultural Society, wishing to improve its grounds, attempted recently to borrow $40,000 from Gilliat & Co., a firm of London bankers, offering securities valued at $1,000,000, but the firm declined the offer with the statement that they could lend no money in Virginia "as long as the clamor about getting rid of her obligations was continued and the State was failing to meet her just debts" A few occurrences of this kind will open the eyes of Virginian agriculturists better than any amount of stump-speaking. Taxes in Virginia are unusually low, and the refusal to increase them, if necessary, for the payment of indisputably just debts would be an instance of the baldest and most inexcusable dishonesty.

The week has been uneventful in the financial markets. As a result of the growing belief that the Resumption Act will not be repealed, and that the silver dollar will not be remonetized, or, if it is, that the legal-tender quality will be limited so as not to affect the public debt, the price of gold fell to 102⅝, or within ¼ of the lowest price yet made. Exchange on London has tended downwards, on account of easier money there, due to the increase of gold in the Bank of England. Here money also has been a trifle easier for borrowers, currency shipments to the West having been checked, and those to the South having been in part neutralized by receipts from neighboring cities. The mercantile demand for money has also been less than was expected. General domestic trade has relapsed into dulness, and the foreign trade has also fallen off, in respect of imports, from the improvement shown during the early part of the year. The export trade continues active, and in volume larger than in late years. At the Stock Exchange the speculation in stocks has been tame. The gold value of the promise of the United States to pay one dollar (a U. S. legal-tender note) at the close of the week was $0.9744. The bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar would, at the close of the week, have had a gold value of $0.9175.

Front attacks on Plevna have not been renewed since the sanguinary repulse of the Rumanians on October 19, and the Russians have begun operations looking toward the isolation of Osman Pasha's army by the occupation of positions in his rear, west of the Vid. A portion of the Imperial Guard having crossed that river north of Plevna, and Gourko's cavalry having done the same south of it, both forces united in an attack, October 24, on Ahmed Hifzi Pasha's fortified position between Gorni Dubnik and Telish, about fifteen miles W.S.W. of Plevna. Simultaneously, it appears, lively demonstrations were made in front of the latter town, in order to prevent Osman Pasha from detaching troops for the rescue of Hifzi. This pasha, though poorly supplied with artillery, for ten hours stubbornly defended his position, but was finally overwhelmed and captured with several battalions and four guns, after inflicting on his assailants a loss of two thousand and five hundred men, as they officially report. His own loss in killed and wounded is variously stated. General Gourko then fortified his position on the Sophia road, and, on the 28th, Telish, defended by a small garrison, was surrounded by two brigades of infantry and two of cavalry, and captured after a terrific bombardment. The transfer, just reported, of the headquarters of Prince Charles from Poradim to Bogot, seems to indicate the intention of placing the Rumanian army in a position from which it could support the newly-gained posts against both Osman and Shefket Pashas.

Suleiman Pasha reports two repulses of the Tzesarevitch's troops, suffered in attacks on the outworks of Rustchuk, on October 25, and on the Turkish lines on the Kara Lom north of Solenik, apparently on the same day. In the latter affair he states their loss in killed to have been eight hundred. The Russians are silent about both fights, but report the death of Prince Sergius Leuchtenberg, a nephew of the Czar, "in a recent reconnoissance of the Tzesarevitch." The death of that young prince, following so closely on the Emperor's declaration that all the members of his family were going to stay and share the labors of the army, will serve to show the Russian nation that the announcement was not an empty boast. The recently-begun movement, however, seems to have come to a stand-still, owing in great part to a lack of effective means of transportation, which, it is now asserted, makes a winter campaign in those parts impossible. General Zimmermann is reported to be making preparations for again attempting the siege of Silistria, an enterprise in which he failed in summer, after a very feeble effort. Suleiman Pasha, far from discarding the ways of his Occidental predecessor in the chief com-

mand, has made a Pole his chief-of-staff, and a Belgian a commander of cavalry.

The latest military movements in Asia have all been marked by rapidity, but nothing of a decisive character has taken place. Mukhtar Pasha, wisely avoiding shutting himself up in Kars, successively fell back before Loris-Melikoff on Yeniköi, Khorasan, and Köpriköi, at the junction of the roads from Kars and Diadin, where he was joined by Ismail Pasha retreating from Russian Armenia, and has with him retired to Hassan Kaleh, a strong position about twenty-five miles E.N.E. of Erzerum. Loris-Melikoff's troops, closely following, have approached Köpriköi. Tergukassoff, who pursued an unbeaten enemy and had to contend with formidable natural obstacles, can hardly have made a considerable advance; but his troops have occupied Bayazid. Kars is now more or less completely blockaded. An attack on one of its forts is reported to have been repulsed. All the commanders concerned seem this time to have understood the importance of hours in military operations. As no collision between the retreating and pursuing forces, and no capture of abandoned artillery, ammunition, or baggage is reported, the advantage thus far may be said to be on the side of the Turks. A few days must show whether Loris-Melikoff has crossed the Soghanlu Mountains with a force sufficiently strong to dislodge Mukhtar, throw him back upon Erzerum, and attack him there, or whether the Russian line of communication has again become too much extended for safety.

The English interest in the Russo-Turkish war and the Indian famine seems to have been nearly overshadowed by the interest in the "Penge case," in which four persons, two men and two women, have been convicted of murdering the wife of one of the men by neglect—that is, she being weakminded and an invalid, by withholding from her sufficient food and proper care. The principal witness of the progress of the neglect is a servant-girl of sixteen, who is said to have the imaginativeness and frivolity of that age, and the condition of the deceased after death seemed to corroborate her story. The presumed motive was the desire of the husband to get rid of a disagreeable burden and be able to marry his mistress. The women were recommended to mercy, but the execution of the men was ordered, when there was a great popular "uprising," and the case was actually retried in the newspapers, with the result of obtaining a pardon for one of the women and commutation of sentence to imprisonment for life for the rest. The strong point of the newspaper correspondents was that it was impossible to tell, in many cases, where to draw the line between preventable and unpreventable emaciation, and dozens of cases were cited of mysterious wasting away in spite of every attention. It is more, however, as an illustration of the growing tendency of the public to trial by newspaper than of the mysteries of medical jurisprudence that the case is remarkable. On reading the articles and letters about it, one wonders, as one has so often wondered in this country in recent instances, what is the use of keeping courts up when you can get the work of judge, jury, and Court of Appeals done by the press?

The most prominent and enduring topic of interest in England has been the labor question. Strikes still continue in the great trades, and, the masters maintain, with the effect of gradually ruining or crippling British industry. The great strike in the cotton trade at Bolton, which has lasted six or seven weeks, has, we believe, come to an end, after keeping 12,000 persons idle, causing terrible suffering and the loss of nearly half a million dollars, and great discouragement among manufacturers. There has been another long strike among the masons in London, which the masters attempted to meet, to some extent, by the importation of masons from this country, but they have had in most cases to concede the demands of the men. The iron trade everywhere continues in a most depressed condition, and a great reduction of wages or a "lock-out" is impending. Mr. Crawshay, the owner of the famous iron-works at Cyfartha in Wales, which were closed some time ago after a prosperous existence in the hands of the same family of over one hundred and fifty years' announces, in answer to a letter of enquiry, that they will never be reopened by him, and that he trusts his sons will not attempt it either, but will go out of the business, so disgusted is he with the conduct of the men, and so hopeless about them. Sir Edmund Beckett in the meantime continues his letters in the London *Times* on the effect of trades-union regulations and morality on the national industry and national prospects, and seems to have little difficulty in overthrowing the writers whom the unionists put forward in their defence.

The news from France is, as far as it goes, good. It appears to be all but certain that the Ministers, after thinking it over, will resign about the 7th November—that is, after having had two days of the parliamentary session in which to defend themselves. They showed themselves too small-minded during the canvass for the prosecution of any such desperate enterprise as a *coup d'état* or government without the aid of the Assembly, and reflection has probably destroyed what little courage they had. The bulk of their support, as our Paris correspondent shows elsewhere, came from the Bonapartists, and these were so brazen and audacious during the canvass in the display of their desire for the Empire that they have probably alarmed and disgusted the Orleanists and Legitimists who for the moment enlisted under the Marshal's banner, so that he cannot count on a majority in the Senate in support of any extreme course, and most likely has found out that even the 96 Monarchists who have been returned to the new Assembly will fail him, and that his only sure supporters are the 112 Bonapartists. Under these circumstances he probably concludes, and MM. de Broglie and Fourtou agree with him, that the job of "saving society" from the Radicals had better be given up. If the ministers resign, as now predicted, it will be the most important event in French history since the overthrow of the First Empire, and probably contains more promise of peace and progress than anything that could happen. To have met such tactics as the Ministers have employed, and such designs as they have entertained, openly and boldly at the polls, and defeated them, is a lesson in government such as Frenchmen have never had. The defeat of the Ministers of Charles X., in 1830, by a fight in the streets was hailed by European liberals as a glorious event, but it had in it the seeds of unnumbered woes for France. It bred two insurrections against Louis Philippe, the *coup d'état*, and the Commune, and infused the fighting virus into the blood of the city working classes.

The Pope's increasing weakness, in conjunction with the French crisis, is raising another cloud of considerable size in the European sky. No one now doubts that the MacMahon onslaught on the French Constitution has Ultramontane influence at the bottom, and it has caused a still closer *rapprochement* between the German and Italian Cabinets, and the evidently impending election of a new Pope is causing more or less anxiety. The Italian Government is pursuing a policy of contemptuous indifference to all that happens in the Vatican, so that there is a possibility that the Pope may be dead for twenty-four hours before the world outside knows it, and even that the managing Cardinals may have arranged a conclave and election within that interval, so that the Catholic world will hear of the new Pope and of the death of the old one at the same moment. The principal reason for believing that this will not happen is that it would explode the story which the Ultramontanists carefully adhere to and spread, that the Pope is a close prisoner, and his attendants as well (the priests in Belgium have, indeed, been exhibiting to the peasantry wisps of the straw on which he lies in his dungeon). The principal reason for believing it is that the Ultramontanes really dread the interference of the Italian and, perhaps, Austrian Governments if the election be delayed. It will make a good deal of difference to both Italy and Germany what kind of man the new Pope is, as, with all their success and prosperity, the relations of their Government to the Catholic Church furnish the great difficulty of their politics, and with the increasing strength of Ultramontanism it is likely to grow rather than diminish.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE REPUBLICAN PARTY.

ALL the news from Washington seems to show that the President has reached that critical period in his career as a reformer when he must either succeed once for all or succumb once for all. There is not a single feature in the crisis, however, which can be called unexpected. The civil-service abuse which Mr. Hayes is called on to reform does not consist simply in the fact that offices are filled by incompetent persons, and that the tenure of office is not such as to encourage probity and diligence in the incumbents. It consists also in the graver facts—graver because more difficult to deal with—that the provisions of the Constitution which gave the appointing power to the Executive have been gradually set aside; that this power has been virtually seized, and is firmly held, by the legislature, and not by the legislature either, but by individual legislators; and that the Executive is now relegated to the humble rôle of making out commissions for officers whom Representatives and Senators have selected. The deplorable effects of this perversion on legislation and administration have been much dwelt on and are well known. The evil was fully recognized and described by implication in the fifth resolution of the Cincinnati platform on which President Hayes was elected. It said:

"Under the Constitution, the President and heads of departments are to make nominations for office; the Senate is to advise and consent to appointments, and the House of Representatives is to accuse and prosecute faithless officers. The best interests of the public service demand that these distinctions be respected, that Senators and Representatives who may be judges and accusers should not dictate appointments to office. The invariable rule for appointments should have reference to the honesty, fidelity, and capacity of appointees, giving to the party in power those places where harmony and vigor of administration require its policy to be represented, but permitting all others to be filled by persons selected with sole reference to efficiency of the public service, and the right of citizens to share in the honor of rendering faithful service to their country."

This resolution is a terse and clear statement of the evil and the remedy. It is not an abstract proposition in the science of government. It is a promise of the reform of an actual abuse by a party asking for a fresh lease of power. Now, who are the authors and perpetrators of this abuse? Not the farmers, or doctors, or lawyers, or ministers, or mechanics, or laborers, or any class of the community but members of Congress. The abuse consists of Congressional usurpation of Executive functions, and the opposition to the reform, therefore, comes—in the natural course of things was expected to come, and has hitherto come—from members of Congress. It is *their* pride, or prejudice, or interest it proposes to touch. It was *they* who defeated Grant's attempt to carry it out. Many of them owe their place in public life to the abuse itself; many more enjoy the exercise of the power which it gives them; others who dislike it are afraid to assail it, lest their hostility to it should work their political ruin. This is all so notorious that probably there is not a grown man in the country who did not know when Mr. Hayes was elected that if he attempted to carry out the civil-service plank of the platform he would come in collision at once with the Congressional members of his own party; that they would fight, openly or behind disguises, in defence of their unlawful privileges, and that his success would depend on his having courage enough, and public support enough, to withstand them. The signs of Congressional revolt against him on account of his civil-service order, therefore, are nothing surprising, and ought not, supposing him to have well weighed the task he has undertaken, to be anything alarming. The assemblage of malcontents at Secretary Sherman's the other day was not large, and it contained the very men whom everybody knew without asking would be among the foremost opponents of any change in the present mode of distributing the patronage. If the civil service is not to be reformed until they, and such as they, agree to it, and decide in what manner it shall be done, we shall certainly never see it reformed.

By itself their demonstration would perhaps not be very serious. But, as might be expected, we are witnessing a strong effort on the part of all the opponents of reform, and a considerable portion of the Republican press is joining in it, to produce the impression that the Washington gathering only gave expression to widespread dissatisfaction, of which the Ohio election is another striking indication. Even papers professedly friendly to the Administration try to undermine the President's position, or to shake his own confidence in it by pretending that there is a mysterious body of persons, called "theorists," who are proposing to him all sorts of fantastic schemes, though the nature of these schemes is never described; that there is a practical kind of reform and a visionary kind, and we are given to understand that the former consists in the old plan of "putting none but good men in office," and that the present system has strong elements of adaptability to American human nature, while any resort to rules and regulations would savor of monarchy and aristocracy and fill the community with disgust. All this is insinuated rather than said. The guilty "theorists" are never produced or their ridiculous plans made known; and the "practical men" in the meantime carefully refrain from any suggestions more minute or readier for execution than the Conkling plan, which is of about as much value to the President in the present exigency as the Sermon on the Mount. The object is plainly to demoralize the President and his advisers; to give them the feeling that "they have gone too far," and that the opposition of Congressmen indicates the hostility or indifference of the country.

The brunt of the attack is of course directed against the late order forbidding officers to participate in caucuses or conventions. The President is, we take it, sagacious enough to see that any order prescribing any reform in detail, or calling for anything but a general display of virtue in the Chinese fashion, would have been received in the same way. No "particular measure" will meet the approval of Congressmen and politicians, and if they can break down his resolution on any particular measure, and force him to retract or modify it, it will answer their purpose, because every subsequent attempt at reform would be discredited at the outset by the confessed lack of judgment shown in the first. The arguments used against the order show to what an extent the Jacksonian system has distorted men's conceptions of the nature and object of governmental administration. There is no more impropriety or tyranny in requiring an officeholder to abstain from electioneering—nay, much less—than in requiring a merchant's clerk to do so. Any requirement is proper which is necessary to his efficiency and to the good of the service to which he belongs, and which is no violation of the contract with him. It is not tyranny or impropriety to ask a soldier—citizen though he be—to submit himself to the arbitrary commands of his officer, because he agreed to do so and expected to do so when he enlisted. There is, therefore, absolutely no objection to imposing a restriction on any activity of office-holders to which they agree to submit. If the present incumbents do not like it, they can withdraw, and President Hayes would be perfectly justified—nay, would be highly commendable—in filling their places with men entirely free of the electioneering itch.

It is, of course, for the President to judge what are the practical difficulties in the way of executing the order, and to judge of his own ability to overcome them. There is one thing we can tell him, however, which is, that if his heart fails him before any difficulties which are as yet apparent, he is not the man for the place he fills or the times he lives in. He is contending with an old evil of Anglo-Saxon politics which showed itself in England before the birth of this Republic, and had much to do with causing the revolt of the colonies, and came near ruining English liberty. George III. carried on the kind of government which a set of men among us are trying to erect on the ruins of that which Washington founded—the government of a corrupt executive, supported by a corrupt legislative majority, bribed for the purpose by the privilege of distributing places in the public service among their friends. It was in this way that Lord North's ministry was kept in office for so many weary and ruinous years, and in this system the

tidewaiter and exciseman played just the part he plays in ours. The Marquis of Rockingham, at the downfall of Lord North, refused to undertake the formation of a new ministry unless he could, among other things, bring in bills to deprive contractors of seats in the House of Commons and revenue officers even of "their votes at elections." Indeed our "courtesy of the Senate," or the corrupt custom which has grown up among Senators of abandoning their sworn duty under the Constitution to examine and pass upon *all* nominations submitted to them by the President, and leaving those of each State to be dealt with by *one* Senator as he pleases without enquiry, to suit his own whim or private interest, is worthy of the North majority in the House of Commons or the intriguers at Versailles under Louis XV.

At this writing there seems to be some doubt as to whether Mr. Evarts's request that the Pennsylvania delegation should recommend some one for the English mission was not a joke intended to bring that worthy body of politicians into disrepute. If so, it has proved a great failure, as it has been taken in solemn earnest; but if seriously made, it is to be observed that it also was a direct defiance of the Cincinnati platform, and was an evasion of a constitutional duty of the same character as "the courtesy of the Senate." It is the President's business to find a proper person himself for the English mission. He has no right under any circumstances to impose it on the Congressmen of any State. To impose it on them under present circumstances was a direct violation of the promises of the party platform and of his own letter of acceptance, and as direct and conspicuous an encouragement as he could give to the ideas and practices which stand in the way of a "thorough, radical, and complete reform" of the civil service. In proposing Cameron for the place, the delegation, far from "insulting the Administration," acted in strict accordance with the old party usage. Under that usage he—corrupt, base, unscrupulous, ignorant, and disgraced as he is—was the man who was entitled to it.

Another unfavorable sign of the times is the manner in which the now famous order forbidding the participation of office-holders in the working of caucuses and conventions has been dealt with. This order was the first and most necessary step in the reform. It was needed not simply to deliver the work of nomination from official manipulation, but to break up a bad habit of mind among the Government employees; to bring home to them the fact which they have long forgotten, that politics is no more their business than that of the men of any other calling. It did not go further than was necessary. It did not, in our minds, go far enough. In order to make it a help to permanent reform, reform which will survive Mr. Hayes's Administration, it should have forbidden the participation of office-holders in any canvass or in any election, except by voting, and for the simple and plain and unanswerable reason that, in a free country governed by party, discipline and permanency in the civil service are impossible if the victorious party is liable after an election to find important public offices filled with persons who have been abusing, ridiculing, and perhaps slandering their candidates. We could not, for instance, ask Mr. Tilden, had he been successful, to put up with the presence in important custom-houses, post-offices, or marshalships of men who, for six months before the election, had been accusing him on the stump of fraud, swindling, deceit, and breach of trust. It would be asking too much of human nature; and the civil service, like other things, must be adapted to human nature. In short, a reformed civil service filled with active politicians is a chimera, and we fear most of those who are asking for it know it to be a chimera.

The amount of explanation and commentary the order has since received in order to make it agreeable to the politicians whom Mr. Hayes was elected to resist, ending with an official gloss from the Attorney-General, though it may not have altered its terms, has, by encouraging office-holders to activity in the canvass, of course gone far to deprive it of moral weight. The President's and Secretary Sherman's illustration of its meaning, by pointing to the Secretary's own participation in the Ohio canvass, shows forgetfulness of the important and fundamental distinction made in the Cincinnati platform between the higher officers of the Government, such as the Cabinet ministers, who must of necessity be changed with every administration, and who "represent its policy," and the subordinate officers, whose permanence is called for by every public interest, and who therefore ought to be shut out from any participation in electioneering that tends to make their permanency difficult or undesirable. Mr. Sherman will have to go out when the new President comes in; the collectors and marshals and postmasters ought not to do so, and they ought not to be allowed, therefore, to pursue any course in public which may put them in a false position towards their future superior, or make them objects of suspicion or dislike to him, or make their hearty obedience to him, and support of his administration in the line of their duty, doubtful.

Mr. Hayes has probably found the Ohio election and the interpretations put on it trying to his nerves. We have received with regard to it, from a gentleman in Washington who had peculiar facilities for observation, and was in Ohio during the canvass, a letter, not intended for publication, from which we make the following extract, for it goes to the root of the disaster, his remarks applying, *mutatis mutandis*, to the coming election in Pennsylvania:

"I am greatly struck with your remarks upon the means employed in the preceding canvass, and the utterly unprepared state of the Republican mind for an appreciation of the present state of political facts. The truth is, the leaders fought the battle last year on extinct issues, and endeavored to fight it this year on the fossils of the last. Wherever the people looked—Republicans I mean—they saw that 'utter nothing' which Pollock says lies about hell. The speakers, with rare exceptions, dared not discuss the President's policy or his order to the office-holders, though these presented the only matter that admitted of effective speaking. Matthews utterly bedeviled the platform to start with, and, if I may believe what a number of the delegates to the Convention said to me as to the immediate effects of West's speech on the thoughtful men who heard it, it was more disastrous than was generally supposed. To one who has not thought of the effect of the last canvass—your view—the indications were that the party was breaking up. I found party squabbles in every county; a turning by many to a secret organization which they call the O. A. U.; and the greenback vote, the labor reform, etc., were to me indications in the same direction. I found in the coal and iron regions that the underground workers were generally Democrats, while the iron-workers were Republicans; and many of the former voted the workingmen's ticket, as of course did the latter. It is to be remembered that there had been two fiercely-contested elections preceding the present, which would account for great apathy. And then to the average mind the Republican party was at this disadvantage: This is the twelfth year since the war, and during all the troubles which the country has suffered, that party was continuously in power. It could not, or would not—did not relieve the country of them, and there was, or is, a growing disposition to hold it responsible for them. There certainly should be no reason why the Republican party should disappear. After all, is not the Democratic party composed of elements, not of an exalted character, which give it perpetuity; and, perhaps, the only one, which will occasionally secure power and hold it, till the natural results of its working the Government will induce a temporary organization of the higher and better elements for its overthrow, to disappear, and reappear in new forms, as an exigency may arise? I had thought that the Republican party had the capacity to take and assimilate new ideas and work them out in new policies—could make itself flexible, and progress. It certainly has not well accommodated itself to the present exigencies; and a party which is made up largely of the intelligent, that cannot do this, must fail, while one which embodies the ignorant will easily survive, perhaps."

This is the real truth of the matter. The decay of the Republican party began before the Presidential election. The President, with "the machine" working as it never worked before, with the politicians in possession of everything they now ask for, and with the "bloody shirt" streaming from every flagstaff, and troops in the state-houses at Columbia and New Orleans, was last year only able to carry his own State by 7,000 majority. The decline continues, and it can only be arrested, not by "harmony" about office-jobbery, not

by the zeal of postmasters and gaugers, or tidewaiters, but by great measures of administrative reform, by the possession of ideas, in short, on great public needs, and by the capacity to embody them in legislation. Mr. Hayes evidently comprehended the crisis, and entered on the only course that can possibly save the party from utter defeat in 1880. If he is too faint-hearted to follow it, and the Congressional members of the party are too stupid and selfish to support him, the end is certain, and will be well merited.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE TURCO-RUSSIAN STRUGGLE.

IT is just possible, but not probable, that the Russians may accomplish something decisive before the close of the fine weather, which, in Bulgaria, often lasts through November. A second campaign, in fact, now seems most likely. But the events of the last fortnight, the crushing defeat of Mukhtar Pasha in Armenia, and the establishment of a Russian force on Osman Pasha's communications southwest of Plevna, are of considerable moment, and have already effected a somewhat curious change in public opinion about the prospects of the combatants. When the war opened there was very general expectation that the Turks would be brought to their knees readily in one campaign, and it was shared even by those who thought most highly of the Turkish troops. It was based upon the belief that, excellent as the individual Turkish soldier was, the Turkish army was too badly organized and too badly commanded to be capable of manœuvring in the open; that, therefore, it would confine itself to the defence of the great fortresses, and would show behind earthworks its old courage and tenacity, both of which would probably be heightened by the possession of the breechloader; that the Russians would, however, cross the Danube in such force as, even with moderate generalship, to enable them to mask the fortresses and send detachments of sufficient strength across the Balkans to overthrow any hasty levies collected to oppose them, and dictate peace, as before, at Adrianople, if not further south. That this was the Russian plan and hope the earlier operations of the campaign leave little doubt. The Danube was successfully and skilfully crossed. Nicopolis was taken by a *coup de main*, the garrison disappointing the military world by a feeble resistance. General Gourko then burst across the Balkans, seizing the Shipka Pass by a clever manœuvre, and pushed straight for Adrianople with twelve thousand men. Meeting Raouf Pasha with fifteen thousand men on the way, he not only defeated, but dispersed his force, and, had he had fifty thousand men, could have gone on. But the momentum of ten thousand was soon spent. Reinforcements did not come to him. Baron Krüdener had neglected to occupy Plevna after the capture of Nicopolis, and when he turned his attention to it he found it occupied by a powerful Turkish force squatted behind great earthworks, from which he was too feeble to dislodge it by assault. The result was that Gourko had to come back, driven into the Balkans by Suleiman Pasha, who had had time to come up rapidly from Montenegro, and that Plevna rose suddenly into a fortress of the first rank, cooping up the Russians between it and Rustchuk and Shumla. All this seems to have been mainly due to the numerical feebleness of the Russians. The troops which crossed the river were not equal to the job as planned.

Events had taken a very similar course in Asia. There, too, the Russians had had a run of rapid success, until the Turks, concentrated in a strong and fortified position at Zevin, achieved one of their old-fashioned successes against an assault recklessly delivered by an inferior force far from its base in a desolate country.

There then occurred the first change in public opinion, and, like all changes which take place at the beginning of a war, it was very violent. The Russians fell into the lowest contempt. Their generals first incurred it, and finally the rank and file, while the Turks rose correspondingly, until not only were their soldiers pronounced superior to the Russians, but the pashas received the rank of accomplished strategists, who would now take the Russians in hand and probably close the war. For Abdul Kerim Pasha, who had allowed the Danube to be crossed without resistance, there was not much said; but he was removed. Mehemet Ali Pasha, a German, was put in command at Shumla; he was to assail the Russian left and roll them up on Osman Pasha, and the two combined were to throw them into the Danube, while Suleiman Pasha was either to force the Shipka Pass and drive in their front from Tirnova or was to go around and reinforce Mehemet Ali. The Czar, seeing all this and knowing how it would end, and perceiving that the campaign in Asia had been closed by the advance of Mukhtar Pasha to the gates of Alexandropol, was to get some other Power to mediate so as to enable him to abandon the enterprise with some vestige of credit.

The second stage of the operations was then entered, and the Turks began to exhibit their strategy. Mehemet Ali began his advance, drove in the Russians, who resisted but feebly, from the line of the Lom, and up to the Yantra, where he was to administer the final blow. But on reaching the Yantra and feeling the enemy again, he came to the conclusion that he was worse off there than he had been on the Lom; so in three or four days he retreated to his former position, and when the news reached Constantinople he was promptly dismissed as no better than Abdul Kerim Pasha. In the meantime Suleiman Pasha had spent two months in trying to force the Shipka Pass, sitting in his tent, eye-witnesses report, smoking cigarettes, and ordering repeated assaults of impregnable positions whenever the humor seized him, his best troops melting away, his camp a charnel-house, and the once lovely country behind him a waste strewed with unburied corpses and smoking ruins—the work of irregulars, whom he made no attempt to control; the other passes, too—and this gives the full measure of the man—were all the time open to him, and Mehemet Ali vainly calling on him to reinforce him for the movement against the Russian left. After having lost 20,000 men in the Shipka Pass he abandoned the attempt to force it, and was appointed Mehemet Ali's successor. In short, the history of his career and Mehemet Ali's shows that the Turks are no better off, as regards generals, or as regards the condition of the administrative mind at Constantinople, than they ever were in former wars, or than people supposed them to be last May. Nor has Osman Pasha shown any advance on his predecessors in the old wars. He had the good sense to seize a strong position and fortify it, and has troops who stick to a parapet with bulldog tenacity, but he has not shown the slightest ability or disposition to join in any combination outside his works. He made no attempt to follow up his first repulse of Krüdener, and showed not the slightest sign of a wish to co-operate with Mehemet Ali when the latter made his movement on the Lom.

In Asia, Mukhtar Pasha appears to have remained on the frontier in fancied security until the Russians had reorganized and reinforced their army under his nose, and where they could get at him in a day's march from their base, and then allowed himself to be cut in two, and one-third of his force captured, and Kars is now again invested, and this time probably by a force which cannot be driven off. If Osman Pasha is well supplied and can stand a winter's siege, it is as contrary to all experience of Turkish foresight and organization as the notion that the Turks had three great strategists operating against the Russians in Bulgaria was opposed to all experience of Turkish generalship. If he fights his way out and retires in good order, he will accomplish a feat without precedent in Turkish history. But thus far everything has gone in regular Turkish fashion. It is the Russians really who have disappointed the world, but the Russians would not be the nation they are, and would not have pushed their frontier to the Danube and the Himalayas, if they learned nothing from the experience of the last four months, and were thrown into despair by any resistance the Turks have yet been able to offer them. They are struggling now desperately with the problem of saving their financial credit while continuing the war; but no one, whom interest in the struggle does not deprive of memory and judgment, as seems in nearly every war to happen to a portion of the English press, can doubt that they will, if need be, sacrifice their credit sooner than loose their hold on the Turkish throat.

FOREIGN NAMES.

III.

TO localities and persons belonging to countries more or less directly ruled by the British, as a matter of course, names in English forms or names adopted by the English are to be applied. In most cases the names are fully established by usage, and however strange the spelling may be, it must be adhered to, as long as we submit, in this country, to the observance of such substitution of signs for sounds as *Shawangunk* for Shonggum. Nothing more barbarous will be discovered among the names referring to Canada, Australia, Cape Colony, or any other of the domains of Great Britain. The whole of India, native as well as properly British, with all its history and literature, falls in this category. English consonants and English vowels, in their most common signification, must be made to represent sounds originating in Sanskrit, Pali, Tamil, Telugu, Cingalese, and other languages. And the most customary spellings appear to be the most appropriate, at least until the lately officially introduced forms, deviating from the traditional ones, are adopted by a large number of leading writers on East India topics. However desirable the change from arbitrary ways to rational rules may be, it is yet too early for popular writers on a variety of subjects, who cannot claim the privileges of learned specialists, to write *Kashmír, Rájputáná, Bhután, Panjáb, Satlej, Narbadá, Láhor, Multán, Húgli, Nasír Uddín, Jalál Uddín, Siráj Ud Daulá*, instead of *Cashmere, Rajpootana, Bootan, Punjaub, Sutlej, Nerbudda, Lahore, Mooltan, Hoogly, Nasireddin* or *Nasir ed-Din, Jelaleddin, Surajah Dowlah.*

Names belonging to the independent countries of the East whose recent history is closely connected with that of the British advance in that part of the world, such as Afghanistan, Beloochistan, Burmah, Siam, and China, follow the rule applying to British India. It is by British travellers and merchants, generals and governors, that the names have been introduced or made popular among English-speaking people, and the forms introduced have become established and historically traditional. It is therefore proper to write *Cabool, Candahar, Ghuzni, Peshawer, Hindoo Koosh, Belooches, Kelat, Rangoon, Irrawaddy, Foochow, Chingchoo*, instead of the literarily more accurate *Kabul, Kandahar, Ghazni, Peshawar, Hindu Kush, Baluches, Khelat, Rangun, Irawadi, Futchau, Tchingtchu.* Names belonging to all other parts of Asia, excepting a number popularly figuring in history or travels, such as Samarcand, Mecca, Mocha, or Genghis, are subject to transliteration from the original languages. And so are also all African names, excepting those belonging to countries ruled by European nations, whose spellings —French in Algeria, Portuguese, Spanish, English, or Dutch in other parts—must be observed. Well-established historical names, such as Cairo, Tripoli, or Algiers, will naturally form exceptions.

We now come to the principal part of our subject, the rules of transliteration, such as are to be applied, with the restrictions above alluded to, to names belonging to the Russian, Serb, Bulgarian, Turkish, Persian, Hebrew, Arabic, and all other languages which use an alphabet different from the Roman. Among these is to be included the Wallach or Ruman language, which uses two alphabets, of which the Roman is changed from our forms by a number of peculiar marks. The general rule is this: Use the consonants in the English, and the vowels in the Continental acceptation of their sounds, the former in an unmistakable way. Let us specify.

Use *tch*, not the dubious *ch*, nor the German *tsch*, nor the Polish *cz*, for expressing the terminal consonantal sound contained in *hatch, hitch, couch;* thus: *Kamtchatka, Tchad, Tchernavoda*, and not *Kamchatka, Chad*, or *Czernavoda*, which are all liable to mispronunciation. The imitation of German renderings is here productive of the strangest and most unpronounceable combinations. It is bad enough that we have to employ five consonants in order to render one with which the Russian begins the names Shtcherbatoff, Shtchukin: is it not absurd to add two others, which are needed in German, but just deprive our English combination of any meaning, and to write thus: *Schtscherbatoff, Schtschukin?* One of the commonest, and the least pardonable, mistakes in English is the rendering in various forms, by the same writers, of the Russian terminal syllable *vitch*, always corresponding to our *son* in *Johnson, Robertson*, etc. Thus, even so excellent a work as the 'Encyclopædia of Chronology,' by Woodward and Cates (1872), has "Lermontov . . . Ivanovich," "Dolgorouki . . . Fedorovitch," "Bogdanowitz . . . Fedorowicz," and many similarly contradictory patronymics. In Polish names, like Mickiewicz, Niemcewicz, only *wicz* is correct, that being the Poles' own spelling *in Roman letters.*

Use *j* as the common equivalent of the German *dsch* and Fr. *dj* in Slavic, Asiatic, and African names, writing *Tunja, Eski Juma, Bazarjik, Kainarji, Jiddah, Jebel el-Jowf, Abulfaraj, Jezireh*, and *dj* only between vowels, as in *Dobrudja, Khodja Balkan, Aladja Dagh, Nedjed, Hedjaz*, in order to indicate clearly the shortness of the first vowel. *Kustendje*, however, seems to be too firmly established in English usage to be changed into *Kustenje*. Palgrave, in his 'Central and Eastern Arabia,' often strangely reverses the rule, writing *Djowf, Djobbah, Hejaz, Nejed.*

In the same class of names *sh* is the equivalent of the Hebrew *shin*, German *sch*, and French *ch*. Write *Shammai, Shemtob, Hashem, Pushkin, Milosh, Shuvaloff, Shumla, Pelishat, Radishevo, Shefket;* not *Schammai*, etc., *Radichevo, Chefket.*

Zh is our best equivalent for the French *j*, for which the Germans in maps and books now frequently use *sh* (or *ž*, as they also use *č* for our *tch*, and *š* for *sh*). Write *Nizhni Novgorod, Zhitomir, Voronezh, Derzhavin, Pozharski, Zhukovski;* not *Nijni, Jitomir, Voronej*, as the French write, and after them many English geographers, including A. Keith Johnston.

Tz and *ts* are equally good for the transliteration of the corresponding sound in Hebrew, Russian, and other languages; yet we prefer the former, which agrees with the German, in Semitic, Slavic, and other names, such as Tzarphati, Tzana, Vorontzoff, Olonetz, Tzaritzyn, and the now so often mentioned Grivitza, Lovatz, and Vratza, and *ts* in Japanese names, such as Satsuma, Matsumaë, or Butsu, which follow the usage established by the English in Chinese names (Yangtse, Tientsin, Tsinan, etc.) Great caution must be observed in transliterating after German maps, some geographers applying West-Slavic spellings to South-Slavic countries. Thus, Kanitz's latest map of Bulgaria has *Grivica, Lovec, Vraca.*

Y is the general equivalent for the Semitic *yod*, as well as for the German *j*, the copying of which must be strictly avoided. Write *Yarhi, Yomtob, Yakub, Yusuf, Yezid, Yermak, Tchernayeff, Yeni Zaghra, Yeniköi*, not *Jarhi*, etc. Among the few exceptions founded on usage is *Bajazet; Jassy* and *Janina* it is perhaps time to abandon for *Yassy* and *Yanina.* After a consonant in the same syllable *i* is properly substituted, as in *Biela* (for *Byela* = Ger. *Bjela*), and *ai, ei, oi, ui* are used instead of the stricter forms *ay, ey* (= Ger. *aj, ej*), etc., as in *Turtukai, Alexei, Tolstoi, Shuiski.* After *i* the *y*, corresponding to the German *j* in similar positions, is dropped, as in *Dolni Monastyr, Gorni Dubnik, Dolgoruki, Baratynski.*

For a discriminating use of *v* and *w* a few important rules can be established. *W* prevails in Arabic names, such as Moawiyah, Merwan, Walid, Abul-Wefa, Massowah, or Asswan, and *v* is exclusively to be used in Russian, South-Slavic, and Wallach names. The Russian, Serb, Bulgarian, and Wallach contain no such sound or letter as *w* (while the Polish has only the letter, which is equivalent to our *v*). To write, as is but too often done, *Paskewitch, Wasili, Wolhynia, Wladimir*, or *Wologda*, is, therefore, just as improper as to write, in Hebrew or Greek history, *Lewi* for Levi, *Washti* for Vashti, or *Ewagoras* for Evagoras. *Wilna* (derived from the Polish *Wilno*) and *Widdin* are exceptions founded on historical usage. In the terminal syllables of Russian names of places, such as Azov, Tambov, Kozlov, Saratov, Tchernigov, Pskov, Ostrov, Kishinev, Kiev, *ov* and *ev* are properly used where the Russians have the corresponding letters, but pronounce *off, eff*, yet not in the oblique cases. In similarly-ending family names, such as Romanoff, Orloff, Lermontoff, Melikoff, Ignatieff, Skobeleff, and Lazareff, the sound is followed instead of the letter, owing to the habit of the Russians of so signing their own names, as pronounced in the nominative, whenever they use the Roman alphabet in correspondence with Englishmen or Frenchmen. Eugene Schuyler ('Turkistan,' 1876) and D. Mackenzie Wallace use in both classes of names *of* and *ef*, which, if consistently done, can, of course, not be objected to.

Kh answers to the full guttural sound (Ger. *ch*, Sp. *j*) in Slavic, Turkish, Tartar, Persian, and other Eastern names, such as Kherson, Kharkov, Astrakhan, Kiakhta, Akhaltzikh, Khiva, Khorasan, Khuzistan, Nakhimoff, Mukhtar, Khurshid; *h* answers to softer gutturals in Eastern tongues, as in the names Hariri (Ger. *Chariri*), Harizi, Hefetz, Ahmed (as in the Biblical Hebron, Heshbon, Hiddekel, Hiram), as well as to the Hebrew *he* (Ger. *h*); *k* (in non-Biblical names) to both the Semitic *kaph* and *koph*, as in Zakkai, Akiba, Koreish, Sakkara. *Ch*, though good in classical and Biblical names, has no place whatever in strict English transliteration.

G is to be used only in its hard acceptation, *j* replacing the soft sound. *Gh* occurs, but rarely, in Eastern names.

Little specification is required as to the vowels. Concurrent or single authoritative spellings by German, Italian, and other Continental writers may generally be followed without hesitation. The French alone of the leading Continental languages forms an exception. Write, therefore, *Selim*, *Ibrahim*, *Aziz*, *Hamid*, *Kasim*, *Katif*, and not *Seleem*, *Ibraheem*, *Azeez*, *Hameed*, etc., as Palgrave (in 'Arabia') does after Lane (in 'Modern Egyptians'), using also his special diacritical marks; *Rashid*, *Ghadir*, *Habib*, *Ahin*, as in Burton's 'Unexplored Syria' (1872), not *Rasheed*, etc.; *Ali*, *Raghib*, *Ratib*, *Sherif*, as in McCoan's 'Egypt' (1877), not *Alee*, etc.; *Yusuf*, *Mustapha*, *Murad*, *Kurdistan*, *Turkistan*, *Stambul*, *Sukhum*, *Batum*, *Erzerum*, *Urumiah*, *Burumtchuk*, not *Yoosoof* or *Yousouf*, etc. Such spellings as *Ooroomiah* or *Booroomtchook* are fortunately becoming rare.

Two exceptions, however, must here be stated: The French form *ou* is still frequently preferred to *u* (in its Italian and German value) in historically established names, such as Haroun, Mahmoud, Aboukir, Roum, Roumelia, though even Gibbon writes *Harun* and *Mahmud;* and *oo* is still more generally used in names belonging to parts of Africa the exploration of which is mainly or in great part due to early English travellers, whose spellings have naturally become popular. Such names are *Borgoo*, *Bornoo*, *Timbuctoo*, *Gaboon*, *Darfoor*, *Khartoom*, *Bambook*, *Moorzook*. More recent English explorers write *Ukerewe*, *Lulua*, *Lualaba*, etc.

We conclude our remarks by briefly adding that the German diphthongs do not always correspond to ours—*au*, *e.g.*, answering to *ow;* that *ö* and *ü* may be borrowed from the German and Hungarian for the transliteration of Turkish names, such as Kadiköi, Balüklü; and that our *a* is to be used indiscriminately (in popular writing) both for the Semitic *aleph* and *ayin*, just as the Authorized version of the Bible used it in *Adoniram* and *Adullam*, *Amaziah* and *Amasa*.

THE FRENCH ELECTIONS.

PARIS, October 17, 1877.

OUR great electoral battle is over, and its results are before the world. But it is in politics as in science: there are facts, and there is the interpretation of the facts. The Republicans have preserved the majority in the new Chamber, and defeated the army of the official candidates; at the same time, they have lost about forty seats. The Government has not succeeded in obtaining a clear majority with its own nominees; at the same time, it has somewhat weakened the majority, which it had dissolved with the help of the Senate. It would be a mere absurdity to say that a country can become more or less republican in the course of a few weeks. The Republicans can still say that the majority of the electors prefer the republican form of government, at least for the time being, to any other form; they can say that not a single Monarchist, not a single Imperialist, voted for their candidates, while some conservative Republicans may have voted for the candidates of Marshal MacMahon, as the Marshal has always solemnly protested his fidelity to the actual Constitution, which is a republican Constitution. It seems, therefore, clear and indubitable that universal suffrage in France in the year 1877 is decidedly republican, and that it intends to preserve the republican institutions. The group of men who called themselves the 363—those who signed the manifesto against the dissolution of the 16th May—have suffered a partial defeat, since some of them have not been re-elected; their cause has obtained a victory, since the new majority is as decidedly republican as the majority of the 363. This is, after all, the great fact which stands pre-eminently before the world; and politics is a science of facts. Of course, this overwhelming republican army of electors, which has sent a new majority to Versailles, is not homogeneous: it has a Centre, a Left, a Right; it shelters under its flag the remnants of the Commune as well as the most wealthy and respectable citizens. These millions of electors agree only on a single point—on the question of the Republic. Till this majority of electors has changed its mind on this question, it will not be possible, legally, to alter the form of government; and the revision of the Constitution, if it takes place, can only bear on details—it cannot go as far as a total revision and the substitution of a monarchy for the Republic.

The most eminent members of the Cabinet of May 16 have repeatedly said to France, either by their own mouths or by the mouth of the President, that the question at issue in the elections was not the form of government; that the country was merely asked to choose between a conservative republic and a destructive or radical republic. I am afraid that, notwithstanding these declarations, the country has taken a different view of the contest. The people understand at once the difference between a president and an emperor or a king; it is not so easy to make them understand the difference between a Conservative and a Radical. The majority dismissed on May 16 was accused of radicalism, and it certainly contained many men who have the revolutionary *virus* in their veins—men whom no political change can satisfy, and who would always ask for more changes; but this revolutionary temper had had no signal occasion to show itself: the army was untouched, as well as the Church, and the administration of finance; the great fabric of the French state seemed as solid as ever. The country was not alarmed; it was told that it ought to be alarmed, but it would not see the danger. Who, indeed, could see the danger? The workingmen are all, of course, on the radical side; they are themselves the danger. The peasants lead their quiet and laborious lives far away from the political battle-field; they only think of politics when their sons go to the war and when they are summoned by the tax-gatherer. They have no enthusiasm for any form of government; they fear authority; they have a natural regard for all men in power. Their political impressions are sensations rather than impressions. The late war and invasion has been one of these sensations which a generation cannot forget. Our peasants know that the Empire for which they were so often asked to vote ended miserably, that the increased taxation is the heritage of the Empire, that the loss of two provinces was the price which France had to pay for the reign of Napoleon III. The name of "official candidate," which was a force under the Empire, has become a weakness; the peasant is by nature very distrustful; he knows that he has been misled in past times by all the official candidates who promised him peace and plenty. He did not give his confidence to the new official candidates of the Government.

It was the mistake of M. de Fourtou to think that the means so successfully employed in the Imperial times would have the same effect now. The general elections in 1870 gave admirable results just because the peasants were allowed perfect freedom, owing to the distressed condition of the country. There was, so to speak, no administration at the time; the consequence was that the provinces chose the best men everywhere, and it will be a long time before France has as patriotic and as enlightened an Assembly as the National Assembly which followed the war. The Imperial system of elections was founded on corruption and intimidation; it was supported by the prestige of Napoleon; the candidates were called the *candidats de l'Empereur*. We must remember that the Emperor had no Septennate which limited his reign, no term of office; the prefects were pro-consuls, who could hope to be under Napoleon IV. what they were under Napoleon III.; the means of corruption were endless; the means of intimidation were frightful. "Nous avons changé tout cela"; the Administration is no longer and cannot be what it was then. The circulars of M. de Fourtou, the administrative pressure, have produced, in my opinion, no effect whatever; the gains of the Government are, I believe, simply and entirely owing to the direct and personal intervention of the Marshal in the struggle. The Marshal, if he has not the prestige which Napoleon III. had in the middle of his reign, has nevertheless a great position in the country; he is known to be an honest man; he has spent his life in the service of the country; he is respected, and political errors would be easily forgiven to a man who is not a politician. There has been undoubtedly among a large number of electors a desire to give satisfaction to the wishes and even to the feelings of the Marshal, and this desire would have borne more results if it had not been for the conduct of the Bonapartist party. While the Monarchists abstained from any agitation, and offered their votes to the Marshal and to the conservative Republic, the Bonapartists never concealed their intention, if the Marshal had the victory, to ask at the expiration of his powers in 1880 for a total revision of the Constitution, and for the restoration of the Empire. As M. Thiers had once spoken of the Republic without Republicans, they intended to change the MacMahonian period into an Empire without an Emperor, and meant to make of it the preface to the real Empire. They became as audacious as they had been humble after the 4th of September. Not only did the men who had quietly and honestly served the state during the long Imperial period come forward, they were led by the very men who had had a hand in the *coup d'état* of 1851 and in the war of 1870. M. Rouher took again the position of a vice-emperor; but the country has not forgotten the speech he made at Saint Cloud when the war against Germany had been declared, and how he complimented the Emperor in the name of the Senate for having been four years in preparing this war. M. de Maupas, who had played a part in the *coup d'état;* M. Haussmann, who had been the favorite prefect of Napoleon; the two Cassagnacs, and many others, became "official" candidates under a Republic. The Bonapartists spoke to the Marshal as if they were only working for the Con-

servative interests and for the defence of order; they spoke more freely to the country. The memories of the Empire may become extinct in the course of time; the legend may only preserve the brightest parts of the reign of Napoleon III.; but history has not yet become legendary. I doubt if the present generation will forget the dark sides of a reign which ended so disastrously, or if the present generation will consider as Conservatives the men who could not preserve in its integrity the territory of France.

The impatience of the Bonapartists was detrimental to the Cabinet; the sincerity of the ministers, when they gave themselves out as the defenders of the Constitution, became for many a subject of doubt. The political integrity of the Marshal was not put in question, but many came to ask themselves whether clever politicians did not intend to conduct him through a labyrinth, at the end of which they would place him between the most dangerous resolutions. The reaction against the Empire which followed the war was in exact proportion to the pressure which the Empire had exercised upon the country; the country is not so much attached to the Republic as it is afraid of a new Empire—it dreads the Empire even more than the Radicals. A Radical explosion appears like a short malady; a new Imperial régime like a lingering malady which nothing can cure. Such are the feelings, at least, of a majority of the electors; the dominant sentiment of our population is, on the whole, always the same. Strange as it may appear, the country abhors the idea of any great change, of what is called a revolution. The nation is imbued with revolutionary ideas in a philosophical sense, but it nevertheless dreads revolutions—that is, sudden and visible changes in the form of government. The Republic exists, let it live; let it die its natural death if it must die. You will hear this idea expressed in a thousand forms by the country people, by the shopkeepers—that is, by those who do not make politics their trade.

The country was satisfied that the Marshal would not leave the Presidency, that he would not resign; the Marshal assured the country several times that he would remain, whatever happened, at his post. This assurance worked, perhaps, otherwise than the Marshal himself desired; the electors said to themselves, If we shall keep the Marshal, why should he not stay with any Chamber? They felt, therefore, at liberty to follow their proclivities. They warned him that they did not desire the return of the Empire, that they would rather live with the *periculosa libertas* of a republic than in the dead calm of a new Napoleonic era. The Bonapartists may have gained some seats in the new Chamber, their cause has received a heavy blow: they have lost those millions of suffrages which were once the pride and the force of the Empire; they are nothing but a factious minority in the country. They have not even the consolation of being able to throw their defeat on the shoulders of the young Prince Imperial, as the Monarchists can explain *their* defeat by the folly of the Comte de Chambord. The Prince Imperial has not thrown away his chances, he has not offended France; he is young, he is innocent of all the faults of the past. But France, in its present mood, will not hear of the Empire, and she would rather confide in anybody than in the Rouhers and the Cassagnacs.

Correspondence.

CAUSES OF THE OHIO DEFEAT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I fear that you are in error when you interpret the Ohio defeat as a rebuke to Secretary Sherman for his reticence upon the silver question. The hold which this madness has obtained upon public opinion in this State is very strong. Scores of men who, two years ago, did earnest work for a sound currency are now carried away by this delusion, and it has a large following even among bankers and professional men. That it is so is a surprising and discreditable fact, but it seems to me one which should be faced at once.

Again, you are in error when you say, "Mr. Stanley Matthews followed him (Judge West) with demagogy, if possible, of a still more degrading and mischievous character." Senator Matthews preceded Judge West, and was, if anything, less intemperate in his tone. Indeed, the rather lame defence which West's friends make for him is that, owing to his defective eyesight, he was unable to see the appearance of the mob of strikers and roughs who interrupted Mr. Matthews, and supposed the comments made to indicate the opinion of a respectable class of citizens.

Respectfully, A.

Cleveland, Ohio, 22d October, 1877.

[We did not "interpret the Ohio defeat as a rebuke to Secretary Sherman for his reticence on the silver question," but as an illustration of the uselessness of his reticence. The voters, in other words, according to us, did not mean to punish him for saying nothing about silver, but they showed him that his saying nothing about it did him no good, and that his speaking about it would have done him no harm, and might have helped to steady or enlighten public opinion. To recur to the "bull" illustration of our article, he met the bull and, seeing him, climbed over the fence and hid in the bushes. The bull jumped the fence, followed, found and gored him, not for running away, but to show him that running away was useless and bushes were no shelter. He intended to gore him in any case. We did not use the word "followed" in a chronological sense, but to ridicule insubordination. Judge West was the head of the ticket and the leading man in the canvass, though "man," under the circumstances, is a very mild word.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The Harvard College Observatory is desirous of extending to the other cities of New England the standard time service which it performs for Boston. It will do so for the bare cost of the extra service; and in order to awaken interest in this matter it has issued a pamphlet on 'Standard Public Time,' showing first the extent to which the public time is already controlled by various observatories in this country and in England; next, the inaccuracy of the common method employed by jewellers to ascertain the standard time; and finally the magnetic contrivances for transmitting the true time from the observatory.——Professor J. W. Mallet, of the University of Virginia, makes a valuable suggestion in *Nature* apropos of the recent librarians' convention in London. He proposes that the authorities of the British Museum and other prominent libraries should designate certain educated and trustworthy persons, not among their paid officers, whom they will admit to make researches among their books on behalf of persons at a distance; the names and addresses of such searchers, and rate of compensation, to be advertised. A very useful profession would thus be created. Might not the experiment be made in this country also? The same person might receive a commission from several libraries.——We are informed that the second part of the late Professor Hermann Grassmann's metrical translation of the Rig-Veda has been published by Brockhaus, and that copies have been received in this city by B. Westermann & Co. The whole work makes, beyond all question, the most trustworthy and enjoyable version of the ancient scripture in existence. As a joke too good to be lost, we may mention here a curious illustration of the kind and degree of European culture won by educated Hindus nowadays. One of the most celebrated of them, Rajendralala Mitra, in a recent preface of his, while extolling the Vedic hymns, claims that they were already in existence at the time "when Moses was compiling the laws of the Twelve Tables"!——Mr. A. M. Sullivan, M.P.'s, 'New Ireland' will be published in this country by J. B. Lippincott & Co.——'Lapsed, but not Lost,' by Mrs. Charles, author of the 'Schoenberg-Cotta Family,' is published by Dodd, Mead & Co.——John Wiley & Sons will continue their reprint of Ruskin's works with 'St. Mark's Rest,' a history of Venice; 'The Laws of Fesole,' or the elementary principles of drawing and painting as determined by the Tuscan masters—a schoolbook; and Parts 3 and 4 respectively of 'Proserpina' and 'Deucalion.'——A valuable Digest of American Sanitary Law, by Mr. H. G. Pickering of Boston, has just appeared. It reveals in two States (Arkansas and Missouri) a total lack of sanitary legislation, and in many a very ill-ordered and primitive collection of statutes. Mr. Hendricks's proud State concerns itself only with diseased sheep and cattle. Nebraska imposes a penalty for selling skimmed milk. The first acts generally pertained to quarantine, in Rhode Island dating back to 1743. Massachusetts denounced adulterations of food and instituted local boards of health as early as 1784. State boards of health now exist in fifteen States, besides the District of Columbia. Mr. Pickering has for good reasons been most minute in the case of New York.——Professor O. C. Marsh's Nashville address last August, on the "Introduction and Succession of Vertebrate Life in America," which has been appearing in *Nature*, is now privately printed in handsome pamphlet form. It forms one of the landmarks in the progress of scientific opinion concerning the descent and development of animate beings.

—In the forthcoming number (November–December) of the *International Review*, Mr. Horace White will discuss in a thorough manner the present phases of the currency question as bearing on resumption. Simultaneously, the next number of the *North American Review* will contain the views of Secretary Sherman, Ex-Secretary McCulloch, and others, on the same subject of resumption. This number of the *North American*, it is announced, is the last that will be printed in Boston or be published by Osgood & Co. The January number will bear the imprint of D. Appleton & Co., and if we are not misinformed a monthly instead of a bi-monthly issue is contemplated. The *Review* was established in 1815, and has hitherto been considered as much a part of Boston as Harvard College or the Old South Church. No doubt it will be to the advantage of the *Review* to bring the editor and proprietor and the publisher together again. From Princeton, N.J., we have the prospectus of a new *Missionary Review* to be launched in January, and to resemble in size of page and style the *Presbyterian Quarterly and Princeton Review*. It will aim "to present a clear view of the whole Foreign work of the different churches, boards, and societies, and to criticise in a friendly spirit the measures and machinery of all." Rev. R. G. Wilder, Princeton, will be its editor. We have received also the first number of the *Metallurgical Review*, a monthly publication (New York: David Williams). If the future issues are equal to this one it will prove a valuable addition to our mechanical literature. Its field is intended to embrace all matters of interest, whether historical, scientific, or practical, in the metallurgy of the useful metals. The first article, from the pen of Prof. R. H. Thurston, is upon the "Mechanical Treatment of Metals," and apparently forms but the introduction to a series of articles upon a subject on which Prof. Thurston is now recognized as a leading authority. Mr. Pechin's account of the new Ohio iron district, Mr. Williams's article on the Danks puddling furnace, and Mr. Metcalf's article on steel are valuable and interesting; while Prof. Wurtz furnishes a more abstruse paper on the chemical element of iron.

—Those who take an interest in modern French plays will be glad to find in *Scribner's* for November, in the department styled Home and Society, a very full and excellent list of them, contributed by Mr. J. B. Matthews, under the title of "French Plays for American Amateurs." Mr. Matthews recommends them especially to young French students who desire to acquire "the talk of the Frenchman of to-day," and as to their morality he vouches for his list as not containing a single play "to the reading of which by her daughter the most fastidious mother could object." The most suggestive article in the present number is that by Mr. John G. Stevens on the Erie Canal, considered in its relations to the city of New York. Mr. Stevens's main point is that, so far as New York's supremacy over other cities on the Atlantic seaboard depends upon the Erie Canal, from whose opening, in 1825, it securely dates, it has now come to an end. He argues that the railroads have at last become able to compete with the Canal in cost of transportation, and have virtually destroyed its usefulness. In 1853 the tonnage on the Canal was fourfold greater than on the New York Central and Erie roads combined; in 1876 it was only about one-third. A few years ago it monopolized the transportation of grain; last year it carried only 15 per cent. Moreover, in 1862 the number of canal-boats was 6,000, and, as a boat lasts only 12 years, 500 boats per year must be built in order to maintain the working capacity of the Canal; but for the past two years only 88 boats per year have been built, and at present building has ceased, because it no longer pays to build them, or even to keep them in repair. Before our politicians have ceased fighting over canal boards and canal tolls, therefore—indeed, in five years from this date—it is probable that we may be able "to sketch the ruins of aqueducts from the summits of disused locks." Mr. Stevens does not pretend to discuss, or even to guess, the effect which this disuse of the canal, which he regards as inevitable, will have upon the future of New York. But he asserts, and every one must agree with him, that the rivalry between New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore (which exported last year 20 per cent. more corn than New York), and other cities will hereafter be sharp and intensely aggressive; that no city can afford to be handicapped by an ounce of dead-weight; and that New York must reform many things if she expects to retain her commercial superiority.

—In *Lippincott's* for November we still find nothing more readable than Mr. James's "London at Midsummer." Greenwich, Blackheath, and Woolwich are the particular localities described in this paper, which begins, like others of the series, with pointing out the exclusive character of some English "comforts," and ends with an irrepressible tribute to the greatness of England. In *Harper's*, Mrs. Jessie Frémont makes her début in a paper entitled "A Year of American Travel," which appears to be the first of a series, and a series of indefinite length, seeing that the writer "divague fort," as she gives due warning she means to do. She is, if anything, a little too discursive for perfect ease in reading her. Nothing in her travels (by way of the Isthmus to California) is so interesting as the glimpses she gives of her home life, of the migratory habits of her father's family, of Senator Benton's domestic character, of his solicitude for his daughter's culture: all this is not only a very pretty picture, but it suggests a relation between parents and children almost ideal from its rarity. Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford's "San Antonio de Bexar" and Mr. H. W. Elliott's "Ten Years' Acquaintance with Alaska" are interesting in themselves and as showing what a catholic range of climate and nationalities the United States now embraces. The colder extreme we perhaps owe to Mr. Sumner as much as to any one after Mr. Seward, but it is sad to read that his "great speech in favor of the treaty, and which, in the universal ignorance of the subject prevailing in the American mind at the time it was delivered, was hailed as a masterly and truthful presentation of the case, is, in fact, as rich a burlesque upon the country as was Proctor Knott's 'Duluth.' Sumner, however, doubtless meant well, but he was easily deceived by the cunning advocates of the purchase." Consequently, neither he nor any other eulogist of the "New England of the Pacific" mentioned the Pribyloff seal islands, "which now constitute the only real source of wealth and income to the Government in all Alaska," and bring into the treasury sixfold the cost of maintaining the revenue service and civil order in the Territory. Olive Logan writes of Robert Houdin, "The King of Conjurers." Had she been familiar with his autobiography, and not relied exclusively on his posthumous 'Magie et Physique,' she would, with a little technical knowledge thrown in, have saved herself numerous blunders, as in the attribution of Pepper's ghost to Houdin. Some mention of the book so largely drawn upon, for illustrations as well as for text, would seem to have been proper.

—An American in Naples writes us as follows under date of October 14:

"I should like to have been at Mr. Wells's elbow when he 'locked horns' with 'Merchant' in your No. 639, to give him a hint about our *barter* with Italy. It is an indisputable fact that Italy offers one of the best markets for our productions if only we would take hers in exchange. For instance, coal is one of the most important imports, and comes from England and France—nine-tenths from the former. The qualities imported for the Italian navy cannot (for reasons which I need not give here) compare with American coal for this special purpose, and American coal can be sold at much lower rates than are paid for this English, or rather Welsh, coal. In spite of a great disadvantage in cost of transportation, we could drive English coal out of the Italian market if we would only consent to receive Italian manufactured goods in exchange, for there is no use attempting to sell coal for 'exchange on London.' The profit on coal is relatively the same as that on cotton goods, but perhaps the margin is smaller, and in order to compete successfully with the British dealers we must be able to sell at small profit and make something on the exchange, be it a bill on London or a bale of silk or velvet. The same thing holds good with our grain. American grain would now be pouring direct into Italian ports but for the impossibility of making any profitable 'barter.' Cotton goods manufactured in America are gradually coming into the market, but the trade does not increase, for the reason already given. In short, the fruit and a few other articles which we take from Italy are sufficient to balance the trade we have in tobacco and petroleum. Italian silks and velvets are now largely sent through France to America. If the Pennsylvania coal kings could only see that an abolition of the high duties on Italian manufactured articles would open an important market to them, some good might possibly result."

—A correspondent writes us from Conway, Mass., October 27:

"Under the civil-service rules our postmaster resigned his positions as member of the district committee and chairman of the town committee; and when a caucus was held last Wednesday to elect delegates to the Representative Convention he remained in his office attending to his duties as postmaster. Behold the lamentable consequence! Instead of the usual eight or ten 'wheel-horses,' more than one hundred and fifty voters attended the caucus, and an almost unprecedented attempt was made to stuff the ballot-box. If the general interest in politics continues to die out at this rate, how long will it be before nominations will cease to be made and office-holders need to be called back to their wonted function?"

—At a recent meeting of the Middlesex South District Medical Society in Cambridge, Mass., a communication from the Board of Censors was read by the secretary, to the effect that they had received a letter from a lady requesting examination as a candidate for admission to the Massachusetts Medical Society. She stated that she was a graduate in medicine from the University of Michigan, a member of a county

society of the State of New York, and had recently been appointed resident physician to the State Reformatory Prison for Women at South Framingham. The censors say:

"By a vote of the councillors, passed in 1873, the censors are not allowed to admit a woman to examination for admission to the society. . . . Believing, however, as we do, that the exclusion of properly educated women from our professional ranks does not tend to advance the progress of medicine, we desire respectfully to suggest to the society that the councillors of the district be instructed to bring this matter again before the parent society, and to use all proper efforts to secure for women applying for admission to the Massachusetts Medical Society the same privileges that men enjoy."

The following resolutions thereupon were passed, with very few dissenting voices, fifty-three members being present:

"*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this society the time has come when women should have the privilege of examination by any board of censors acting for the Massachusetts Medical Society.

"*Resolved*, That it is the desire of this society that well-qualified female practitioners shall, after examination, be admitted to the Massachusetts Medical Society.

"*Resolved*, That the councillors of this society be instructed to communicate these resolves at the next meeting of the councillors of the Massachusetts Medical Society."

It will be interesting to see what action is taken by the Massachusetts Society at its next meeting. There certainly are in that State, as elsewhere, women practising medicine who meet our first physicians in consultation, who occupy positions involving great responsibility, and who would not suffer by comparison with the members of the Massachusetts Medical Society. It is already certain that these women will be employed by a considerable number of our most intelligent citizens; and the question is worth asking whether the State society which excludes them from membership is not injuring itself and itself alone. We remark that the last number of the 'Transactions' of the California State Medical Society, which has reached us from the Pacific coast, contains, among others, articles by ladies who are already members.

—The 'Nouveau dictionnaire de géographie universelle' (Paris: Hachette), the publication of which has just commenced, bids fair to mark a new era in the progress of geographical science in France. Its editor is the venerable M. Vivien de Saint-Martin, a man in every way competent for the task. His first work on geography was published fifty-two years ago, and from that time to this, he tells us in his preface, not a day has passed in which he has not added to the geographical notes which it has been the passion of his life to collect. The actual preparation for this work began sixteen years ago. That so long a time should elapse before the publication of the first pages can surprise no one who is familiar with the enormous mass of material contained in the Geographical Society and Government publications of the various countries, which must be carefully collated. Among his numerous collaborators are M. Louis Rousselet, author of 'L'Inde et ses rajahs,' who will revise the entire manuscript, and M. Élisée Reclus, who will write the principal articles upon America. The work, which will consist of two immense volumes of 1600 pages each, to be completed in eight years, is divided into two parts, ancient and modern. The former will treat of the geography of the Greeks and Romans; Biblical, Byzantine, Sanskrit, Arabian; and that of the western chroniclers down to the fifteenth century. Of the latter the letter A and part of B have been published. The aim of the work is to give the physical, political, economic, and historical geography of every country, together with its ethnology. A most valuable feature is a bibliographical list of sources and works to be consulted appended to each important article. Under Asia, for instance, is given a very full and interesting chronological list of travels from the beginning of the sixteenth century to 1874. Whilst designed to be a complete encyclopædia of geography, it does not pretend to include every place. The nomenclature of Europe alone reaches some six or seven hundred thousand names, which would fill at least three times the space allotted to the whole work. Of the 36,000 communes in France about a third will find a place. Yet to Albany two-thirds of a column are devoted. Only well-verified facts are to be recorded, and in newly-explored countries, together with the latitude, longitude, and altitude of stations, are given both the name of the observer and the character of his observation.

—The 'Atlas universel de géographie ancienne, moderne et du moyen âge' (Hachette), also edited by M. Vivien de Saint-Martin, is an independent work, though published simultaneously with the 'Dictionnaire.' In the preface the editor traces briefly the history of the science of cartography from the days of Ortelius and Mercator to those of Petermann and Kiepert. The Atlas of Ortelius was published in 1570, and marks the dawning of the new era in this science. It is said that Mercator generously delayed the publication of his own work for several years after this time, in order that his great rival might reap the full benefit of his labors. Of the large maps of Mercator, only one, the great Mappemonde in the Bibliothèque Nationale, is known to exist. Reductions of them by himself, however, are common, so that we have abundant means of judging of his work. Colbert, by his command to the Académie des Sciences for a geometric description of the kingdom—a work executed in part under the supervision of Cassini de Thury—gave the greatest impulse to the science in the last century, not only in France but in all Europe. M. Vivien de Saint-Martin speaks with the fullest appreciation of the works of the German geographers. Of the most illustrious of these he says, while lamenting the decline of interest in his own country in geographical studies, "we have neither a name nor teaching which can be compared with the teaching or the name of Carl Ritter." There are to be 112 maps in the Atlas; five of these are devoted to the United States (including one, on a large scale, of New England), and thirty-two are historical. Three have already been published—a Carte du ciel, the Arctic regions, and Turkey in Europe. The scale of the latter is nearly 50 English miles to the inch. As compared with the best German maps, it is superior in legibility, whilst they excel in the abundance of details. Accompanying each map is a descriptive text, and with that of Turkey is a bibliographical list of modern works upon that country.

—Emil Baehrens, in his 'Unedirte lateinische Gedichte,' presents us with some hitherto unedited Latin poems of the fourth and fifth centuries, taken from the Codex Harleianus, 3685, the contents of which were given not long ago by E. Dümmler in the *Zeitschrift für deutsches Alterthum* (N. F. IX., p. 84). Between two early mediæval poems are there found four pieces of earlier date. The first piece, "Aegritudo Perdicae," is interesting as an example of the development of a legend from a foundation possibly historical. Pseudo-Soranus, in his life of Hippokrates, tells how that physician discovered the love of Perdikkas for Phila, just as Erasistratos did that of Antiochos for Stratonike. The later development of this story, in a manner characteristic of the taste of the times, is then followed by the editor down to its treatment in this newly-found poem, which is attributed by him with great probability to the school of African poets, which flourished at Carthage after the middle of the fifth century under the Vandal kings. More noteworthy are the remaining three poems, all apparently by the author whose name is given at the head of the first of them—Tiberianus, the same, it seems, who held high office in Spain, Gaul, and Africa A.D. 326–336. The verses especially commencing "Amnis ibat inter herbas valle fusus frigida" show no inconsiderable originality and individual poetic ability, an extraordinary gift of description in this picture of a landscape executed with a fine treatment of details and an almost modern sentiment for the beauties of nature; all this in a degree and manner which single out the poet from among his contemporaries. All these qualities we find again in another work, seemingly of the same period and written in the same metre, the beautiful and well-known anonymous "Pervigilium Veneris." We must therefore pronounce Baehrens's conjecture highly probable, that the last-named poem is also the work of this Tiberianus.

COUNT CAVOUR.*

READERS of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which the articles comprising this volume have appeared within the last year, will be glad to find them in a collected form. The translation is on the whole good, though somewhat stiff, and in several places literal to the point of inaccuracy—in such phrases, for instance, as "agriculture practised in a certain extension," and "a positive army," meaning a real army. But these defects are on the whole rare, and if an air of inflation pervades the book it is the fault neither of the translator nor the author. M. de Mazade is well known to the French-speaking public of the world as one of the calmest and most lucid of the French political essayists of the present day, but it is almost impossible to turn him into English without revealing a considerable amount of "padding" that passes unnoticed in the original, and indeed gives it an air of sentimental grace.

The story of Cavour's life has been already very fully told, and his political career has undergone ample discussion. M. de Mazade's object in taking them up just now seems to be, and indeed he half avows it in

* 'Le Comte de Cavour. Par Charles de Mazade.' Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern. 1877.
'The Life of Count Cavour. Translated from the French of Charles de Mazade.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

his preface, to read the French people, in the present crisis in their affairs, a lesson on the power that lies in patience and moderation and compromise, and in the adaptation of means to ends. Certainly for such a purpose Cavour's career is admirably fitted. He may be said to have been the first Continental statesman to use purely Anglo-Saxon methods in attaining his ends, and his example has struck the Continental imagination in a way which that of no English or American politician has ever done or is likely to do. When you talk to a Frenchman or Italian of what Pitt, or Peel, or Lincoln accomplished by persistence, persuasion, and middle courses, and contentment with what was possible at the moment, he instantly replies, or thinks, that it was the character of the people and their political manners which made these great men successful —that if they had not had the English and American public and institutions to work upon, their skill would not have been skill at all. Cavour did an immense work for Continental politics, and may almost be said to have called not simply liberal Italy, but liberal Europe, into existence by dissipating this notion. He went to work on the most unpromising materials—a country broken into small states, long used to absolutism and to foreign interference of the most degrading kind, without public life or great political or military traditions, and cowed by the contemptuous moral domination of all the great Powers. The way in which he took one of these little states and made it the nucleus of the kingdom of Italy was perhaps the most remarkable piece of statecraft ever witnessed, and he had nothing at his back save an ardent popular desire for unity. But this desire was largely moulded and expressed by men who were as impracticable and as unsympathetic towards him as any of the Paris Jacobins. His unhesitating use of Louis Napoleon, then detested by Italian Liberals as the destroyer of the French Republic and the ally of the Pope; his despatch of the Piedmontese Contingent to the Crimea simply to attract notice for the little state and show that Italians could fight, and give them a claim of some kind on English and French sympathy, were detestable steps in the eyes of the logical and high-principled politicians of the French school; but they were touches of genius of which Pitt would have been proud, or which Burke would have panegyrized. Then, again, his bold support of the Garibaldian movement as soon as it showed its power, in order to control it; his eager attempts to arrange a *modus vivendi* with the Pope at the moment when Italian patriots were most exasperated with him, and his careful arrangement with a confessor seven years before his death to give him the viaticum, so as to avoid the injury to his fame and work that might be wrought by the refusal of the clergy at the last moment to absolve him, as in the case of poor Santa-Rosa, were all strokes of a school of politics of which the Continent till his day knew little or nothing, and the marvellous success of which made a profound impression.

It would be safe to say that Cavour not only created Italy but has had no small share in creating Germany, in reforming Austria, and in giving the French Republicans the sagacity which is now surprising both their friends and enemies. During the most trying period of the Italian revolution—the interval between the peace of Villafranca and the annexation of the Duchies and of the two Sicilies—he was repeatedly urged to ask Parliament for the suppression of the constitution and the bestowal on him of temporary dictatorial powers; but he would not hear of it. He scorned government by dictatorship; it was beneath his powers, he thought. "Anybody," he said, "could govern in a 'state of siege.'" His glory and ambition lay in governing by persuasion and skilful management, and under constitutional forms. He delighted in the difficulty of winning over hostile or doubting majorities to his views, and making his policy the policy of the nation. In fact, he was *par excellence* a politician, but a politician of the highest order; and his career would, for this reason, furnish a most useful study to large numbers of persons who pass under that name in this country, and who think themselves "practical" without ever having in their lives either conceived or even felt much interest in any legislative measure, or in anything political, except the keeping of government patronage in the hands of one party. He, on the other hand, not only called Italy into existence, but he contracted difficult and valuable alliances, carried on great wars, organized a large army, a vast system of taxation, a new civil service, and defended and expounded everything he planned or executed before a parliament which was often hostile or suspicious.

One of the inevitable effects of his success was to throw Mazzini, and most of the Italian patriots who had worked with him and by his weapons, into the shade. In fact, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that he clouded the memory of the whole body of "precursors" of Italian liberty, as they have been called. None of their doings or sayings directly led up to him. He was not in the least the sort of man whom their labors and sacrifices foreshadowed or helped to produce. He hated conspirators and dreamers, and distrusted sentimentalists of all shades, and had little poetry in his composition. He had hardly a tincture of literature even, but was strong in political economy and mathematics, and found his happiness in action, and had all Burke's contempt for logical politicians. That such a man should have become a type of statesmanship at the very dawn of Italian independence, the model which Italian public men will consciously or unconsciously imitate, and the standard by which voters will judge them, must be considered one of the greatest of the many pieces of good fortune which have attended the foundation of the new kingdom. M. de Mazade evidently desires to hold him up for imitation in France also, and the success of the Republic will depend on her ability to produce one or two examples of the immense good sense which Cavour placed at the service of Italy. Gambetta—also an Italian by descent—seems now and then to have flashes of Cavour's genius, but they are only flashes; and his patience, though more conspicuous now than in the earlier part of his career, still lacks the air of inexhaustibility which made Cavour such a formidable antagonist.

FURNESS'S VARIORUM HAMLET.*

THE 'New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare' now includes "Hamlet." The readers of the *Nation* have been made acquainted with the plan of the work and its general merits in notices of the earlier volumes, which, they will remember, are devoted to "Romeo and Juliet" and to "Macbeth." "Hamlet" is in bulk double either of these, and is doubtless the outcome of tenfold the labor. A variorum edition of it, harvesting and gleaning, as Mr. Furness does, the literature not only of England, but of Germany and France, and storing all away in two volumes of this size, might be the work of a lifetime. Mr. Furness did well to address himself to it at once, as soon as he had fixed his method and fairly settled down to his work.

The difficulties begin with the text. The editor has to determine the relations of three different versions to each other, and to the old lost play which was on the boards in Shakspere's youth. No one of the three is the complete text as it finally left the hands of Shakspere. Are they all variations of the same text, or do they represent texts composed at different times? Can any one be accepted as a standard, and the readings of the others noted as variations? Mr. Furness inclines to the view that Shakspere made two revisions of the old play. He began by working over the first part of it mainly. This proved a great success, and was pirated and printed in the first quarto. Then he revised it and finished it up. The other quartos and the folio are acting copies somewhat differently abridged from this same final revision. At any rate, Mr. Furness has found it necessary to construct a text for himself by collation and comparison of the others. He has done it with admirable judgment and care, and given a good, conservative text in modern spelling and printing. Perhaps he makes a little too free with the punctuation-marks; modern punctuation may be freely used to bring out more clearly a meaning with which the old punctuation agrees, though even then it is not best to make much effort to bring out nice distinctions or decide mooted questions of shades of meaning left undecided in the original. But when the meaning is changed it is a different matter; careless and blundering as the pointing of the old editions is, a change of it often constitutes a less probable emendation than the change of a word. In Act v., sc. ii., 210, the quarto reads:

> "The readines is all, since no man of what he leaues, knowes what ist to leaue betimes, let be."

This Mr. Furness gives:

> "The readiness is all. Since no man, of aught he leaves, knows, what is't to leave betimes? Let be."

It is much simpler to take *ist* for *it's* or *'tis*, and leave the passage in its plain meaning according to the old pointing: "Readiness (for death) is all our part, since no man knows in respect to aught he leaves, what is the best time to leave it."

Along with the preparation of the text there is the gathering and arranging of the various readings suggested by editors, and critics, and everybody—a vast labor even with the aid of the Cambridge collections. Then come notes grammatical and explanatory. These are presented with admirable brevity and clearness, and are occasionally enlivened and enlightened by pithy remarks of the editor, all too few. The effort at

* 'A New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Edited by Horace Howard Furness, Honorary Member of the "Deutsche Shakspear-gesellschaft of Weimar." Vol. III., IV. Hamlet.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

compression, which is made evident in many ways, keeps a critic on the watch for matter which might be omitted. There are some grammatical notes which are, perhaps, of this kind. It is hard to draw the line between general grammar and usages so Shaksperian that they ought to have a place in such a commentary. Obsolete constructions and forms need explanation even when common in Shakspere's time; but the study of the old forms of the language is becoming so general that it is no longer necessary to enlarge on such forms by giving their history and use in other authors. This remark was suggested by the note on *its*, Act i., sc. ii., 216, a good grammatical discussion, which tells about the Anglo-Saxon declension of *he*, and the uses of the Bible, Bacon and Milton, as well as some other matters, all which are interesting, and ten years ago might, perhaps, have claimed a place in such a Variorum, but which are now among the commonplaces of English grammar in all our good schools. This note is, however, exceptional; the general habit of Mr. Furness is just right. The fact is stated as briefly as possible, and a reference made to Abbott, or Maetzner, or some other historical grammar. If in one or two cases (Act i., sc. ii., 151 and 221) a reference to a grammar is given without explanation, they are rare exceptions. The references of this kind to former volumes of the series are, however, numerous.

The explanatory and critical remarks also go to an extreme of compression. It gives a comic cast sometimes to the æsthetic criticism to use abbreviations for the names of the characters, making Mr. Lowell, for example, say Ham. and Oph. It is a more substantial shortcoming that Mr. Furness has not given more notes to explain and apply his own views. Thus, he tells us in his general remarks that "*Hamlet* is neither mad nor pretends to be so," without expanding or explaining. The student will almost certainly turn to passages where *Hamlet* himself seems to contradict that view, as, for example, Act v., sc. ii., 215:

> "What I have done,
> That might your nature, honor, and exception
> Roughly awake, I here proclaim was madness.
> Was't Hamlet wrong'd Laertes? Never Hamlet;
> . . . Who does it, then? His madness."

Here we find nothing in the commentary to indicate what modification of the apparent meaning of the text or of his theory Mr. Furness would have us make.

The text and notes which have now been referred to make a volume of 473 pages, including an index of 15 pages. It is pleasant to find that, so far as verbal criticism is concerned, there are almost no difficulties in "Hamlet" left without a fair solution. There is hardly a passage of which the general sense is doubtful, very few which eluded the wit of all the early English commentators. Thus, the famous nonsense passage in Act i., sc. iv., 35, which Mr. Furness leaves untouched in his text:

> "The dram of eale
> Doth all the noble substance of a doubt
> To his own scandal,"

is obviously the enforcement of what *Hamlet* has just said, that the noblest character may "take corruption" from a single defect; and its general meaning must be conveyed by the early correction:

> "The dram of base
> Doth all the noble substance oft corrupt
> To his own scandal."

But this is not good enough for the commentators. They are haunted by the cases in which some exquisite Shaksperian expression has been found lurking in the printer's nonsense, like that of *Falstaff's* death, "for his nose was as sharp as a pen *and a' babbled of green fields*," which was disguised under "*a table of green fields*," or "*on a table of green frieze*," as Mr. Collier's Commentator read it. So the new conjectures grow more numerous from generation to generation. There are six great pages on the passage just quoted from "Hamlet"; *eale* may be for *evil*, or *vile*, or *ill*, or many other things as well as *base*, and *of a doubt* may have been *oft debase*, or *infect*, or *adopt*, or *adapt*, or *dout* (do out), or a hundred other things. One of the later commentators does let a gleam of Shakspere upon the passage by reading "*oft subdue* to his own scandal," reminding one of the famous lines in Sonnet cxi.:

> "And almost thence my nature *is subdued*
> To that it works in, like the dyer's hand."

Here, by the way, Mr. Furness's reference is to Sonnet iii., where the word is not found.

The second volume, under the name of an appendix, presents the student with a collection of documents and critical discussions too extended to be placed in immediate connection with the text. The most important are an essay on the date and text; reprints of the first quarto and of the prose 'Hystorie of Hamblet'; a translation of an old German play, "Der bestrafte Brudermord" (Fratricide Punished, or Prince Hamlet of Denmark), with an interesting note upon the acting of English plays in Germany at the beginning of the seventeenth century by companies of travelling English actors, "a curious and almost inexplicable fact," which the Germans have lately studied up. Then there are selections from British and American essays of criticism, and translations from German and French—about 50 Germans are represented—and last, not least, a bibliography of "Hamlet" literature. Most students would have been glad to see this volume larger, but all will recognize the excellent judgment with which the selections have been made and the fidelity and art of the translations. Beyond all question, the work furnishes important facilities for the study of this great poem. Mr. Furness says that he does not flatter himself that this is an *enjoyable* edition of Shakspere; he regards it rather as a necessary evil. It is doubtless true that most of the textual criticism is only preliminary to the real study of the poem, that explaining the obsolete expressions has little or nothing to do with the mastery of Shakspere's poetic art. But there are few fields of thought more interesting or more fruitful than the æsthetic criticism of "Hamlet." This youngest of Shakspere's tragedies has been hardly less by its defects than by its wit the source of wit in others. The essays of Goethe, Coleridge, Lowell, and the rest form a body of literature comparable to "Hamlet" itself. Nor are the six pages on the *dram of eale* without their interest to the student of human nature. In these days, when two swarms of insects cannot fight without bringing upon them the microscope and the pen of the reporter, the battles of the commentators are worth their record. Are they not vertebrate animals?

RECENT NOVELS.*

SUDDENLY a large number of minor novelists have begun to seek their material in the domestic relations. Mr. Habberton led off with 'Helen's Babies,' and he has had many imitators who have spun more or less amusing tales of more or less ill-conditioned children, whose main claim to the position of heroes of fiction has been unlimited and unreproved impudence. The author of 'Four Irrepressibles' falls into line with an account of the three sons and the daughter of Mr. Benjamin H. Cutler, of Boston, Massachusetts, who made a visit to a cousin in the country. These children are rather better behaved than those described by the author of 'Helen's Babies,' and it is an agreeable change to find that they were at times under the charge of a nurse. They are, in fact, a tolerably attractive and unobjectionable set of young people, whose adventures, it may be said, were surer to be of interest to their parents and guardians than to the general public. Still, even the cynical may smile at the little boy who complained that he was unable to unbutton a pea-pod. But besides the records of infantile scepticism and childish prattle, there is appearing a series of sarcastic attacks on other members of the family circle. A wife has undertaken to amuse or amend the world by writing a book called 'That Husband of Mine.' She would have been more merciful if she had spared the public this display of her husband's foolishness and her own simplicity. They give a party, but the husband has a bad toothache and stays in his room. In his agony he jumps on a bedstead and brings it with a crash to the floor, spoiling his new dressing-gown, in which he was about to come down-stairs, being unable to find his coat. Presently the "songs, glees, and recitations" with which the guests were diverting themselves were interrupted by the sudden appearance of the master of the house out of his head with "laughing-gas." The humor is all of this delicate sort.

What is really amusing about these books is the way a conventional love-story, in an abridged form, is pinned on the most uncongenial subject. No one would ever imagine that in an account of childish sports he would come across a courtship and a promised wedding, but, possibly out of respect for the demands of publishers, almost every one of these books contains something of the sort. In 'Four Irrepressibles' the good aunt is rewarded by the return of her former lover, Mr. Caswell, who incidentally saves the lives of two of the three boys. In 'Helen's Babies' there was a full-grown romance, and in 'That Husband of Mine' the sister who writes to the wife of the hero, "If you have any gentlemen friends—but what nonsense! consider it unwritten," of course becomes engaged to "my husband's dearest friend," whose "features were clear cut, and, as Charlie used to say, blooded, or ancestrally handsome."

* 'Four Irrepressibles; or, The Tribe of Benjamin. Their Summer with Aunt Agnes; What they did, and what they undid.' Boston: Loring. 1877.
'That Husband of Mine.' Boston: Lee & Shepard; New York: Charles T. Dillingham. 1877.

Even in another somewhat similar story, 'His Grandmothers,' which surely has not a title suggestive of amorous frenzy, we find the grandson's wife's friend becoming engaged to the husband's partner. While this concession is made to the tastes of the inveterate reader of novels, there is also a good deal that is really entertaining in the poor wife's story of the two grandmothers-in-law who planted themselves in her home. One was an amiable, silly creature, while the other was a domestic tyrant of the most virulent kind. She bullied her granddaughter and petted her easily-beguiled grandson; she bought a pig and cow, and then put the family, excepting the grandson, on short allowance of skimmed milk, making insufficient butter from the cream, while she sold two quarts of good milk to a neighbor for her own emolument. In a word, she exhausted nearly all the methods of refined cruelty that have such frequent and crushing effect in the enforced intimacy of family life. The story ends with the curtness of one of Mother Goose's melodies; but there is a good deal of humor in this amusing sketch which could find better employment in a more real story. The writer has the unfortunate gift of clear-sightedness, and at times she shows considerable cleverness, as in her description of her own character.

In 'My Three Conversations with Miss Chester,' Mr. F. B. Perkins describes a peculiar, but successful, method of courtship, which can be strongly recommended to the attention of diffident or taciturn young men. The title of the book, it should be said in the first place, is misleading, for conversation was but the least of the means employed to win the accomplished Miss Irene Chester. The supposed narrator of the story tells us that at the time of these conversations he "was twenty-five—between you and me, fair reader, I am not so very much older now—tall, well-formed, strong and active, both mentally and physically, and an extensive and omnivorous reader and student." It is not easy to see why he does not also call public attention to his conspicuous modesty; but he had one finer and even rarer quality, namely, "a considerable endowment of that magnetic power used in throwing 'sensitives,' as they are technically called, into the mesmeric state." This gifted young man went to a party in "a Fifth Avenue palace" in this city; he "was not dressed in fine raiment, wore no gloves," and in consequence he took a seat in a corner, from which he began studying the lives of the company "from their faces, and working the detail of expressions and postures into connection with the pre-existent mass of mental philosophy whose acquisition and arrangement had been my study for years." It could not have been the philosophy he had amassed, it must have been the absence of gloves, that caused him to look with such contempt as he expresses in the story at the scene about him, until his attention was attracted to one young woman who was talking to a number of men. He "gazed and gazed" until he "entered a state resembling that which Asiatic ascetics believe they can attain by unending reiterations of the sacred name." He stared in this way until, as he says, "I was aroused from entire forgetfulness of time and place by some sudden and uncomfortable sensation, which made me for an instant suspect that I had been struck." This was a natural but unfortunately erroneous supposition, so that when the young woman walked away what must he do but follow her and begin to gaze at her again? This stare lasted until he received another shock, when he persuaded some one to introduce him to her, and the first of the conversations began. These were comparatively unimportant; Miss Chester, who was so brilliant a talker and so cutting in her retorts that she was nicknamed "The Two-edged Sword"—a two-edged compliment, by the way—could not hold her own against this self-confident young philosopher, who amused himself at parties by sitting in front of a lady he did not know and glaring at her; and almost all she had to say was that she felt the power of his eye, the strength of his will, etc. The second conversation consisted mainly of a game of chess, and the third of his reading aloud to her a translation from a German book of mystical philosophy, she replying with some music, in which he (being satisfied that she "physically, . . . intellectually, . . . and morally" suited him) read the story of her great love for him; and although "wont to be fastidious, even to the implication of affectation," kindly acknowledged to himself that she was worthy of him, and agreed to marry her. What may be the meaning of this remarkably disagreeable little book it is not easy to decipher, unless it be a glorification of the habit of staring. Youths who are too diffident to speak, although it must be confessed that this was not our hero's trouble, would do well, however, to make sure that it is a "sensitive" whom they try to fascinate in this way.

'His Grandmothers. A Summer Salad.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.
'My Three Conversations with Miss Chester. By Frederic Beecher Perkins.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877

Daudet's 'Sidonie,' having met with considerable success in this country, the publishers have taken advantage of the popularity of this new author to bring out a translation of another of his stories, 'Jack,' which appeared in the original French something less than a year ago. The translator's work has been well done. There is a noteworthy absence of the grating passages which generally betray translation, and it is probably only a slip of the pen that speaks, page 234, of several *millions* of francs accruing from a sale of furniture. We speak without book, however. As to the novel itself it has elements of popularity, though it can hardly be affirmed that it has merits of the highest order. The story is an exceedingly pathetic one—pathetic, that is to say, in the way of wringing the feelings and rending the heart; but it is a mere record of suffering. The hero, whose name is that of the book, is an illegitimate child of a light woman of Paris. This mother of his is a pretty, empty-headed chatterbox, who places Jack in a sort of French Dotheboys Hall, kept by a vicious creature, Moronval, who has a crowd of penniless Bohemians to aid him in the instruction of the motley crowd of foreign lads attending the school. The mother falls in love with and marries one of these teachers, D Argenton, an ambitious, cold, arrogant, cruel man, who yearns to be a poet. It is whispered that this character is a caricature of a certain prominent Parisian man of letters, who certainly, if he has heard the rumor, must have a very low opinion of Daudet's powers. A less attractive person than D'Argenton it would be hard to find. The author is never tired of exhibiting his many faults, his arid faculty of composition, his insufferable conceit, his brutality to his step-son, his heartlessness to his wife, and his self-satisfaction. Jack's career under the guide of his step-father is a succession of miseries. D'Argenton makes him a laboring-man, a stoker on a steamer. While there his health is ruined, and when he returns to land, and fate seems to smile upon him a little, one disappointment falls upon him after another, and finally, when every possible misfortune has come upon him, the reader is relieved by being told of his death.

No one, of course, not made of stone, can read this chronicle of suffering without keen sympathy with its victim and anger at his persecutors, and a novel that really succeeds in making the reader forget himself and feel for another's woes must have power. But is there not something coarse in Daudet's method of work? He pursues his bad and unhappy characters as relentlessly as if he were a frontiersman chasing a horse-thief. The bad people might with equal art be named like the two-legged qualities which compose the *dramatis personæ* of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' so persistently do they show their bad sides, so fiercely does the author denounce them. The reader is never trusted to draw an inference of his own. For instance, Jack's mother, having been beaten by her husband, takes refuge with her son, who is hardly able to support himself and is trying to lay by money against his marriage to the girl he is engaged to. The mother goes out and flings his money away with both hands. She is recounting what she has bought:

"But this is not all. I went to buy this pie at a place where they sell fifteen cents less than anywhere else. It was so far, however, that I had to take a carriage to return."

Most writers would have sufficient confidence in their admirers to stop here and let the reader form his own conclusions, but Daudet goes on:

"This was thoroughly characteristic. A carriage at two francs to save fifteen cents!"

And this is but a sample of the way in which the book is written. Nothing is too glaring if it only produces an effect, so that the reader feels when he has finished the book as if his mind had been beaten with clubs. Cleverness like Daudet's does not need this exaggeration; it makes his story impressive to even the hastiest reader, but leaves it a mere mass of gloom without alleviation or possible consolation. The reader can only mourn one more victim of a novelist's cruelty; he cannot admire his art.

Another translation from the French is 'Gérard's Marriage,' by André Theuriet. Theuriet is a novel-writer of modest merit, who has carefully studied modern English fiction with considerable advantage to his own work. One of his early books was a French paraphrase of one of Miss Rhoda Broughton's stories—'Good-by, Sweetheart,' if we are not mistaken—and in his original writing there are to be found traces of English models. It may be merely fanciful to mention as such the love

'Jack. From the French of Alphonse Daudet, author of 'Sidonie,' 'Robert Helmont,' etc., by Mary Neal Sherwood, translator of 'Sidonie.'' First American edition, from the fortieth thousand, French edition. The Cobweb Series of Choice Fiction. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1877.
'Gerard's Marriage: a Novel. From the French of André Theuriet.' Collection of Foreign Authors, No. II. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1877.

of nature he displays, but he certainly shows English influence in his tendency to take for heroines young girls who do not follow the trig conventional French formulas. Still, it may be questioned whether he imitates the English sufficiently well to deserve translation into that tongue. His stories at the best are but slight things, and although he apparently imagines himself the pink of propriety, he manages to commit various breaches of decorum which were never learned from reading any English novels, except possibly those of Fielding and Smollett. So long as French novels remain in their original tongue any one who chooses can leave them unread, and those who read them are generally prepared for a conventional form of treatment which would shock them in an English book. Readers ignore and set down for local coloring in a French novel what is, in fact, exceedingly disagreeable. This story, for instance, is innocence itself, but it contains one scene such as is not to be found in any contemporaneous English novel, and which it would be quite as well not to introduce to such a public of indiscriminate readers as exists in this country. Besides this, there is no great merit in the story that would seem to prompt a translation.

Mr. Hawley Smart's 'Two Kisses,' which has been reprinted in this country some time after its appearance in England, will be found to be very entertaining. It is what is called a society novel, describing the career of a young widow who, having buried a worthless husband, marries again. The plot is an ingenious and, what is more, a probable one, if we make allowances for a little straining here and there; and the people are clearly and cleverly drawn. There is a great variety of characters introduced to the reader: a somewhat disreputable freebooter, whose position between respectability and swindling is not very certain, a sleek villain, a sensible husband of a coquettish wife, a very charming young girl, a would-be novelist, etc., etc., and every one of these persons gives the reader a very agreeable impression of the author's humor and habit of observation.

The difference between a really clever story like this one and a less genuine one will be very plain to those who, after finishing 'Two Kisses,' take up 'Until the Day Break.' This is also a society novel, and although the plot deserves commendation, the manner of treatment cannot be praised. Here is an example:

"'When may we expect that interesting event?' asked Ellis. [He means Laura's entrance into society.]

"'Undecided as yet,' replied Mrs. Stanley; 'but Laura is growing restless under her chrysalis state, and I presume she will burst upon our vision before long a beautiful butterfly.'

"'I hardly think the butterfly could surpass the chrysalis; in fact the chrysalis is to me the more interesting. Butterflies are not to be depended upon; they are blown about by every zephyr and enticed away by every newly-blossomed flower,' said Ellis, earnestly.

"'Yes; but the chrysalis is an insensate thing,' exclaimed Laura," etc., etc.

Again, let the reader compare the naturalness of the wicked persons in 'Two Kisses' with the mother and daughter who converse as follows in 'Until the Day Break.' The worldly mother says:

"'And Mr. Arnot hints of his wealth. The dear fellow is so delicate. He knows, of course, *we* don't care for it; but still wealth is a power. Ah! child, how highly he regards us.' . . .

"'And what if he knew the truth?' laughed matter-of-fact Annie.

"'But he mustn't, child. He must think that we care nothing, *absolutely* nothing, for dollars and cents, and care only for that which brings soul nearer to soul; only the beautiful in life; and he must never guess that *it is* the dollars and cents we want after all!'"

Certainly this author cannot be accused of making vice attractive.

A really dismal novel never goes begging for readers, and 'My Bonnie Lass' is more depressing to the spirits than a fortnight's storm would be. The plot is very intricate, and every new turn it takes brings only fresh misery upon the wretched Gregory Fitzgerald. He falls in love with a very charming girl, but his more fascinating brother comes upon the scene, and poor Gregory has to help him out of his troubles and see him win the heroine. There is a tolerably wilful accumulation of unhappiness, first and last, and the introductory episode about the girl's father is perhaps unnecessarily sad; but there are good points in the story. The conduct of the brother Gerald, when his evil deeds are discovered, is a novelty in fiction, and there are some chapters where the pathos is not exaggerated. The book is written in rather slipshod English, and there is more accidental overhearing of conversation than is commendable either on the score of probability or of invention on the part of the author, but, on the whole, this is a great improvement on Mrs. Hamilton's earlier work.

It was in an evil moment that the author of 'Beautiful Edith, the Child-Woman,' chose the name for her novel. It is a most unfortunate title, suggesting to the reader, as it does, the most oppressive silliness, while in fact the story is as entertaining and clever as any that has appeared for some time. It would be, perhaps, too much to say that it is as good as 'The Wocing O't,' but it is very like that great favorite, while it is free from the somewhat snobbish awe of the aristocracy which marred Mrs. Alexander's novel. It is yet somewhat too long for gracefulness; but the amount of cleverness, of knowledge of the world, of observation, of kindly humor that has produced this story is very unusual. Take any one of the characters—Mrs. Lisle, for instance—and it will be hard to say in what respect the resemblance to life could be made greater.

'Two Kisses. By Hawley Smart.' Boston: Loring. 1877.
'Until the Day Break: a Novel. By Mrs. J. M. D. Bartlett ("Birch Arnold").' The International Series. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1877.
'My Bonnie Lass. By Mrs. C. V. Hamilton, author of 'Woven of Many Threads,' 'A Crown from the Spear,' 'Ropes of Sand,' etc.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1877.

Historical Dramas. By Tom Taylor, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. (London: Chatto & Windus. 1877. 8vo, pp. 466.) —Mr. Taylor is a skilful playwright, a fair dramatist, and a poor poet. He writes good smooth blank-verse, but it is lit by little light and informed with no fire; his prose is much more vigorous and direct than his verse. Of the seven plays in this volume four are in verse, yet the three in prose include the best two—"Lady Clancarty" and "Plot and Passion." The latter, although a little stiff and at times a little thin, is a really powerful drama, while the former is one of the very best plays of its class. Of the blank-verse plays, two are unfortunate attempts on the lives of "Anne Boleyn" and "Jeanne Darc," hapless heroines of many a tragedy and opera, no one of which, if we mistake not, has attained success on the stage. "The Fool's Revenge" and "'Twixt Axe and Crown" follow in part the lines laid down by M. Victor Hugo and Frau Birch-Pfeiffer in 'Le Roi s'amuse' and 'Elizabeth, Prinzessin von England.' They are not slavish imitations or adaptations, but rather a free-handed reworking of the earlier plays. The right to take material wherever it is to be found has been acted on openly and without concealment by all dramatic poets from Plautus to Molière. Mr. Taylor is scrupulous in acknowledging in notes the source of his inspiration. Only in the two cases above cited has he been a considerable borrower; two plays are entirely original, and in three cases he is indebted to another merely for the rudimentary hint.

If this volume find readers, Mr. Taylor proposes to gather together two more, one of comedies and one of romantic dramas. We should be glad to see these followed by still another, containing the comedies written by him in collaboration with Mr. Charles Reade—"Masks and Faces" for one. The habit of publishing plays, which once obtained in England and still obtains in France, cannot be without influence for good on the quality of dramatic literature.

'Beautiful Edith, the Child-Woman.' Loring's Tales of the Day. Boston: Loring. 1877.

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Continued from page iii.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1877.

The Week.

THE result of the elections on Tuesday has not greatly falsified the expectations of either party, nor does it show any marked political change in the country at large. In New England the Republicans have more than held their own. Governor Rice, on a platform unequivocally endorsing the Administration in its course towards the South and its attempted reform of the civil service, has been re-elected by about 17,000 plurality, receiving some 89,000 votes to Gaston's 72,000 and Pitman's (Prohibition) 16,000—the last an increase of some 4,000. The Labor Reform candidate polled less than 4,000 votes, and generally in all the States this party has accomplished nothing except locally. The Massachusetts Legislature is strongly Republican. Even in the city of Boston Governor Gaston obtained but a plurality of about 300. The hope that this holds out of a restoration of the city government to the hands of the better classes will not, we trust, be disappointed. In Connecticut, besides county officers, both Senators and Representatives were voted for, and the Republicans have obtained a firm majority in both branches. This ensures a Republican successor to United States Senator Barnum next year. In New York the Democratic State ticket was successful by a moderate majority, but both the Senate and the House are in doubt at this writing. Should they, too, prove Democratic, they will elect a Democratic Senator next year. In this city, as usual, the anti-Tammany movement broke down completely, with the exception (and it is a consoling one) that John Morrissey was elected to the Senate in spite of the Boss's opposition. General McClellan had an easy triumph in New Jersey, and the Democrats seem also to have carried a majority of the Legislature. Pennsylvania appears to have gone Democratic in an election for State Treasurer and some minor offices. Maryland, of course, went the same way. In Virginia, the success, without opposition, of the Conservatives means, we hope, an honest resolve to pay the debts of the State. The test of this will be, perhaps, how far the Lieutenant-Governor, Walker, more outspoken than his chief against repudiation, ran behind his ticket. Another cheering result is the election of a hard-money Governor in Wisconsin, by a small majority, over a Democratic greenback inflationist. The Governor and Legislature of Minnesota are, as heretofore, Republican, and both Kansas and Nebraska have been carried by the same party for chief-justice and county officers. In Mississippi the Democrats report an increased majority.

Mr. Ewing's bill for the repeal of the third section of the Resumption Act, which had been introduced into the House on Monday of last week and was considered the most important measure before Congress prior to the introduction of the "Silver" Bill, was reported back from the Committee on Banking and Currency during the morning hour of Wednesday and an attempt made to pass it without discussion. A test vote on a question of procedure gave 138 in favor and 116 opposed to the measure, and, subsequently, on Thursday 128 to 120 and 132 to 124, and on Friday 140 to 107—the votes all showing the impossibility of the anti-resumptionists obtaining a two-thirds vote in case of a Presidential veto. By a blunder in parliamentary tactics, moreover, the anti-resumptionists lost control of their bill, and it remained without further progress, with the exception of an amendment by Mr. Fort designed to retain free banking, until Monday of this week, when it was taken out of the morning hour and made a special order from day to day until Thursday the 13th, when a vote will be taken upon it unless additional discussion is desired, and in that case the vote may be postponed five days longer. The most important and alarming action of Congress, however, was with regard to the remonetization of silver. Several bills to effect this, among them the well-known Bland Bill, had been presented last week, and on Monday, by an arrangement with the Banking and Currency Committee, Mr. Bland moved the adoption of his bill, and it was immediately passed by the overwhelming vote of 163 to 34. Nearly one hundred members, a majority of whom oppose inflation, were absent at the time of the vote, but under any circumstances the House seems to have a two-thirds majority in favor of remonetization. The bill now goes to the Senate. Nearly two hundred additional bills were introduced in the House on Monday, making, in round numbers, over one thousand now before Congress.

The Silver Bill provides for the coinage, on the same terms and conditions as gold, of all silver bullion deposited at the Mint for the purpose in 412 -grain dollars, which are to be a legal tender for all debts and dues, public and private, except where otherwise provided by contract. If it became a law, it would give us a second depreciated legal tender, would substitute silver for gold in the payment of the customs duties, and would give all debtors a chance to cheat their creditors once more, except in the few cases where gold payment is in the contract. It would dispose completely of Secretary Sherman's promise that the new four per cent. bonds should be paid in gold, and would thus operate as a naked swindle, without the shadow of an excuse as regards the holders of these securities, and would, of course, fill the holders of all other promises to pay with well-founded alarm; for the implied pledge to pay in gold created by the demonetization of silver would not be treated with much ceremony by such moralists as the silver men. The first effects of the measure would be felt by the working classes, who would all be paid in silver in order to secure the difference between the silver and paper dollar. Though last, not least, it would cause a powerful flow of the surplus silver in Europe to our shores to do duty as legal tender, and the rapid disappearance of the useless gold. In fact, it is difficult to describe all the confusion it would create. Some of the names in the majority have surprised us, and will surprise others a good deal, notably that of Mr. J. D. Cox, of Ohio, who we supposed kept his head clear. There is a report that the bill got before the House by means of a trick—that is, giving it a misleading title; but this is of no consequence. Our remarks on the subject in another column were written before the vote.

Senator Morton died last week, after a lingering illness. He became famous during the war by the extraordinary vigor and resolution with which he brought the resources of the State of Indiana to the support of the Government, and especially by the remarkable feat of carrying on the State Government for two years in defiance of a Copperhead legislature, which adjourned without making any appropriations. The courage, ingenuity, and readiness to take responsibility which he showed during this trying period proved him to have in a very high degree the qualities of a revolutionary chief, and their successful display in defence of the Union brought him at the close of the struggle more fame and influence than perhaps fell to the lot of any civilian who had not served in the Cabinet. His subsequent career in the Senate detracted from rather than added to his reputation. He gave no proof of any constructive talent, and as the times grew peaceful his energy was less and less valuable. As a lawyer he never stood high, and he apparently had no fixed or clear convictions on any important question of the day, and but little of the knowledge needed for its treatment. He was deeply impressed, as was natural enough, with the necessity of keeping the Republican party in power, and to this was ready to make any sacrifice. He was the advocate, if not the author, of President Johnson's policy of reconstruction, and afterwards was

ready to impeach him for carrying it out. He violently opposed negro suffrage when it was first proposed, but as soon as it became a party necessity eagerly advocated it. When the evil results which he had predicted would flow from it began to show themselves, he strenuously denied their existence, or ascribed them to some other cause. In 1867, probably under the influence of the same devotion to party, he began to advocate the payment of the Government bonds in greenbacks, but finding that the scheme did not take hold of the public mind, supported the payment of them in gold. A few years later he became the leader of the inflationists in the Senate, and came near plunging the country in the wildest financial disorder by the championship of the measure of paper expansion which General Grant luckily vetoed. His speeches on finance during this period were such as to bring discredit on the body to which he belonged and which had to listen to them. A year later, however, he appeared on the stump as a supporter of redemption in coin, public opinion having veered in that direction. For reform of the civil service he always expressed great contempt. During the troubles attending the Presidential count last winter, when there was talk of a resort to force to carry out the Republican view of the law, the extremists turned to him as the one man in the party who was supposed to have the pluck and determination and kind of judgment necessary for the conduct of such an enterprise. In a plan which he long nursed for counting the Presidential vote he denied the right of the President of the Senate to perform that duty, but as soon as it seemed necessary for the election of Mr. Hayes he maintained it. It was to his credit that, though his opportunities both during and after the war were enormous, he was never suspected of profiting personally by the services he rendered the country. Taking him altogether, it may be said that, while eminently useful down to 1865, he has since that period been a hindrance rather than a help to good government, and this owing partly to the defects of qualities in themselves respectable.

The *Times* and *Tribune* both make frequent reference in their editorial columns to extravagant and fantastic schemes of civil-service reform which certain "theorists" are pressing on the President, and which he is acting wisely in resisting. Both these papers owe it to the public and to the cause of civil-service reform to say what these schemes are. It may not be necessary as yet to mention who the "theorists" are who have concocted and are urging them, but the schemes ought to be described, partly that the President may get whatever credit is due to him, partly that the people may have an honest laugh, and partly that the "theorists," seeing their exposure, may betake themselves to some rational employment. Unless we get the information soon we shall begin to suspect that something is wrong, and that the "theorists" board with Sairey Gamp's Mrs. Harris, and that their visionary plans are mere pie-dreams.

It appears to have been supposed that Simmons, the Boston Collector, was going to keep out of the late canvass, and keep his subordinates out, on the ground that the President's order made this imperative. The Attorney-General, therefore, wrote a letter explaining that the order was not intended to have any such effect, and that all it meant was that office-holders were not to take part in the management of caucuses and conventions, but that it furnished no excuse for non-participation in the canvass. Thus encouraged or rebuked, Simmons made his appearance at a ratification meeting in Faneuil Hall, and cheered the hearts of the Republicans by a speech in which he professed the usual devotion to the party and horror of the Democrats, and administered the usual reproof to the "stuck-up" reformers who dislike office-holding politicians. What strikes one as curious about all this is, that if Simmons were not going to use influence as an office-holder—that is, use the Government patronage to get Republican votes—there should be such a desire to have him participate in the canvass that the Attorney-General should write a letter to draw him out. Under the order, Simmons is supposed to be in the position towards politics of a private shoe-dealer or dry-goods merchant. But there would be no anxiety to hear the shoe-dealer Simmons on the issues of the day. He is not eloquent; there is but little respect felt in Massachusetts for his character, and none for his opinions. His guarantee or approval of Hayes and the "policy" as a shoe-dealer would, in fact, be worth less than nothing. So why does he figure so prominently in Massachusetts politics, if he figures simply as a business man?

Mr. Gamaliel Bradford is contributing occasional little revelations of municipal jobbery in Boston to the *Advertiser* of that city, illustrating the use of the city works to support the hangers-on of the members of the Common Council, in the style so familiar to us here, and showing that Boston is pressing close behind us. But something has just occurred in his own city, Cambridge, which may fairly be considered the utmost limit which the degradation of municipal government has yet reached anywhere. The system of out-door relief, which is lodged, in the New England fashion, in the discretion of the Overseer of the Poor, has there been pushed to an extraordinary length during the past year or two, and made the more demoralizing by being given in the form of orders on provision dealers. At the revision of the voting lists in the present year the question came up before the city Board of Aldermen whether the names of five hundred and eighty-eight persons who had received this relief during the past year should be retained or struck off. Only thirty-four were so struck off, and these on the ground that they had been "relieved" a good deal; the other five hundred and fifty-four were retained as being only slight paupers, and will this year vote away in taxes the property of those who have lived on their own earnings and savings. The principle seems, therefore, likely to be established that a man is not a pauper for political purposes if he does not draw on the public purse too often. The last mayor of Cambridge—which is the seat of a great university—was a person entirely without property, and only paid a poll-tax. He had been the Chief of Police, and was removed by the then mayor for neglect of duty; but being "a good fellow," "the masses" rallied to his support and put him in the mayor's place at the next election, in order to "vindicate him," as Mr. Robeson would say.

The trial of Cardozo, ex-Treasurer of South Carolina—the first of the State cases to be tried—began in Columbia last Thursday. The most interesting evidence elicited was to the effect that a fund of the Republican Printing Company, derived from or kept for dishonest practices, was known as the "Sunday-School Fund," and a convenient method of keeping the score of rascality and identifying amounts paid, as well as those receiving them, was to invert the initials of the recipients of fraudulent orders and bills—F. L. Cardozo, for instance, being known as C. L. Frankfort; F. J. Moses as M. J. Foreman, etc. Fraudulent papers, by the way, were technically known as "mistakes." The indictment in the present case was against Cardozo, Gleaves, Woodruff, Jones, and Lee, but Gleaves has not yet been arrested, and Woodruff, Jones, and Lee were admitted as witnesses, and allowed a *nolle prosequi*. Cardozo denied the main charges against him, although admitting a great deal of irregular practice. The direct evidence of his guilt is prevented from being irresistible solely by the character of the witnesses. As we go to press the jury, composed of five whites and seven blacks, have not yet agreed upon a verdict. The case of Smalls, now a member of Congress, will next be taken up; and it is difficult to understand how the Senate can much longer refuse to take some action with regard to Patterson. A new indictment has been found against him, based on the testimony of no less than twenty-four ex-members of the Legislature, all of whom confess to having received bribes from him, either on behalf of the Blue Ridge Railroad scheme or of his election to the Senate. A new indictment for bribery has also been found against Whittemore, of cadet-brokership fame.

It has seemed impossible for a long time past to get any precise figures with regard to the debt of this city. The Steinway Hall

meeting which appointed the Committee of Fifty, having stated in a preface to the resolutions adopted that the exact figures were not attainable, and that the debt was probably about $120,000,000, Mr. Kelly, the Comptroller, has brought out a statement of the financial condition of the city up to August 1. From this it appears that the funded debt of the city, less a sinking fund of nearly $30,000,000, is more than ninety-one and a half millions of dollars. But the temporary debt brings the amount of gross debt up to more than $150,000,000. From this Mr. Kelly deducts nearly $55,000,000 as "estimated value of assets," making the net debt about $95,700,000. This "estimated value of assets," however, is open to criticism. Part of it consists of taxes on real estate unpaid since 1871, and interest on them, which he estimates at their face value. "Uncollected assessments," again, from what date is not stated, is another large item, which there is good reason for believing he makes too high. The city, moreover, is now defendant in an enormous number of suits, with claims against it amounting to $12,000,000, of which Mr. Kelly admits $3,000,000 must probably be paid. Altogether, it is evident that the Steinway Hall statement was but little exaggerated, and it is still more evident that the debt of New York can never be cancelled under its present system of management. It does not decrease, notwithstanding the Ring's overthrow, and if the majority of Mr. Kelly's political disciples were capable of understanding his figures, he would not have committed the indiscretion of publishing so damaging a document on the eve of a city election. It is the most forcible argument for the adoption of the municipal amendments that has yet appeared.

Wall Street speculation was dormant during the week, pending the action of Congress on the repeal of the Resumption Act and silver remonetization. If resumption can be deferred, or, still better, wholly defeated, Stock Exchange speculators will profit largely. To them, however, it is becoming clear that the two-thirds majority necessary to overcome the President's veto to the repeal of the Resumption Act, which is confidently counted upon, cannot be obtained, and accordingly that the Act will stand. Under this law the U. S. legal-tender note circulation has been contracted $27,509,000; and since last March—up to which time nothing had been done to acquire gold under the law—the gold balance of the Treasury has been increased so that more than $60,000,000 gold are now available for the purposes of resumption. Unless this contraction of paper and acquisition of gold can be stopped, it is evident that the pledge of the Government to pay gold will be redeemed January 1, 1879. Failing to secure the repeal of the Resumption Act, the next best thing for speculation, in the estimation of the Stock Exchange, is the remonetization of the 412½-grain silver dollar as a full legal-tender, and, as we have already related, the action of the House during the week has greatly encouraged those who hope for such a consummation. At the close of the week the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar would have had a gold value of $0.9203; while the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar (the promise of the U. S. to pay a gold dollar) had a gold value of $0.9744.

General Tergukassoff last summer executed some rapid marches, while retreating after the defeat at Delibaba, all the way to Igdyr in Russian Armenia, and thence, with fresh reinforcements, hastening to the rescue of the Russian garrison at Bayazid. His pursuit of Ismail Pasha from the neighborhood of Igdyr to that of Hassan Kaleh is still more remarkable for rapidity. Near the latter place he effected a junction with General Heiman, about October 28, Mukhtar and Ismail Pashas retreating before them. The Russian cavalry continued the pursuit, and two hours after midnight surprised the enemy's bivouac, cutting down a hundred men. Utter exhaustion of men and horses prevented a much longer pursuit, and the Turks, having abandoned Hassan Kaleh, occupied a strong position at or near Deve Boyun, a few miles from Erzerum. The pursuers, whose purpose of overtaking the enemy before he reached his place of support had been baffled, now halted several days, evidently waiting for the arrival of new forces. Early on Monday, November 5, they attacked the Turkish positions, and a general engagement ensued, which ended in the evening with the driving in of the centre of the Turks and their retreat in confusion to Erzerum. Resistance in the city appearing impracticable, Mukhtar abandoned it on Tuesday, retiring in the direction of Erzingan. According to a despatch from Constantinople, the Russians entered the capital of Turkish Armenia on the same day. Shortly before its fall it was described by a competent English observer as a fortress of not remarkable strength, but lately placed by the engineering skill of General Kohlmann, a Hungarian officer of the war of 1848–9, and by the mounting of a hundred Krupp guns on its walls, in a state of present safety. Kars is blockaded, and, negotiations for its surrender having been broken off, the erection of siege batteries against its outworks has been commenced. As to its capability of standing a long siege the reports are contradictory.

The capture by the Russians of the Turkish position between Gorni Dubnik and Telish on October 24 is now ascertained to have cost them an immense sacrifice in officers of the Imperial Guard, while the number of Turks captured there has correspondingly been raised in official reports from the figure of the original bulletin. The report of the transfer of Prince Charles's headquarters from Poradim to Bogot has not been confirmed, the Grand Duke Nicholas now occupying the latter place, with the Czar as visitor. A detachment of the Rumanians has made a reconnaissance in the direction of Rahova on the Widdin road. These badly-decimated troops thus continue to be active on the north flank of Plevna, while the Russians operate southwest of it. On November 1 the latter occupied Gorni Dubnik, Osman Pasha's troops having withdrawn on their approach, and thence they advanced "two versts" nearer to Plevna. Further south, Russian infantry and cavalry pushed forward more boldly, Shefket Pasha retiring without fighting toward Orhanie; and Lukovitza, on the Orhanie road, and Teteven and Turkish Izvor, southwest of Lovatz, were occupied without a conflict worth mentioning. Orhanie is being placed in a state of defence, and considerable reinforcements are reported to have been despatched to enable Shefket to resume the offensive. There are also some movements perceptible, aggressive from both sides, east of the Shipka Pass, Russian troops being concentrated in the neighboring mountain gorges, while a "Turkish force, numbering between three and four thousand men, from south of the Balkans," is officially reported by the Russians to have been repulsed, after three hours' fighting, in an attack on Mahren, a few miles southeast of Elena. This is the only instance of fighting on the part of the Tzesarevitch's forces recorded in the telegrams of the last ten days. Nor does Zimmermann's activity in the Dobrudja amount to much. Altogether, the Russian operations in Bulgaria, since the arrival of the Guards and other reinforcements, are marked east of the Yantra by desultoriness and west of it by a cautious avoidance of heavy encounters.

The returns from the elections for the French Councils-General are not all in at this writing, and there are so many districts to hear from that it will probably be some days still before the result is accurately known. In the meantime, the prevailing impression seems to be that the Republicans have made gains, but whether gains enough to get rid of the MacMahonate majority of 15 in the Senate remains to be seen. Part of it has undoubtedly disappeared already under the result of the Assembly elections. The Marshal has apparently made up his mind to compromise and conciliate to some degree, and attempted to form a new ministry, headed by M. Pouyer-Quertier, and containing, except the Minister of War and Minister of Marine, who were to remain from the present Cabinet, about an equal number of Legitimists and Bonapartists. It would have differed from the present Cabinet in being more moderate, but not in being more in accord with the Assembly. The attempt, however, it is now reported, miscarried, and the old Cabinet is still retained. The Republicans have in the meantime resolved to accept no Ministry which is not parliamentary in its origin, and will undoubtedly unseat all members of the Assembly who have been plainly elected by Government pressure. The close of the struggle cannot now be deferred many weeks.

THE EXECUTIVE BARRIER AGAINST THE SILVER MANIA.

THERE is every reason for believing at present—supposing that Congress does not interfere—that Mr. Sherman will be able to resume specie payments at the date fixed by the Resumption Act of 1875, and that we shall then be delivered from one of the most injurious results of the war, and one of the serious impediments to the return of healthy production and exchange. But there is danger that Congress may interfere. The Western Democrats have abandoned the open advocacy of unlimited paper inflation, the Republican support of which has always been slender. But they have taken up in its stead the advocacy of the remonetization of silver as a legal tender to an unlimited amount, and for this scheme Republican support is strong. Indeed, it may be said that the West, including all parties, is thoroughly given over to this new and curious delusion, and at this writing it seems, we will not say probable but not improbable, that we shall only be saved from it, as we were saved from the paper inflation scheme of 1874, by a Presidential veto.

That its embodiment in legislation would defeat or greatly increase the difficulties of resumption we think there can be little doubt. It would injure the Government credit, and thus increase the premium on gold, by spreading the impression that the Democratic party, into whose hands the Government is passing, was possessed by a revolutionary temper in matters of finance, and might be expected to treat the currency and the public debt from a Communistic point of view. The alarm thus inspired would be deepened by the fact that in any such schemes it would meet with no organized opposition. On this silver matter the Republican party has deserted to the enemy or refuses to fight, and the resistance to it only comes from small and detached bodies of individual Republicans, many of whom are afraid to speak out too strongly about it lest it should damage the party in other matters. Few Republican papers, for instance, were willing to say one word in criticism of Secretary Sherman's silence about the silver movement in his late speech in the Ohio canvass, though this movement is actually the most pressing danger to the public credit that now exists. The greenback movement is practically dead. It was too absurd to bear longer discussion, and the Supreme Court has given it a *coup de grâce* by the opinion that the issue of paper money is a war power, only to be used for war purposes. But the silver movement has a speciousness which the greenback movement never had, as we have more than once pointed out. Silver, for instance, is "hard money" and "coin," and is not capable, as paper is, of indefinite and arbitrary increase. Unfortunately, however, it is not for any of these reasons that it has been taken up in lieu of greenbacks. No sign of love for silver as money showed itself in this country until it fell below the legal relation to gold in value and began to fluctuate violently. While it stood above the legal ratio to gold and was steady in value, it was allowed to pass out of circulation, and be finally demonetized, after long Congressional discussion, without a murmur, and even without notice. As soon as it began to lose its measuring capacity—or, in other words, began to offer the means of defrauding somebody—it was suddenly and eagerly taken up, and most of the old defences of the greenback craze transferred to it, with various dishonest additions. The non-appearance of any objection to its demonetization when it was high and steady was ascribed, in defiance of the plainest history, to the cunning concealment of the "bankers" and "bondholders" who were engineering the scheme in Congress. Silver was praised as Scriptural money, the money of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob; as native-American money, being dug out of the ground in the interior of America; as cheap money, easy for the poor man to get hold of, as distinguished from gold, or dear money, beloved for that reason by bankers and rich men; and, finally, as money which, owing to its fall in value, would give all debtors a chance to make something out of their creditors, to which their sufferings and anxieties fully entitled them. To sober-minded and intelligent men, to whom public finance is business, of course the above sounds like very gross burlesque. But it is not burlesque. It is doctrine preached all over the West, believed in devoutly by millions, and now powerfully represented in Congress in the ranks of both parties.

Not only would the resumption of specie payments—that is, resumption in gold—be deferred by the success of the silver scheme, and the credit of the Government be shaken, but we should witness a repetition of that furnishing aid to dishonesty which was the most unfortunate feature of the issue of paper legal tenders, and the strongest argument for making such issues a strictly war measure, justifiable by necessity only, like the seizure of supplies or the burning of houses or bridges. It is not possible to permit a large body of persons to cheat another large body by repaying less than they borrowed, and confine the evil consequences to the parties to the transaction. The spectacle influences the imaginations even of the honest. The sight of swindling which meets with no punishment and causes no loss of reputation, helps, to a certain extent, to relax the very bonds of civilization, and rouses in every man a little of the old spirit of the marauding savage. When the swindle is perpetrated by means of a fluctuating standard of value the fluctuations operate as a continual feeder of the contagion of dishonesty. They convert the country into a vast gambling-house, and every buyer and seller and borrower and lender into a gambler who is laboring to outwit all who deal with him—that is, to get out of him by sharpness or dexterity some unexpected or concealed gain. We have gone through the disease with the greenbacks, and we are getting over it, after terrible moral ruin and wreck. What silver men now wish is to have us go through it again by means of a new source of infection. But they either do not see, or pretend not to see, that the issue of depreciated currency, whether it be silver or paper, as legal tender is only successful as a fraud on the first stroke. The only persons fairly caught by it are those to whom money is due at the moment of issue; the others protect themselves afterwards in making their contracts and fixing their prices. There is nothing more melancholy in the present agitation, and nothing which reflects more severely on the condition of our popular education, than the success which has been achieved in persuading the workingman that by making the dollar of some cheap material without changing its name he will get some advantage over the sellers of commodities, as if the flour-dealer or butcher would not see him coming with the "dollar of his fathers" and know what he was up to, and either put up the prices or cut down the quantity, as might seem easiest to save himself from loss.

The double-standard men, who pretend that you can so regulate the relation of gold and silver by law that one can always buy a thing either for a certain sum in gold or for the sum in silver which the law declares equal in value to that sum in gold, have, without meaning it, considerably aided in this delusion. No such simple state of things has ever existed. The metals cannot be made to circulate in this way in any fixed relation. Unfortunate creditors might be caught by the regulation once, but they would protect themselves afterwards by making their prices depend on the market value of the standard in which they were paid. But those who have recommended the double standard for the adoption of this country have not joined the silver men proper in the crazy suggestion that this country should adopt it alone. Messrs. Dana Horton, George Walker, and Cernuschi, who are the only persons who have supported it here whose opinions are entitled to any respect, acknowledge that, if feasible at all, it is only feasible by a convention among civilized nations, and that if we or any other country resorted to it alone, the result would be that we should become a reservoir for the depreciated and disused silver of other countries. That the rest of the world will join us in remonetizing silver, however, there is not the least likelihood. There is very little respect felt abroad at this moment for the opinions of our politicians on currency questions, and there is no good reason why there should be. Nothing could have been better calculated to destroy our weight on such matters than the composition and repute of the late Silver Commission. There was only one man on it whose studies and experience and the character of whose mind entitled

him to be there, or made his conclusions of any consequence. There was one, at least, whose disqualification was, by reason of his personal interest, gross and patent, and ought to have been fatal even if his mental equipment had been in any way adequate. But it was made up, although nominally a scientific body and intended to do scientific work, just in the way Congressional committees are made up—that is, so as to represent certain states of feeling, instead of bringing certain qualifications to the discharge of a dry and arduous duty. It is customary to put on a Congressional committee a certain number of members who want something and a certain number of others who do not want it. This is done on the theory which, with regard to a large number of matters, is sound enough, that the majority is practically omnipotent, and that what the law ordains can generally be done. But this is not true with regard to the currency. The value of currency is regulated by the opinions not of one country but of all civilized countries. Congress cannot lower or raise the value of gold or silver, or of any other commodity in relation to gold or silver. What the West or the South or the North or the East therefore feels or desires or hopes about the matter is of no sort of consequence, any more than what it feels or desires or hopes about the weather. The persons to report on the best standard of value are to be chosen, not with regard to their knowledge of the feelings of the people, but their knowledge of the laws of trade and of the experience of mankind with regard to currency. The case is one of those in which majorities, far from making laws, have to discover and conform themselves to laws; and the business of Congress and the Administration is not to find out what the West wants for the purpose of gratifying it, but for the purpose, if need be, of enlightening it by explanation and discussion.

When one sees, by the enormous number of bills introduced on currency matters, the confusion which reigns in Congress, one feels more than ever the desirableness of some positive enunciation of opinion on the silver question by the Administration. The country is fairly entitled to know, by clear and explicit statement, where the President and the Secretary of the Treasury stand on this matter—what they believe and what they intend, and the reason why. Such a statement would not only relieve the mind of the business world from much uncertainty, but furnish some sort of nucleus on which loose opinion might solidify. At present we present the curious spectacle of a great commercial country struggling with a grave financial problem, without any man or body of men whose opinions or plans about the matter are of more account than those of anybody else, and with the Executive charged with the custody of the Treasury playing the part of a silent spectator.

MARSHAL MacMAHON AND THE ELECTIONS.

THE result of the elections of the Councils-General, which will in their turn elect a considerable portion of the Senate which is to pass upon the question of revising the French Constitution in 1881, is not fully known at this writing; but enough is known to make it sure that the Ministry has sustained another defeat, which has made their retirement all but inevitable. The attempted formation of a new Ministry, with M. Pouyer-Quertier, the well-known Protectionist manufacturer, at its head, has not succeeded, and the old one will face the Assembly. The Duc de Broglie has been defeated at the election to the Councils by a Bonapartist, which probably fills his cup to the brim, and the Duc Decazes has been ready to resign for over a week. These are the only two members of the Ministry whose performances have excited much surprise. M. de Fourtou and the Bonapartists have been known to be capable of anything and have nothing to lose, but Decazes and De Broglie were supposed to be moderate men of good standing in all circles which they entered. De Broglie, in particular, has been a parliamentarian of the Orleanist school, was under the Empire one of the great apostles of constitutional government, and was the son of one of the most distinguished lights of the Orleanist régime. Probably nothing in the crisis has more amazed people, both in France and other countries, than his desertion of his party and principles, and his becoming an accomplice in probably the most absurd attempt at personal government yet made in French history. For it must be remembered that when the first Napoleon overthrew parliamentary government, on the Dixhuit Brumaire, he was a great conqueror who had crushed or cowed all the enemies of the republic; when Charles X. undertook to govern without a parliament, he represented and had inherited at least a portion of the prestige of an ancient French dynasty; when Louis Napoleon made his *coup d'état*, he bore a name which was associated in the minds of millions of Frenchmen with the most glorious days of the national history. It must be remembered, too, that all these attempts were made when the great bulk of the French population were absolutely without political training or experience of the working of constitutional government. The electors at the time of the Revolution of 1848 did not number over 250,000, and Louis Napoleon's first plébiscite took place among voters the great body of whom had only voted once before, and of whom very few had even a slight acquaintance with politics. In 1851 constitutional government was still hardly known on the Continent. Attempts to establish it had just met with bloody repression in Prussia, Austria, and Italy; and the friends of Liberalism everywhere were plunged in despair.

Now, however, everything is changed. France has just seen the boldest and most successful attempt at personal government, of recent date, end in disgraceful ruin. She has seen an army of 300,000 led into captivity under a chief calling himself Bonaparte. The people, too, instead of being the rude and illiterate peasants of 1851, with no knowledge of government but as a power which sent down the prefects and the gensdarmes from Paris, have received a considerable amount of school education, and have had thirty years of familiarity with universal suffrage. It is true that universal suffrage under the Empire was very much drilled and manipulated; but no man can vote during all that period, and live with voters, without acquiring the habit of discussion and a certain sense of superiority to the persons whom he puts in office, and a certain enjoyment of his own possession of power. In fact, one of the things the Imperialists were careful to do in all their addresses and manifestoes was to flatter the voters grossly, and impress upon them that they were the real seat of the sovereignty, and the true source of all legitimate authority. There was nothing Louis Napoleon was so proud of calling himself as the "Élu," or elected one, and nothing of which he boasted so much as of the number of votes he got in his plébiscites. Now, the most besotted and subservient population cannot be exposed to these influences for a whole generation without gaining considerably in self-esteem, and without expecting itself to be consulted and to a certain extent obeyed. The French people, therefore, on whom Marshal MacMahon has been trying his hand as a "saviour of society," is in very important respects a different people from that which witnessed and condoned the *coup d'état* of 1851.

Its surroundings, too, are as different as can be imagined. Austria has become a parliamentary empire; the King of Prussia has his supplies voted by a grudging and inquisitive Chamber; Italy is a united monarchy with a parliament and press nearly as free and active as those of Great Britain. Even the Turks have taken to debating and investigating. Europe, in short—that is, every country which Frenchmen know much of, or come into relations with, or for whose criticisms they care—is completely transformed since the last French Republic was overthrown. Though last, not least, the Marshal is neither a conqueror nor the son nor the nephew of a conqueror. He was in the Crimean war a brilliant general of division; in Italy the hero of a fight which was within a hair's-breadth of ending in defeat; was driven from the battlefield of Wörth almost with ignominy by the Crown Prince, and gave up his sword with the disorderly mass of fugitives who were caught in the trap at Sedan. He is a brave man, and has always hitherto done well to the extent of his ability, and in some countries would pass for a great soldier. But it is not such heroes as he that arouse French enthusiasm. The nation has drunk too deep of military glory, and has its annals crowded with the names of too many successful sol-

diers of the first rank, to have its imagination touched by MacMahon's modest exploits.

What, under these circumstances, put it into the old man's head suddenly to bid defiance to the Assembly, declare society in danger, and call upon the voters to send up an Assembly that would do his bidding, and surround himself with men ready to push coercion at elections further than the Empire in its worst and most arbitrary days had dared to push it? We believe this has been puzzling all Europe more than any political problem of the last thirty years. Nothing in the declarations of the Marshal or his ministers throws any light on it. Their speeches and documents enter into no details. They simply denounce "Radicalism," but do not describe what Radicalism is. M. Thiers and the other Republican writers and orators have had no difficulty whatever in showing that the last Assembly behaved wisely and moderately, and to their arguments there is absolutely no reply. When M. de Fourtou, and even the Duc Decazes, accused the Republican deputies of being Communists or persons of Communistic tendencies, there was really nothing to do but laugh. When the crisis first arose, and the Marshal asked Jules Simon to resign, the step had comparatively little gravity, as it was always acknowledged that in accepting a minister of such extremely radical antecedents, and personally so distasteful to him, he had gone even further in the way of concession than it was altogether reasonable to expect. But the subsequent proceedings, and especially the rush into the arms of the Bonapartists, and the claim of powers apart from and transcending those of the legislature, were something of which no adequate and favorable explanation has yet been offered, except by ascribing it to a sudden victory of the clerical influence in the Marshal's immediate circle. Hardly anything else, for instance, will account for the adhesion of the Duc de Broglie to the gross methods of intimidation pursued by M. de Fourtou; for the Duke is, above all things, a pious, and, it is said, an increasingly pious Catholic. The Marshal's new view of himself, too, that, although he was appointed by the legislature and his appointment was ratified by a popular vote, he is something more and higher than an officer of the government, and may save France against the will of the majority, can, it is fairly said, hardly have a political or purely mundane origin, but must be a suggestion coming from a sacerdotal source, and must owe its success, in part at least, to its gratefulness to the Marshal's household. This theory derives, too, a great deal of support from the language of the clerical press and from the outspoken participation of the bishops in the canvass, and the eager interest in it manifested at the Vatican. What the clergy can have expected from the triumph of such a régime as the Marshal's policy has been foreshadowing it is hard to say. Active interference for the restoration of the Pope's temporal power, which they are accused of looking for, is too preposterous an aim even for them, and their desires have probably not gone beyond the establishment of one Catholic government on whose influence they could count in any coming complications, inasmuch as the Church, for the first time in its history since Constantine, has at present no first-class Catholic sovereign or state at its back, and probably finds the maintenance of political influence indirectly through voters a task of increasing difficulty.

WESTERN INVESTMENTS.

THE crop in the Western States (California excepted) has turned out even finer than the high anticipations that had been formed of it. Both in quantity and quality it is unequalled, and is bringing a fair price—a much larger price, indeed, than could usually be expected with such a crop. The farmers are beginning to pay their debts, and business is of course improving. Failures, which in Iowa last year shot up suddenly from 5 per cent. (the average in that State) to 20 per cent., under the bad influence of two successive failures of crop, will this fall be very few. Money is plentiful all through the rich farming region of the West —extraordinarily so, indeed.

The growing appreciation of the value of the securities which the West offers is not so much the cause of this as the low rate of interest in the East, which has driven many large insurance and other investing companies by an irresistible force to a more profitable field. There are no trustworthy figures; but the fact that in the face of an increasing demand and occasional slight fall in the value of the real-estate security, the rate of interest has dropped within two years through the whole vast prairie country, of which Iowa is the centre, from 10 and 12 per cent. down to 7 and 8 (where the security is good, of course), shows the immense amount of capital that has gone there. In this country, where a few years ago it was difficult to get money on any security, to-day there is scarcely a town of half a dozen shops that has not competing agents urging the farmers to borrow the moneys of the companies they represent.

And this movement was on the whole a wise one where carefully executed. Notwithstanding the foolish delay now necessary in foreclosing Western mortgages, and the occasional and almost unavoidable unpunctuality of the borrowing farmers, the best of these mortgages have been probably among the best investments in the market; for the security, when properly selected, has been ample. A Western farm of fine quality and position is more salable on foreclosure than an Eastern one, as a general thing, and therefore foreclosure is less often necessary, especially as the farmers make money much more rapidly there. But, on the other hand, business is less regularly done, the standard of mercantile honor is much lower than in the East, particularly amongst the lawyers and real-estate dealers through whom this business has to be transacted; and careless ways of doing business are almost sure to cause loss. Yet no business interest in the country is so recklessly managed at present as this investment in the West of Eastern moneys.

The agents are far off, and it is difficult to oversee them. It is a case where there is special demand for the application of the cardinal business principle that trust should be placed only in agents whose interest it is to serve their principals. But precisely the reverse is the course pursued. The companies almost universally rely upon the representations of the agent of the borrower, and upon appraisement certificates. The agent is paid by a commission from the farmer, which rises with the amount loaned, so that his immediate interest is to lend as much and as often as possible without regard to the security given; and he really represents the borrower, though usually pretending to have the interest of the investor only in view. The appraisal certificate is of very little value, of course, belonging to the same class of documents as our customs affidavits of value. The agent selects some men in town who think they remember the farm, and take a sufficiently rose-colored view of its value; or some farmer is sought in the vicinity who has just received a similar favor from the borrower and is willing to help him in a neighborly way to get what he wants. Direct, deliberate fraud is seldom planned except in cooking the abstracts of title, and there it is rare. The property is simply put at what it "*ought*" to bring. The trouble is in the way of doing business.

Moreover, this is not the only mistake. Large sums of money have been lent in the last year on the frontiers of Minnesota and Kansas, in districts where there is no satisfactory security, the value of land being merely speculative. The rates of interest in these districts have been from 15 to 20 per cent., and agents handling capital at 10 per cent. have charged from 10 to 20 per cent. for their commissions. Indeed, 10 per cent. is still (or was very recently) charged all borrowers by the agents of one great investing company, although its officers must be aware that this commission effectually prevents their making any first-class loans, since, as a general thing, no first-class borrowers have for some years paid any such commission. To call the method in which this great business is done reckless, scarcely describes it. Some of the more cautious companies, at long intervals, send out an examiner to review their loans, and more than one has within the last year made the most discouraging reports. This is wise, but still it is not a sufficient safeguard at the best, as an unscrupulous agent can "invest" large sums before discovery; and, as it is frequently practised, it is a mere form.

The remedy is a simple enough one. It is merely to do business in a businesslike way. No loan should be made until the security has received the personal inspection of a salaried officer of the company, a man of established character and skill, whose sole interest is the welfare of the company. A few such men could travel over a whole State; and the enormously expensive commission agencies should be discouraged and applications sought directly from the farmer. The best security and nine or ten per cent. interest could probably even now be obtained if the borrower were relieved of the commission and expenses, which sometimes, on small loans, eat up one-fifth before the loan reaches him. Some such change must be introduced or there will be a repetition of the painful lesson which the experience with Chicago suburban mortgages should have taught Eastern investors.

ENGLISH HOPES OF PEACE IN THE EAST.

LONDON, October 15, 1877.

AUTUMN has come upon us. We are in the short days and in the middle of the October equinoctial gales, and as each day we come peaceably home in the afternoon to our comfortable houses and out of the rain and wind, we involuntarily interchange congratulations that we are not in the works of Plevna, or in the outposts among the Armenian mountains; and as this feeling, combined with the sense of horror at the savagery with which the war has been waged on both sides, and the unprecedented loss of life, gains ground in this country, the desire for peace and for an end to be put to the bloody scenes which are being carried on in the East, becomes predominant. We are weary of reading the details of slaughter, and whatever way our sympathies may run, the universal desire now is for a peaceful settlement on the most reasonable terms that can be made. Hence it was with a sense of relief that the following paragraph, in a speech delivered by Sir Stafford Northcote at Exeter on Tuesday last, was read throughout the whole of England:

"All that we can say is that this war has been throughout a war of surprises; that many things happened quite contrary to the expectations of those who are the best, or are supposed to be the best, qualified prophets in the matter; and although I now see that prophecies are very freely made that it is impossible that the war can terminate in one campaign, and that it will be hopeless to expect that any settlement can be arrived at until one or the other party has gained a more decisive superiority than at present either has gained, still *I cannot help thinking that there may yet be surprises, and a surprise even in that direction, which may disappoint the prophecies of these experienced and qualified persons.* . . . That I think is the only bit of blue sky that I can venture to see at the present moment in the Eastern question."

If these words had been spoken by even a subordinate member of the Administration they would have excited some attention. But when it was remembered that they were the words of a cabinet minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the leader of the Government in the House of Commons—a man, too, who weighs his words and is careful that no responsibility shall attach to him for any false impression which his words may have conveyed—there is little wonder that they were taken in the country to convey a hint that negotiations of a promising character were being undertaken by the Government in the direction of an early peace. For two days we were buoyed up with hopes that our Government at last were going to perform an energetic stroke of business. But on the third day another cabinet minister appeared in public and drew a dense cloud of doubt and disappointment over his colleague's fragment of "blue sky." Lord Salisbury made two speeches at Bradford on Thursday, one in the morning and one in the evening, and this is what he said:

"No man can predict whether an early peace or a protracted war awaits us. Of course, if any great victory were to declare for either side, you might possibly, after an overwhelming victory, look for an early peace; but in the absence of a contingency which is not, perhaps, a very probable one, no man can say how near peace is, unless he knows how near exhaustion the two belligerents are. If you know that either belligerent is so nearly exhausted, either in money or in men, that he cannot long continue the struggle, you may be certain that no scruples for honor nor considerations of policy will long prevent the conclusion of peace; but no indications of such exhaustion have yet risen to the surface or met the public eye, and in calculating the chances of peace you must also remember this, that this is a war not of sovereigns but of peoples. . . . Until, therefore, exhaustion sets in, I do not much myself believe in the probability of a drawn battle or a drawn war, for the fortunes of war no man can prophesy."

So he said in the morning, and in the evening, as if to clinch the argument and daub over Sir Stafford Northcote's "bit of blue sky" altogether, he added:

"You know that this war is being waged on one side and the other by feelings which spring from the lowest depths of human nature, and you cannot expect that until either there is some great victory or some complete exhaustion the pretensions on which this war was based will be abandoned on either side."

The Marquis of Salisbury is a more impetuous man than the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and he sometimes does not weigh his words with the same precision with which Sir Stafford Northcote weighs his. But the speech which I have quoted was, it is apparent on the face of it, a carefully-prepared speech. Nay, it was more of a "leading article," or more like one of Lord Robert Cecil's pungent articles in the *Saturday Review*, than an off-hand, after-dinner political oration. These words are not haphazard words. They were studiously accentuated, and the fact that they were uttered by one cabinet minister two days after another cabinet minister had, it may be inadvertently, raised delusive hopes, seems to indicate that they were spoken with a purpose, and that purpose, if there was one, must have been to disperse the delusion which Sir Stafford Northcote had raised. We fall back, therefore, into doubt, and we fear that however good the intentions of the Government of which these two prominent politicians are members may be, their inaction remains as heretofore, and we cannot calculate on peace, at least at the present moment, through their agency. There is, indeed, one faint gleam of hope, though it comes in a somewhat roundabout manner. The *Spectator* of last week, in referring to these two speeches, and especially to the anxiety of the Government to press peace on the belligerents if it saw a chance of so doing, moralizes as follows: "We believe that the Government might almost as profitably be most anxious to press rain upon the sky of Hindustan as to press peace at the present moment upon Russia and Turkey." Within the last ten years I have frequently been privileged to listen to utterances of the *Spectator*, both on home and on foreign politics, couched in similar oracular phraseology, and I have invariably—yes, I think I may say invariably—remarked that these utterances have been falsified by the event. So frequently has this Pythia of Wellington Street proved herself a misleading prophetess that I have begun to regard it as nearly certain that the opposite of her predictions will come to pass. Hence it is that a gleam of hope flashes out for a moment after reading this announcement in the *Spectator;* and unless the opposite view should be predicted next week in the pages of the same journal, I should not despair of a peaceful solution before the year begins to lengthen.

Pending a settlement in the direction of the *status quo*, or in whatever way it may work itself out, it is not uninteresting to note the change which has taken place in the feelings and opinions of this country regarding both the combatants. The masses in England who talk politics—ignorantly most of them, but earnestly—are always in a state of panic about something if war is in the air. During the early days of the present war, when it appeared as if Russia was going to have it all her own way, we were panic-stricken about India. The wildest projects were broached—a Russian advance across the Himalayas was regarded as a certainty. Respectable journals were not ashamed to urge this certainty in their columns as an argument to drive us into the war. Now the tables are turned. Russian power is minimized; we breathe freely with respect to her aggressions, and no longer regard her as formidable. But our masses of politics-talking men must be on the panic, and for the moment the talk is all of the Indian mutiny; and the fear is that if the Turks should really come victorious out of the war we shall have another Mahometan rising in the East. Of course these hopes and fears are all of the most superficial kind. They take their origin in the shallowest minds in the community. They are discussed glibly enough in railway carriages bringing up and taking down their daily burdens to city counting-houses, and from them to the suburban villas in the vicinity of the great towns, and in other places where men who have neither time nor capacity to study politics as an art do mainly congregate. Below this superficial excitement and outside the promoters of it there is a strong feeling in the country regarding the war and regarding our attitude towards it. The great majority of men who are capable of appreciating the bearings of the gigantic question at issue are actuated by no sympathy with or antipathy towards either of the combatants. Early in the campaign sympathies and antipathies were more pronounced; now they are quiescent. We have more respect for the Turk than we had. We remember his traditions, and realize that the fighting instinct is still in him when he is left to his own resources and cannot get a couple of barbarous nations like the English and French to do his fighting for him. But we know that if the war were over he would relapse into the same state of dogged incapacity for good from which he temporarily emerged, and that his Christian subjects would not be a whit better off than they were. We no longer fear the Russian as we did six months ago, and we do not respect him so much as we did at the close of the Crimean war. We believe that Russia must eventually succeed, just as she eventually succeeded in 1829. But it is inevitable now that she must march to a Cadmæan victory, which will leave her, for purposes of serious aggression, much less powerful than she was. When Ignatieff, with his tongue in his cheek, informed the *Times* correspondent at Constantinople last January that "the Russian revolver had missed fire," the epigram ran the length and breadth of Europe and was half-believed and half-distrusted. It contributed as much, perhaps, as anything else to the collapse of the conference and to the imperturbability of the Turk. By means of it Mephistopheles beckoned them upon the ice. But the epigram has turned out to be much nearer the truth than the author of it in all probability suspected. The effect of

the missfire, however, has done some good in Europe. It has relieved the pressure here, and it has slackened the tension in Germany, and given France some more years of peace. We are no longer afraid of India; Germany no longer is afraid of France, and France no longer lays much store on the Russian alliance.

THE BEST WORKS ON THE EASTERN QUESTION.

CONSTANTINOPLE, October 12, 1877.

WITH all the interest that has been taken during the last year in the Eastern question, enquiries are frequently made as to what are the best books from which to get an idea of the present state of Turkey and of the relations of the various subject populations to the central Government and to each other. Such questions are far more easily asked than answered, for most of the books written upon Turkey of late years are disfigured by thick-and-thin partisanship either for the Turks or for the Christians. Of such books unless one read all it is better to read none. Even then actual experience and the friction of every-day life are necessary to bring one to the *juste milieu*. Let me mention, however, two books which are especially calculated to enlighten the unprejudiced, or even the prejudiced, mind. In their way they are both excellent, written by men who have lived long in the East, and therefore free from that glamour which the Orient throws at first over every one but the most prosaic.

The first is 'Le Balkan et l'Adriatique,' by M. Albert Dumont, the director of the French Archæological School at Athens, an exact and brilliant scholar, an acute observer, and a man of the world. This book was originally published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* about ten years ago, and contains the results of the author's studies of the manners and character of the four great races which inhabit European Turkey—the Slavs, the Greeks, the Turks, and the Albanians—studies pursued during eight years of journeys and archæological researches. The rich historical and scientific results of those journeys are given elsewhere in the splendid collection of 'Archives des Missions Scientifiques,' published by the French Government. Though published ten years ago, the book of M. Dumont is as true as if written yesterday. In the compass of 411 duodecimo pages it gives more and better information on Hellenism in Turkey, on the Bulgarian Renaissance, on the relations of the Greeks to the Slavs and to the Turks, on the Albanians, and on the Turkish provincial administration, than can be found elsewhere in whole volumes. This is not the ordinary traveller's diary, with its passing glimpses of life on the road, but a selection of reflections and analyses written at leisure with full knowledge of the subject, all extraneous circumstances and incidents being omitted. It all tells. It is written, too, in a style at once clear, concise, and charming.

What M. Dumont has done for the provincial administration and the race-struggle has been done—not equally well, but still well—for the bureaucracy of Constantinople in 'Stambul und das Moderne Türkenthum.' This book was published a few weeks ago at Leipzig anonymously. It purports to be by an Osmanli, and has even been ascribed to Murad Effendi, the Turkish Minister at Stockholm. It is, however, evidently written by a physician, a German, and a Hebrew, and there is strong reason to believe that it is the work of the two Doctors Mordtmann, who, both father and son, are distinguished Orientalists, and have long lived in Constantinople. 'Stambul' is in a certain way modelled after the 'Sketches of St. Petersburg Society,' written also by a German physician, which had some vogue three or four years ago. Together with sketches of the general system of administration and of the almost close corporation of the Stambul Effendis, and more particularly of the system of education among the Turks, the newspapers, the family life, and the position of women, it gives pictures of the career of the Sultan, Abdul Aziz; of Aali Pasha and Fuad Pasha; of the late Grand Vizier Mahmud Nedim Pasha, as well as of men now prominent, such as Mahmud Damad, Ahmed Vefik, Münif, and Savas, and of the leaders of the Young Turkey party, including Ali Soavi Effendi. While sometimes the pencil might have been charged with blacker colors, in no case can the portrait be called flattering. The distinction between Young and Old Turkey is well brought out, and it is plainly shown that Young Turkey is even more fanatical and less disposed to reforms than the Old party. The authors give some hope of a continuation of their work. 'Stambul,' as well as the book of M. Dumont, is well worth translation.

For an account of the condition of Macedonia and the adjoining districts the 'Travels in the Slavonic Provinces of Turkey,' by Miss Irby and Miss Mackenzie, is deserving of all praise. As for Montenegro, any one who desires more than was found in Mr. Gladstone's article in the *Nineteenth Century* for May, 1877, may read with interest and pleasure 'Le Monténégro Contemporain,' by G. Frilley and Yovan Vlahovitch, and 'Montenegro und die Montenegriner,' by Spiridion Goptchevitch. When the Herzegovinian rebellion broke out, almost nothing could be found on Montenegro and Herzegovina. Now on the latter province, with Bosnia, we have the interesting travels of Mr. Evans, and the 'Bosnie et Herzégovine' of Charles Yriarte, always charming and often excellent, first published last year in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The historical sketch of Saint-René Taillandier, 'La Serbie au 19e Siècle,' is very satisfactory so far as it goes, but Servia is minutely and carefully described in the painstaking work of F. Kanitz, 'Serbien.' 'Das Donau-Bulgarien und der Balkan,' by the same author, of which the second volume has recently appeared, the result of the studies and journeys of sixteen years, is simply invaluable to any one who wishes to be thoroughly acquainted with the theatre of the present war. Unfortunately the volumes are large and heavy and require careful study. I should mention also the 'Geschichte der Bulgaren,' the learned and—for more reasons than one—deeply interesting work of the Bohemian scholar Const. Jos. Jirecek. The classical scholar will find in this book, as well as in the more recent brochure of the same author, 'Die Heerstrasse von Belgrad nach Constantinopel,' much information relating to the history of the Balkan peninsula in classical and Byzantine times. There is no good book about Rumania, but 'La Roumanie Économique' of M. G. Obédénare gives all the data necessary to form an idea of the recent great progress of that country.

I have said nothing of 'Turkey in Europe,' by Lieut.-Col. James Baker, because, although there is much good in the book, there is also much bad, and it is so replete with erroneous or confused historical and ethnological talk, and with minute and utterly unimportant incidents of travel, as to be really worth very little. E. S.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE CIVIL SERVICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems strange to me that you do not carry your reasoning one step farther. You say that "for the people to support him, the President must be doing something which they see and clearly comprehend. They cannot support him unless they know what he is about, and the thing he is about must be plain and simple. They will support him in an open fight with Congress on this point (the civil service), but the fight must be open and persistent. They cannot support him in hostilities which are chequered with private dickering and compromise, and of which they never know the real bearing. The people cannot 'interview' him and members of the Cabinet to know what is the meaning of this and that strange occurrence." The necessity of the case could not be better stated. But that is precisely what, in the present state of things at Washington, is impossible. Congress stands like a thick veil between the Executive and the people. That body alone has the ear of the country, which the other branch can never reach except through the inadequate and undignified method of the stump-speech and the newspaper. Suppose the Cabinet were to prepare a definite plan of civil-service reform and send it to Congress. It would be at once consigned to a committee. The opposite party would be unsparing in ridicule and abuse. Party friends would go about saying, "We are heartily in favor of the principle, but *this* measure, you know, is, of course, impracticable"; as, indeed, it would be very likely to be, because any effective result must follow continuous discussion and experiment. Meantime, members would swarm round the White House and departments, striving to entrap an official into some act, in appearance at least, in glaring contrast with the principles of the measure, and few persons know how tremendous the pressure is. At once all the independent press would attack the inconsistency and insincerity of the President, members of Congress on both sides rubbing their hands with secret satisfaction. And so the Executive, tongue-tied, would gradually lose the sympathy of the people, and go out of office abused and vilified as the embodiment of dishonesty and faithlessness—a fate which awaits President Hayes almost as certainly as the course of the seasons.

Is it not an obvious consequence of your own premises that the cabinet officers should be placed where the people can hear and see them; where, if they have a measure to propose, they can explain and defend

it; where, if there is any attempt to bully or browbeat, a public question by a collusive friend would at once lay it bare and fasten the responsibility on the individual? That is the way the British civil service was made pure, and it is the only way in which ours will ever be. The position would be too trying for a secretary? A man who knew his business would in a month have the country at his back in force enough to rout Congress, horse, foot, and dragoons. How can it be done? The secretaries are constantly going before the committees in a manner quite unworthy of a co-ordinate branch of the Government. Why should not that branch go before the White House? The obstacle is precisely that in the way of civil-service reform—the hostility of Congress, which knows that one step would precede the other. Now, instead of putting the cart before the horse, why not demand that which is the means of accomplishing the other? Why not urge this as a standard of election for members of Congress, and as the simplest and most definite way in which the people can express their support of the President? G. B.

Boston, November 3, 1877.

THE RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE IN CITIES.

"To confer the privilege of disbursing money, or of choosing those who are to disburse it, upon one who has had nothing to do with its acquisition, has paid no share of it, and has every possible inducement to squander it, will soon, we believe, be looked upon in municipal affairs as the method of madmen, and any attempt to defend it as too irrational to call for serious discussion."—*Article on "Tweed," Nation, No.* 642.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Concerning the above paragraph, and such of like tenor as you have from time to time published in the *Nation*, may I ask you a few questions which have a direct bearing on the subject involved? I will not stop to argue whether or not it is a good plan to make a part of the people the quasi-guardians of another—it has an uncomfortable resemblance to the protectorship usually claimed by the crowned heads and aristocracy of Europe over their dependents and subjects—but will put the questions directly:

I. Have I not (placing myself in the position of a laborer, living a toiling, honest but hand-to-mouth life) *a right* to see, in my capacity as a voter, that the streets upon which I must walk are securely paved and well lighted at night?

II. Have I not *a right* to say how and with what means my children shall be taught at school, and who shall teach them?

III. Am I not in paying rent (*be that ever so small*) contributing to the public treasury as a tax-payer?

IV. Supposing my employer were not obliged to pay taxes on his stock in trade, would it not be rational to suppose that he would pay me higher wages than under present circumstances; and is not, therefore, the fact of my receiving smaller remuneration equal to my paying a certain amount of taxes through his agency?

The last two questions answered in the affirmative would, of course, cover the first two, but I have purposely placed them so because I think that they can stand by themselves. If you do not wish to publish these questions and thus comment upon them, please answer them in a manner that suits your convenience. I have taken the liberty to place these points before you, believing them to be well worthy of your consideration. Soliciting your valued attention to the above request, I am, sir, yours respectfully, Julius Gugler.

Milwaukee, October 27, 1877.

[How can it have, to a thinking man, "an uncomfortable resemblance to the protectorship usually claimed by the crowned heads and aristocracy of Europe over their dependents and subjects"? What "protectorship" is "usually claimed by the crowned heads and aristocracy of Europe"? All crowned heads claim different things and have different powers accorded them by law or usage. The Queen of England does not "claim" the same things as the Emperor of Russia, or the Emperor of Germany or of Austria, or the Sultan, or the King of Italy. Moreover, the English aristocracy totally differs in "claims" and character from that of Russia, or Germany, or Austria; in France there is none, and there can hardly be said to be any in Italy, or the Scandinavian States, or Greece, or Turkey. It is only the Sultan and the Czar who claim the protectorship which consists in "disbursing money, or choosing those who are to disburse it, without having had anything to do with its acquisition or paid any share of it." No aristocracy claims anything of the kind. Moreover, our correspondent and every other member of a civilized state is under a "quasi-guardianship" in every department of his social activity outside his own business. As to his legal rights, he is under the quasi-guardianship of the courts and the bar, for he knows nothing about law; as to his security against foreign invasion or oppression, he is under the quasi-guardianship of the army and navy, for he knows nothing about fighting on land or sea; as to his travelling, he is under the quasi-guardianship of the railroad managers, for he knows nothing about railroading; as to the safe-keeping of his money, he is under the quasi-guardianship of policemen, and so on. In fact, it looks a little as if when our friend indited this passage about "crowned heads" and "aristocracies" he had not thought out his meaning distinctly, but was repeating certain catch-phrases he had read in the newspapers and heard from stump-orators. As to his questions:

I. We do not know what he means by "a right to see," etc. If he means a *legal* right to control or direct the persons charged with the duty of paving and lighting the streets, whether he has it or not depends on the legislation of the State in which he lives. We know of no State in which such a right is given to a voter, *quâ* voter, by law. If by "right," he means *moral* right, whether he has it or not depends upon whether his "seeing" really secures good pavement and good light. If it does, he has the right; if it does not, he has it not. If, for instance, his "seeing" is found in practice to make the pavements insecure and the gas bad, then his sole moral right is to have his supervision or interference stopped by law. The "laborer living a toiling, honest but hand-to-mouth life" has no more moral right to pursue any course injurious to the community, than the "crowned heads" or "the aristocracy of Europe."

II. The answer to this is, *mutatis mutandis*, the same as to the first. No man has any *moral* right to take other people's money to set up schools, either for his own or other people's children, if he is not capable of spending it properly, and knows nothing about schools. Whether he has the legal right depends on the law of the State in which he lives.

III.–IV. We answer, yes. But these questions have no bearing whatever on the question of municipal government, unless our correspondent maintains that the fact that the payment of an amount of taxes, however small, in this very indirect way will be sure to give the voter an intelligent interest in the management of city affairs. Taxpayers are considered good voters not because they contribute a certain amount to the support of the Government, but because the payment is supposed to give them an active interest in the conduct of it. There is no divine right or mystic virtue in a taxpayer. A taxpayer who does not know he is a taxpayer, or does not consider the effect of bad government in increasing his taxes, is, for political purposes, a non-taxpayer. His money is of little moment; his state of mind about the common weal is of enormous moment. Whether there are any taxpayers whose interest in the spending of the money is so small or so perverted as to make their voting mischievous—and, if so, what taxpayers—are things to be ascertained by experience. If every tramp who entered a village offered to pay twenty-five cents to the town-fund, the rest of the community would not be a whit readier to let him vote at the town-meeting, no matter what he might *say* as to his interest in the condition of the roads and bridges. He might call himself a "taxpayer" as much as he pleased; they would not be satisfied. They would consider other things about him than his quarter of a dollar.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation a 'Child's Cyclopædia of Common Things,' and will shortly issue Taine's 'English Literature' in a cheap edition, combining two volumes in one.——Hurd & Houghton have nearly ready a new and enlarged edition of Parke Godwin's 'Cyclopædia of Biography.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce as in press 'The Silver Country; or, The Great Southwest,' by Alexander D. Anderson; 'The Conquest of New Mexico and California,' by Gen. P. St.-

George Cooke; a volume of essays by Prof. Felix Adler, called 'Creed and Deed,' and another of sermons by the Rev. O. B. Frothingham, entitled 'Creed and Conduct'; and a translation by Theodore Stanton of François Le Goff's 'Life of Louis Adolphe Thiers,' from the author's unpublished MS. This book will be illustrated with a portrait of Thiers, and otherwise.——T. Whittaker will shortly issue a cheap edition of Dean Ramsey's 'Reminiscences of Scottish Life and Character.'——D. Appleton & Co. announce 'The Life and Words of Christ,' by Dr. Cunningham Geikie, in two volumes.——A *Boston Book Bulletin*, quarterly, edited by C. A. Nelson, is announced by D. Lothrop & Co., beginning December 1. It will consist primarily of a classified list of "the best books" published in this country, and an alphabetical list of the best published in Europe, during each quarter. It will also contain brief reviews, short articles, literary news, etc.——A series of essays on Italian Cathedrals, by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton; Reminiscences of Brook Farm, by a member of the Association; and Studies of Artistic and Social Life in Rome, by W. W. Story, are among the attractions of the *Atlantic Monthly* for 1878.——A. Williams & Co., Boston, have reprinted from the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* the Rev. A. B. Muzzey's very interesting account of the Battle of Lexington, with personal recollections of the men engaged in it.——Mr. Auerbach, of Stuttgart, sends us 'Der Schulmeister von Flat-Creek' (Eggleston's 'Hoosier Schoolmaster' done into German), and 'Onkel Gustav,' which is 'Helen's Babies' with a new face.——The Louisiana Historical Society, which was organized at Baton Rouge in 1860, and speedily suspended by the war, has been incorporated anew and removed to the State Library building in New Orleans. It invites contributions of every kind relating to its object, and especially desires to trace and recover such of its collections as were abstracted at Baton Rouge (a part were destroyed by fire).——We have been shown one of the sheets of the map of the Palestine Exploration Society, in preparation by the skilled hand of Mr. Rudolph Meyer. It is executed with great delicacy and precision, and promises well for the entire map, consisting of some twenty sheets. The Society, in return for contributions to its fund, is distributing its unique photographs of Palestine scenery and remains. As good duplicates of the forty that were lost by fire as could be made from prints, fill out the original series of one hundred, almost all of which are of a very striking character.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin's Illustrated Catalogue surpasses its predecessor of last year, which in size and elegance was itself a novelty among catalogues. It is perhaps somewhat too handsome to put in the hands of children, to whom one might safely entrust the not less varied illustrated numbers of the London *Publishers' Circular* and *Bookseller*.——'The House Beautiful' (Mr. Clarence Cook's papers on interior decoration, from *Scribner's Monthly*); Dr. Henry M. Field's 'From Egypt to Japan,' a second volume of his tour round the world; 'Faith and Philosophy,' by the late Prof. H. B. Smith; 'Theological Essays,' by Prof. W. G. T. Shedd; 'Political Science,' by President T. D. Woolsey; and Dr. C. B. Klunzinger's 'Upper Egypt,' are works shortly to be issued by Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

—Mr. Murray's announcements had not appeared when we made our recent summary of forthcoming English publications. Dr. Schliemann's 'Mycenæ' and Gen. Di Cesnola's 'Cyprus' are supplemented by new editions of Dennis's 'Cities and Cemeteries of Etruria' and Sir Gardiner Wilkinson's 'Ancient Egyptians,' of which latter Dr. Samuel Birch has had the editing and revising, and by Dr. Brugsch's 'History of Egypt from the Earliest Period.' Africa receives still further attention in 'Livingstonia,' an account of the promising missionary settlement on Lake Nyassa, and 'The Country of the Moors: a Journey from Tripoli in Barbary to the Holy City of Kairwan,' by Edward Rae. Crossing the straits, we are to have 'The English in Spain, or the Story of the Civil War in 1834-40,' by Major F. Duncan. 'Bulgaria North of the Balkans,' by H. C. Barkley, Civil Engineer; 'Field Paths and Green Lanes, being Country Walks, chiefly in Surrey and Sussex,' by Louis J. Jennings, with illustrations; 'Pioneering in South Brazil (Province of Parana),' by Thos. P. Bigg Wither; and 'The Talmud,' generally described, with selections illustrating the teaching of the Bible, by Dr. Joseph Barclay, are other popular titles. Daldy, Isbister & Co. also announce walks—'Walks in London,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, and 'Walks in Algiers,' by L. G. Seguin; and these two works of current interest, viz., 'Prehistoric Europe,' by J. Geikie; and 'Our Life in the Polar Regions,' on the *Alert*, by Capt. A. H. Markham.

—A new impression of the seventh edition of Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) contains a significant number of changes in the plates, mostly serving to lengthen the pedigrees of quotations already adjudged familiar. For instance, Gray's "Ignorance is bliss," hitherto shown to have found previous expression in Prior's "From ignorance our comfort flows," is now (p. 174) carried back a century to Sir William Davenant, in whose "Just Italian" occur the lines:

> "Since knowledge is but sorrow's spy,
> It is not safe to know."

In like manner, Blair's version of what is perhaps an ancient proverb:

> "Whistling aloud to bear his courage up,"

we now learn was anticipated by Dryden, in his "Amphitryon":

> "Whistling to keep myself from being afraid."

Farquhar's "Necessity the mother of invention" finds a very early parallel in the verse of Persius:

> "Magister artis ingenísque largitor
> Venter."

On p. 591, Lincoln's "Government of the people," which seemed not improbably caught from Theodore Parker's "Government of all the people" (1850), may now be derived from a speech of Daniel Webster's in 1830: "The people's government, made for the people, made by the people, and answerable to the people." More curious is the finding *Fiat Justicia et ruat Mundus* in the Egerton Papers (1525), or more than a hundred years before the appearance of the 'Simple Cobbler of Aggawam in America'; and Bentham, Beccaria, and Priestley were all preceded by Hutcheson in his 'Inquiry,' when he declared (1720): "That action is best which procures the greatest happiness for the greatest numbers." While by far the majority of the alterations are of this character, we have a false attribution corrected by the transfer from Canning to Frere of "A sudden thought strikes me—let us swear an eternal friendship"; and there are several new admissions—a particularly good quotation from Wordsworth's "Happy Warrior," already well represented; one more from Keats's "Eve of St. Agnes"; one from Poe's "To Helen"; one from Sheridan's "Pizarro" ("Such protection as vultures give to lambs"), which may be said to have been for some time knocking at the door; and one more from Addison's "Cato," which, in these times of reckless eulogy of "war-record" statesmen, is worth remembering:

> "Curse all his virtues! they've undone his country."

—The meeting of the American Oriental Society, held in this city October 24 and 25, was of rather more than usual interest. Prof. Isaac H. Hall, lately returned to this country from two years' service in the American college at Beyrut, exhibited the new MS. discovered by him of the Syrian New Testament, giving for the Gospels the version called the Philoxenian, and presented a detailed account of its contributions to New Testament criticism. It was the opinion of the Semitic scholars present that the part of the MS. containing the Gospels is of importance enough to be worth an independent publication. Mr. Hall also communicated a few new inscriptions, Greek and Cufic; and he read a rather searching and damaging criticism of Moritz Schmidt's 'Collection of Cypriote Inscriptions.' Dr. Seyffarth, the well-known dissenter from the prevailing school of hieroglyphic interpretation, passed in review the most important Egyptian antiquities discovered since the Rosetta Stone, with illustrations and interpretations. Dr. S. Wells Williams, now, after more than forty years of missionary and diplomatic service in China, Professor of Chinese in Yale College, gave an account of the negotiations which led to the admission of Western ambassadors to the emperor's presence without the humiliating ceremony of the *ko-tow*. He further remarked on the character of Chinese children's books, and presented one to the meeting, with a translation—a book of counsels to the young, whose shrewd sense and lofty tone of morality could not well be excelled by the best Western productions. Prof. Short, of Columbia College, spoke of the relationship of the expressions of place and time. Prof. Whitney had a paper on the comparative frequency of the spoken elements of the Sanskrit language, as connected on the one hand with the general character and history of alphabetic systems, and on the other with the special development of the Sanskrit alphabet out of the original Indo-European. Prof. Lanman, of Baltimore, laid before the Society the results of an exhaustive study of the declensional forms of the Rig-Veda, a valuable contribution to Sanskrit grammar. In another paper he offered an emendation and explanation of a difficult and probably corrupt Vedic passage. Dr. Haskell, of New Haven, had taken up the subject of the accentuation of vocatives in the Rig-Veda, and gave a complete digest of all the cases, the regular and the irregular or exceptional. The Society meets twice a year, and assembles next in Boston, in May, 1878.

—The London Conference of Librarians had less unity than its Philadelphia or its New York predecessor. It is impossible to express its character or its results in a single word. It was opened by a long and comprehensive address by Mr. Winter Jones, of the British Museum, containing an account of libraries from the Ark downward, a concise history of printing, and a review of every subject that had been proposed for the consideration of the Conference. This was followed by the reading of papers too numerous for the time allowed, and by interspersed discussions, each cut short by the necessity of proceeding to the reading of the next paper. As discussions are by far the most profitable feature of such meetings, and can be obtained only at them, it was not well to prefer papers, which could have been given to the public in print. The meetings were characterized by abundant good feeling but an entire absence of "mutual admiration"; there was a plentiful airing of crotchets, many good hints were given for points of detail, and some projects were brought forward that were not altogether impracticable. Two important results may be expected. The first was the formation of the Library Association of Great Britain and Ireland, which promises to be exceedingly active at home, and will be able to act in concert with our own Library Association in matters of international concern. The second is the proposed Index Society.

—The continuation of Poole's 'Index to Periodical Literature,' which had been discussed at both the American conferences, was brought up at London, and although there was a most hearty acknowledgment that the work was indispensable, the plan which had been accepted in America failed to meet with general approval. It was thought that unpaid labor would be very unreliable both in point of time and in quality, and some persons doubted whether general co-operation could be obtained in a scheme which was to inure to private profit. Accordingly, a few days after the conference, Mr. Harrison of the London Library suggested the formation of a society which should take not merely Poole's index but the whole matter of indexing under its charge. The English have been very successful in accomplishing by means of societies good literary work which would otherwise never have been undertaken—witness the Chaucer and Dialect and Early English and Palæographical Societies. Money is obtained in considerable quantities, and enthusiastic members volunteer to labor themselves and to superintend that part of the labor which is paid, and they not only promise but perform. In the present case there are few libraries that will not willingly pay their annual subscription, and no doubt many American members will join. The new society, which owes its birth to the Library Association, will receive countenance from and will reflect credit upon its parent. The field before it is vast. Periodicals are not the only branch of literature that require indexing. Memoirs and transactions of learned societies have been long in the hands of the Royal Society for that purpose, and the enterprise evidently needs a new impetus. Collected essays need an index, and there is a great deal of matter in all sorts of books that could be included in a general index of subjects. That to perfect such an index is absolutely impracticable is no objection whatever; something partial is possible and would be of immense service. Then there is a great opportunity for literary labor in persuading authors and publishers to add indexes, detailed or brief, to historical and scientific works, and indeed to all books that will admit of it.

—There was nothing in the life of the late Mr. James Brown to strike the popular imagination, and his death last week has received but slight notice from the press compared with what was judged proper in the case of Mr. A. T. Stewart. Enough has been said, however, to prove him deserving of grateful remembrance for the services which he rendered to New York and the country of his adoption. Like Mr. Stewart, Mr. Brown was a native of the north of Ireland. Owing to the condition of that country in 1798, his father resolved to seek security in the United States, and at the close of the century the family transplanting was effected, and the enterprise and capital that should have been retained on the other side took root here in Baltimore under the firm name of Alexander Brown & Sons. In 1825 Mr. James Brown came to New York and established the firm of Brown Brothers & Co. The date marks the beginning of the period (following the completion of the Erie Canal) when the natural advantages of this port began to tell in the race with its rivals; and the panic of 1837, when the house had won its grade in this commercial community, marks a point at which New York forged ahead of Philadelphia on the score of trade, owing to a sound public opinion among the merchants of New York, to the formation of which Mr. Brown and his thenceforth life-long friend, the late James G. King, largely contributed—owing, also, it is instructive to remark just now, to the soundness of the Democratic party, which was then in the ascendency in New York, on the hard-money question. Correct business views, combined with honest legislation, led to a prompt liquidation of indebtedness in this city and State, whereas in Philadelphia and Pennsylvania, under the influence of Mr. Biddle and a Whig regency, a soft-money footing was maintained, there was in consequence a long-dragging liquidation, the State presently repudiated, and all energies were paralyzed. New York has ever since been fixed in its allegiance to hard money. The firm of Brown Brothers maintained its solvency during the panic by making a precautionary arrangement with the Bank of England for discount to the amount of all its English engagements (several millions); and this guaranty enabled it to pass through the crisis on its own resources, or with trifling aid from the Bank, which was promptly repaid. Even a limited suspension would greatly have aggravated the panic. The Erie Railway, the Panama Railroad, the Collins and Pacific Mail lines, were among the enterprises conducive to metropolitan and national growth in whose inception Mr. Brown bore a leading part. To this we may add, for our own gratification, that he was one of the founders of this journal. His personal character was of equal rank with his business reputation. He died in his 86th year, and was buried as modestly and unostentatiously as he had lived.

—Théodore Barrière, whose death at the age of fifty-four was lately reported, was a moralist or a satirist rather than a dramatist. He wrote plays as Thackeray wrote novels—to express himself; and for this the stage in France offered to him the medium that the novel in England afforded to Thackeray. As he was not a born playmaker he met many failures. But he was a wit, he had real power in the creation of character, and a happy faculty of summing up a situation in a single cutting sentence or pregnant phrase, and he had some great successes. First and foremost was "Les Filles de Marbre," written as an antidote to the insidious immorality of "La Dame aux Camélias," which it immediately followed at the same theatre: there is a silly adaptation of it called the "Marble Heart." A sequel to this, originally called "Les Parisiens de la Décadence," and inspired by Couture's picture at the Luxembourg, preceded another success, "Les Faux Bonshommes," an excellent specimen of pure comedy, which has recently been acted here by the French company. His latest success, "La Comtesse de Somerive" was written in collaboration with his mother-in-law—a copartnership hitherto unique in literary history: as adapted by Mr. Augustin Daly, under the name of "Alixe," it was well received in this country. Other plays known to American playgoers—among them the "Angel of Midnight" and "A Bull in a China-Shop"—had their origin in his work. The death is also announced of Philipp Eduard Devrient, nephew of the famous actor, Ludwig Devrient, and himself an ornament of the German stage as well as playwright, but best known and to be known as the author of a 'History of German Dramatic Art.'

—The question whether the Bayreuth *Bühnenfestspiele* can be resumed without a deficit has received an unexpected solution from Wagner himself. He proposes to his patrons to meet the prime difficulty of those performances—the want of proper training on the part of the singers, musicians, and directors—by founding a school which, while not exclusively devoted to his own operas, will nevertheless make the adequate execution of them its end and aim. When the course which we shall presently describe is completed, not only will all that he has hitherto produced be compassed by the graduates, but they will be prepared to give adequate expression to his latest "art-work," called "Parcifal," the bringing out of which is thus deferred to a distant day. There is no child's play in the programme by which the "true German style" of performance is to be attained. Wagner expects to give his personal attendance not less than three times a week to the practising, which is to begin on the first day of January, 1878. No singer or musician who has not finished his studies at some one of the existing conservatories, or whose musical culture falls below that standard, will be admitted, nor must any refuse to spend nine months of each year in Bayreuth (Jan. 1–Sept. 30). The year 1878 will be consumed in general practice, in which vocalization with pianoforte accompaniment will form a great part. Wagner is not without hopes of enrolling for tutelage a full orchestra of musicians, but if he fails in this he will supply from without the necessary artists. String quartettes of the great German composers will be the subject of special study. In 1879 Wagner's music will be taken up, beginning with his earliest works. In 1880 full scenic representation of several of these—if possible, the "Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin"—will take

place, to be followed in 1881 by "Tristan and Isolde" and the "Meistersinger." The "Ring des Nibelungen" will consume 1882, and 1883 will see the first performance of "Parcifal." Instruction at this novel school, and admission to the public rehearsals in the summer months, are to be absolutely free. While it is not likely that many artists will pursue the entire course, Wagner expects that enough will do so to ensure the continuance of the school with themselves as teachers. His own assistants will be Liszt and Wilhelmi. Pupils must become members of the Bayreuth Patrons' Union, already founded, and pay a yearly minimum fee fixed provisionally at fifteen marks (about four dollars). The estimate of expenses for the ensuing year is 20,000 marks, of which the city of Bayreuth will contribute a fourth. "With the collective performances of 1883," concludes Wagner, "the *Bühnenfestspiele* will be established once for all, and will be repeated every year as model representations."

—Dr. Friedrich von Bezold has issued the third and last instalment of his 'König Sigmund und die Reichskriege gegen die Husiten,' noticed by us some months ago (see *Nation*, No. 566). It is occupied with the years from 1428 to 1431, the ascendency of Procopius the Great, his terrible invasions of the countries bordering upon Bohemia, the negotiations which ended in the assemblage of the Council of Basel (1431), and the abortive fifth Crusade of the same year. It is in the calm and impartial temper of this writer, who occupies somewhat of a middle ground between the Bohemian historian Palacky and his German antagonists Höfler and Grünhagen. On the whole, he appears to us the safest guide to the history of this troubled period. The treatise ends with an expression of the sanguine hopes that rested now upon the Council—the infallible Church that could alone heal the woes of the time. But, he adds, "it was only the invincible sword of the Hussites that had been able to force this thought [of argument and compromise] upon the Church and its temporal arm, the Empire." The hopeless disintegration of the German nation at this period receives ample illustration in these pages. The same author has published in a recent number (vol. xxxvi., No. 2) of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* a long and very interesting essay upon the doctrine of popular sovereignty in the Middle Ages. The essay shows that this doctrine of classical antiquity, crowded out of sight in the early Middle Ages by the theocratic pretensions of both Pope and Emperor, came up again by a sort of reaction from their overweening claims. Both parties appealed to this principle; and the author traces its successive phases from the twelfth century down to the time of Machiavelli.

RECENT POETRY.

WE hear the demand raised now and then for a race of American poets who shall be like "the shaggy old bards," whoever they were. But surely the most ignorant must know that Homer and Æschylus, in their rudest lines, accepted more rigid rules of rhythm than the smoothest verse of Pope or Longfellow ever recognized. There is in all literary history but one trace of such a shaggy old bard as this demand recognizes, and that was Ossian, who unluckily turned out to be no bard at all. On the other hand, we must always recognize that in poetry, as in everything else, the lists stand always open, and anything original in thought or theme or metre should be received with courteous and intelligent interest. We do not complain, for instance, of Dr. M. F. Bridgman's 'Mosses' (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) that in the whole volume there is not a single rhyme. It may be worth trying the experiment, to see whether twenty or thirty poems, in as many different metres, can all be left rhymeless. We do not, therefore, complain of the want of rhyme, but of interest; there is a decided lack of that, although the verses are sometimes pleasing and the sentiment good; and we honestly quote what seems the best page in the volume, the closing passage of "Youth and Age," a piece of clear and quiet description:

"Long since, it went, the flush from all the landscape,
And with it went the long, bright days of summer.
At this calm evening, in the sere October,
Clear glows the sun along the western hillside,
And on the streamlet, in the silent meadow,
Sleeps the soft sunshine of the golden sunset.
Bare are the trees, in yonder copse of maples,
That stand midway the slope below the woodland,
Through which the pleasant autumn sun is shining,
And in the copse, about a lonely headstone,
Are thickly strown the scarlet leaves and yellow" (p. 13).

On the whole, an entire disuse of rhyme must be pronounced more agreeable than such antics in the way of final syllables as appear in this "Amorosity" out of 'Lotos Land, and other Poems,' by G. S. Ladson (Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson). It is inscribed

"TO POESY.

"In rambling irregular
rhyme and time
In musical numbers that
chime and climb,
In rhythmical gladness o'er mountains of song,
In joy would my glad harp
now thrilling along.

"Rise ever in harmony sweeter,
completer;
And rich too in fabulous meter,
repleter;
With all of the melodies trilling,
and filling
The soul of the hearer with rapturous thrilling" (pp. 48-9).

And so on through eleven more verses. This little book is "inscribed to his friend 'Betsy' and the 'Wandering Jew' by the author," and these friends may have a fancy for some wholly new thing in rhymes.

At one point Mr. Ladson will be disappointed. His preface rejoicingly says that he "is not aware of the existence of any poem of similar title" to that of his leading work, except the "Lotos-Eaters" of Tennyson. But that enchanted stem is plainly becoming acclimated, for the self-same mail brings us also 'Lotos-Flowers gathered in Sun and Shadow,' by Mrs. Chambers-Ketchum (New York: Appletons). These poems are from one of those "Southland Female Writers" whose verses appear in special collections, but are not very much known to the general public. This lady has a rather thin vein of true poetic feeling, not much chastened by severe cultivation, and permitting a free use of foreign languages with occasional slips, such as "Pallas Athenæ" for "Pallas Athene," and "nasturtion" for "nasturtium." The most attractive features of the volume are, first, some touching appeals for the memory of the Confederate dead—appeals such as are always useful to remind Northern people that both sides of the great conflict had heroes and mourners. Then the lavish descriptions of semi-tropical nature have a perpetual charm beneath a more Northern sky, and show how wide is the range of allusion open to American bards. Take, for instance, this longing for a former home by the Gulf of Mexico:

"Friend of the thoughtful mind and gentle heart,
Beneath the citron-tree—
Deep calling to my soul's profounder deep—
I hear the Mexique Sea.

. . . . . .

"Bright in the moon the red pomegranate-flowers
Lean to the yucca's bells,
While with her chrism of dew sad midnight fills
The milk-white asphodels.

. . . . .

"Till, wild with heart-break, toward the east I turn,
Waiting for dawn of day;
And chanting sea, and asphodel, and star,
Are faded all away" (pp. 138-9).

There seems to be a case of doubtful nationality in 'The Silver Wedding: a Romaunt du Moyen Âge,' translated in verse, by Evan Ap Coel (London: Sotheran). The book, though printed in England, is entered for copyright at Washington, not in behalf of any high-sounding Welsh name, but by plain E. W. Johns; and it seems to proceed in some way from the University of the South at Sewanee, Tennessee. Precisely half the professors of that university express their approval of the book, in three distinct endorsements, at the beginning. It is also approved in a brief prefatory verse by the Bishop of Lincoln, England, an extract from one of whose sermons is also woven into the verse on p. 80. With this combined apostolic and academical sanction the poem appears. It is a mingling of ancient and modern romance: King Arthur and his Court blended with one Bran Cradocke and Helen his wife. One of the books is headed "Library and Larder"; and the two spheres may be considered as thoroughly combined when the wife cooks the buckwheat cakes and the poet afterwards sits at his library table and thus chants their praise:

"CHANSON AMOUREUSE DU MOYEN ÂGE.

"Blest as the immortal gods was he
Who ate those buckwheats bak'd by thee!
Fondly ate—and ate—and ate—
Nor feared the chill of frigid plate,
With long delay refill'd, should steal
Their warm life, and congeal
The butter's golden flow.

"The table stood the stove so near,
In kitchen corner, that my dear
(Victorious o'er the demon black,
In struggle fierce, and with much thwack
Of raking poker) could transfer
The deftly lifted cakes, by her
'Neat-handed' to our plates" (p. 191).

And so on, through nine more verses. Now, when we consider how few opportunities are enjoyed by English bishops of breakfasting on hot buck-

wheats eaten in the chimney corner, within poking distance, so to speak, of the fire, we can easily understand the prefatory enthusiasm of "C. Lincoln." But to do full justice to the more serious themes of the poem, we take, almost at random, the following extract from 'Part III., Teraphim; 1':

"Bran,-master of Graystead was: but Helen ruled
As mistress—*yes*. In all authority
Objective, Bran supreme, rever'd; but she,
His Helen, queen still reign'd, a sovran queen
In subjectivity supreme, as well,
Nay, unknown supremest Helen rul'd,
Thro' will obedient, pliant, flexible,
That ever had its way: as ever seen
This is, of proper womanhood reserv'd,
With woman's sacred fraud, to act as might,
(Of conscience void she), to her seem right
Or for the best: as Eve the mother" (p. 125).

The author sometimes adds the footnote, "In a humorous sense here," to a particularly difficult passage; but no such interpretation is in this case offered. It is thus, then, that the Teraphim and the Seraphim may be supposed to sing.

'Pegasus Re-saddled,' by H. Cholmondeley Pennell, author of 'Puck on Pegasus' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) is an English book of *vers de société*, sometimes but not always amusing, and mainly remarkable for illustrations by Du Maurier, which faintly recall his delightful designs for 'Punch.' These have also an interest as portraying the wonderful Japanese costumes of the present time, and will amaze future ages as the hoops and bag-wigs of Queen Anne's day amaze us. These pictures, like those in 'Punch,' will also carry down to the coming man the impression that every well-bred Englishman of 1877 had a perfectly Grecian profile, and every youthful Englishwoman the straightest eyebrows and the sweetest eyes. As models for American beauty to aim at, these representations are of great worth, but as preliminaries for foreign travel they may perhaps lead to disappointment.

'Christmas Carols, and other Verses,' by the Rev. H. G. Batterson, D.D. (Philadelphia: Lippincott), is a volume of pleasing carols and hymns, such as every well-educated clergyman might aspire to write. 'Robin, and other Poems,' by George Percy (Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co.), is a volume distinctly belonging to the laity, and dealing mostly with simple every-day themes. "The Faded Waterproof" is one of these; "The Classic Farmer: a New England Idyl," is another; but the poem that comes nearest to our heart of hearts is the following. Perhaps we view it with too much partiality, from a long course of sorrow beneath the thraldom it seeks to remove. It is called

"PULL UP THE BLIND.

"Pull up the blind, Kitty; pull up the blind!
You say, 'The sun will spoil the carpet.'
Never mind, never mind.

"Far better so than that your cheeks or mine
Should lose their worth or color, Kitty.
Let it shine, let it shine.

"And you shall find new joy it will impart.
Pull up the blind, Kitty; pull it up!
The sun helps the heart" (p. 26).

Surely a few metrical sins can well be pardoned to one who thus pleads, unaided even by rhyme, for the welfare of his fellow-men.

'Ideals made Real: a Romance,' by George L. Raymond (New York: Hurd & Houghton) seems a great improvement on 'Colony Ballads,' the previous work of the same author. What we like best in the present volume is not, however, the long blank-verse poem which gives the book its title, but the companion poem, "Haydn," of similar length and measure. The author's blank verse is smooth and careful, though not rich or varied, and all his workmanship is conscientious, if sometimes prosaic. His story of Haydn is taken from a tale in Elise Polko's musical sketches, with some additions from other sources. We note these as among the freshest and strongest lines. The young Haydn is speaking:

"You women always will match thoughts to things,
You chat as birds chirp, when their mates grow bright:
You love when comes a look that smiles on you.
We men are more creative. We love love,
Our own ideal long before aught real:
Our halo of young fancy circles naught
Save empty sky far off. And yet those rays
Fit like a crown, at last, about the face
That fortune drives between our goal and us!" (p. 95).

We must own with reluctance, after all, that these several books of verse, in all their accumulated worth, are outweighed by the two volumes of Aubrey de Vere, 'The Fall of Rora, and other Poems,' and 'Antar and Zara, and other Poems' (London: Henry S. King). This modest and agreeable poet has long been known to American readers through his contributions to the *Atlantic* and other monthlies, as well as by the various editions of his works; and his friendly relations with those readers are shown by the dedication of various poems to friends in the United States, and by several fine sonnets on "The American Struggle." The first of these, appropriately entitled "The Principle, February 20, 1865," and hardly less timely now than on its first appearance (in these columns, July 6, 1865), we need not reproduce. Another bears date of June 12, 1861:

"'To manhood with loud cries thy land was born.'
Was born? Is born! Her trumpets peal this hour
The authentic voice of Nationhood and Power!
The iron in her soul indignant worn
This day she tramples down. Her lips have sworn
To lift the dusky race in chains that cower;
And if once more the tempests round her lower
Her smile goes through them like the smile of morn!
Great Realm! The men that in thy sunnier day
Look'd on thee dubious or with brow averse,
Now thou hast put thine evil thing away
(Our sin and thine, Time's dread transmitted curse),
Send up their prayers to prop that lifted hand
Which gives to God a liberated Land!" ('Antar and Zara,' p. 335).

Aubrey de Vere is of Irish birth, and his father, Sir Aubrey, was a poet before him. Both became, if we mistake not, Roman Catholics by conversion; but it is often converts whose zeal is strongest; and a series of poems called "Inisfail: a Lyrical Chronicle of Ireland," fills the greater part of the volume called 'Antar and Zara.' The other volume is rather inappropriately named 'The Fall of Rora,' for it contains only fragments of that fine lyrical drama, first published in 1842; and the author has provokingly omitted, as poets are wont to do in revising, some of its finest passages. We miss, for instance, the songs beginning "The lights on yonder mountain range" and "Sing the old song." These had already been detached from the drama in the edition of the author's poems printed in 1855; and they are now discarded, with others, to make room for later accessions. The "May Carols," so dear to many Roman Catholic and other readers, are reserved for another volume still.

Mr. de Vere's high-water mark of poetic excellence is to be found, we think, in a poem called "Winter," this being the last of the series entitled "The Year of Sorrow," and written during the Irish famine in 1849. This particular poem appeared, if we mistake not, in *Blackwood*, without the author's name, and was attributed by some critics to Tennyson. No poet had ever a theme more grandly tragic: a nation buried in a single night under the double pall of snow and famine; and grandly is the theme employed. We cannot do better than to close this article by requoting most of the verses (from the 'Fall of Rora,' etc., p. 295):

"WINTER.

"Fall, snow, and cease not! Flake by flake,
The decent winding-sheet compose;
Thy task is just and pious; make
An end of blasphemies and woes.

"Fall flake by flake! by thee alone,
Last friend, the sleeping draught is given:
Kind muse, by thee the couch is strewn,
The couch whose covering is from Heaven.

"Descend and clasp the mountain's crest;
Inherit plain and valley deep:
This night on thy maternal breast
A vanquished nation dies in sleep.

"Lo! from the starry Temple Gates
Death rides, and bears the flag of peace:
The combatants he separates;
He bids the wrath of ages cease.

"Descend, benignant Power! But O,
Ye torrents, shake no more the vale;
Dark streams, in silence seaward flow:
Thou rising storm, remit thy wail.

"Shake not, to-night, the cliffs of Moher,
Nor Brandon's base, rough sea! Thou Isle,
The Rite proceeds! From shore to shore
Hold in thy gathered breath the while.

"Fall, snow, in stillness fall, like dew,
On church's roof and cedar's fan,
And mould thyself on pine and yew;
And on the awful face of Man.

"Without a sound, without a stir,
In streets and wolds, on rock and mound,
O, omnipresent Comforter,
By thee, this night, the lost are found!

"On quaking moor and mountain moss,
With eyes upstaring at the sky
And arms extended like a cross,
The long-expectant sufferers lie.

"Bend o'er them, white-robed Acolyte!
Put forth thine hand from cloud and mist;
And minister the last sad rite
Where altar there is none, nor priest.

. . . . . .

"This night the Absolver issues forth;
This night the Eternal Victim bleeds:
O winds and woods—O heaven and earth!
Be still this night. The Rite proceeds."

LEWES'S PHYSICAL BASIS OF MIND.*

THOSE readers whom the superiority of the second volume of Mr. Lewes's 'Problems' over the first has led to expect an even crescendo of excellence in that ponderous and somewhat pretentious publication, will be much disappointed after reading this third instalment. The diffuseness and damnable iteration are there as much as ever, but the new truths hang fire and fail to appear. It seems indeed as if the author had started to write rather with a vague aspiration after *some* truth than a distinct apprehension of any, and were letting his pen run on in the persuasion that a great discovery would surely trickle out of it, if only the scythe of Chronos might not cut him short. This is truly an excellent way of making discoveries, but usually it is the discovery that we publish, while the process is suppressed. Mr. Lewes has given us the process in five hundred pages, and—let us charitably say—reserved the discovery for the next volume. Constantly he seems on the point of making it. An unimpeachable scaffolding of first principles is laid down, the arguments seem to mass together like thunder-clouds, the air quivers with expectation, and we are sure that on turning the page the sacred rain will descend on our patient and thirsty souls, when lo! a new chapter begins with a new statement of the first principles, adorned with fresh illustrations: we forget the event we felt ourselves led up to, the sky empties itself again, and we return to our original drought. Not that the first principles of Mr. Lewes are not admirable. They surely are. But the mind can no more feed on pure first principles than the body can live on pure nitrogen and carbon. Only the *axiomata media* are fertile, and lead to particular discoveries. It is a bad sign when a thinker keeps falling back on abstractions so true that all must applaud them, but so broad that they form quite as good a shelter for one doctrine as for another. What boots it when we are really curious to find some one *elementary* factor or law of living matter to be told that "Life is the connexus of functions"? Or if a psychologist is really puzzling his brain about very special and particular difficulties, how can it profit him to be elaborately reminded by Mr. Lewes that confusion of terms is a great source of error, that we should everywhere keep account of special differences no less than fundamental identities, that property must never be confounded with function, that sensibility makes life a phenomenon of a higher order than mechanism, and the like? Not, indeed, since reading 'Daniel Deronda' have we been so annoyed by a writer's redundancy, have we found ourselves so persistently seized by the button and moralized to when we were most impatient for the story to move along and for the author to effect something with his materials.

With Mr. Lewes's doctrinal tendencies we have no quarrel. On the contrary, all the prejudices of the present critic are in their favor. What we complain of is simply that, whilst they are still in such an undeveloped state they should be published at such great length. An author of his reputation ought not to publish a distinctly *inflated* book. If he must put forth the adumbrations, aspirations, and postulations of his mind at all, he should think compassionately of the o'er-scribbled soul and print-bound mind of the modern reader, and enclose them in fifty pages instead of five hundred.

To one section of the book we feel indulgent, however, and that is the part entitled "Problem II., the Nervous Mechanism." No distinct, positive theory is propounded in it, it is true; but when the whole body of popular physiological and psychological literature, and the greater part of real physiological literature, are based on decidedly gratuitous assumptions regarding the respective functions of nerve-cells and fibres, it is well to have the work of sceptical criticism as thoroughly performed as it is here done by Mr. Lewes. Learned and acute, these chapters should be read by all physiologists. The chapters which precede them form "Problem I., the Nature of Life." It is difficult to give an account of them in short compass, they are so essentially vague. Suffice it, that Mr. Lewes reproduces Bernard's views of the "internal medium" of property and function; that he criticises Dr. Beale and Mr. Spencer; that he discusses Natural Selection, proposing to extend it beyond the field of organisms in nature into the struggle of different tissues within the organism in their rivalry for nutriment; that he criticises Darwin's theory of descent, and proposes, like Mr. Mivart, to supplement it by the admission that likeness between organisms may be brought about by another cause than ancestral community—namely, by the laws of "Organic Affinity," which determine that under similar environing conditions similar vital substances will engender similar organized products; and that he gives a "Definition of Life" which, like all the so-called "definitions" hitherto propounded, is a merely superficial description of some of life's resultant phenomena, and not a determination of any one of its elementary properties or factors. *That* would be fertile and important; but Mr. Lewes, like Herbert Spencer, is as wide of the mark in his attempt as one would be who "defined" combustion as "the luminous behavior of certain bodies in not too strong a draught," or who proposed as the "law" of refraction "the alteration in visual shapes, and so forth, which transparent media produce." From such external descriptions, however true, nothing whatever can be deduced.

Problems III. and IV. are entitled "Animal Automatism" and "The Reflex Theory." In the latter Mr. Lewes develops his well-known objections to the ordinary physiological assumption that "consciousness" is peculiar to the brain, and is wholly non-existent in reflex action; in the former he combats the dogma of Huxley and others that feeling has no causal reaction upon the nerve process which it accompanies or precedes—(*e. g.*, that the *pain* he produces is not the reason why a man is unable to cauterize his own skin with a hot iron). These chapters form entertaining reading from their abundance of facts and illustrations. But they are wofully inconclusive. Against the automatism theory we get absolutely nothing but a bald assertion, when what we need is some crucial *test* between two hypotheses each equally conceivable. The "double aspect" philosophy of Hodgson and Taine receives reiterated statement, but only shows the more its essential vagueness. And the vagueness of that "sentience" which, as distinguished from "consciousness," Mr. Lewes affirms to be the property of all nerve tissue (for so we now understand him), and the vagueness of the distinction between it and consciousness as he elaborates it, are fairly lamentable. What, indeed, is gained by merely saying that when a man's dorsal marrow is crushed his legs still feel, though *he* does not? What we want to know is *how* they feel, and *who* they are when they feel, and *how* it comes that only when they are in organic continuity with the brain their feelings form part of an ego. To say that in the latter case there is true "consciousness" but in the former mere sentience, is no explanation. And yet it is the only explanation Mr. Lewes gives us—*plus*, it is true, the varied and amplified statement that "consciousness" demands the "total consensus of all the functions." In a word, not a single one of the puzzling physico-psychological questions of the day is really made clearer by his statement. But whilst we admit this we may still say that in his insistance on the "total consensus" everywhere; in his dissatisfaction with those partial aspects of phenomena which, abstracted and half-personified, so commonly do duty as explanations of the whole matter; in his sense, as we may call it, for the unmutilated *fulness* of life; he represents certainly an important philosophic aspiration which, in the hands of other men, will surely take a more definitive form.

*'The Physical Basis of Mind. Being the Second Series of Problems of Life and Mind. By George Henry Lewes.' London: Trübner; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1877.

Classic Literature, principally Sanskrit, Greek, and Roman, with some account of the Persian, Chinese, and Japanese, in the form of sketches of the authors and specimens from translations of their works. By C. A. White, author of 'The Student's Mythology.' (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 431.)—Mr. White has got together some good material, but we cannot say that he has made a good book. A manual of literature should have either one of two aims—as a book of reference to tell something of the life and works of the several authors, or to give an adequate conception of their style and rank as writers. For the first object a careful arrangement is a prime requisite—either by periods or by classes of writing; but here we have neither. The only divisions are by nations and individual authors, and it is hard to guess on what principle the individual authors are grouped, when Plato comes in after Demosthenes, and Persius, Seneca, and Lucan follow Tacitus, Quintilian, and Juvenal. The later Roman writers—Ausonius, Claudian, Boethius, etc.—are omitted entirely, although the later Greek writers are given. The second object—the purely literary one—of giving a good notion of the writers as writers, Mr. White has perhaps accomplished as well as is possible in the space. But the object is an impracticable one. In the language of the writers themselves something can be done with specimens, because even a few short pieces, if well selected, can convey a perfectly just idea of the characteristics of the writer. But with translations this is impossible; they can give nothing but the *substance* of the original; all the fine excellences in which individuality consists disappear, with rare exceptions, in translating, and instead of Æschylus and Sophocles we have Blackie and Plumptre. Nevertheless, this part of his task Mr. White has performed, so far as it could be performed, with good

taste and judgment; only, in view of the controversy upon the translating of Homer, we should have desired specimens of Mr. Newman's translation, and of hexameters; neither should Chapman have been overlooked.

Some of the work is carelessly done. One would infer, in a list of Cicero's philosophical works (p. 291), that the 'Cato Major' formed one book of the 'Tusculan Disputations'; or, which of Cicero's treatises is entitled 'Sumum Bonum'? We should not (p. 327) define the 'Ars Poetica' as containing "the history of the Greek drama." Roman literature is introduced (p. 253) by a statement curiously full of errors: the Latin language "was composite in character, being derived from the Etruscan, which was itself drawn principally from three sources—Pelasgian, Umbrian, and Oscan." What bedevilment of Niebuhr's Pelasgian theory have we here!

Shakespeare, from an American Point of View; including an enquiry as to his religious faith, and his knowledge of law; with the Baconian theory considered. By George Wilkes. (London: Sampson Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington. 1877.)—Mr. George Wilkes, speaking, it seems, for America, introduces the characters of "The Merchant of Venice" as follows:

"First, we have the blackguard Antonio 'footing' an unoffending man and spitting into his beard because he differed with him in religious belief, or because he followed a way of business (within the protection of the law) which he did not like. And this ruffian is the idol of our poet's admiration. Next comes Bassanio, an unprincipled, penniless adventurer, a mere tavern spendthrift and carouser, who borrows money that he may cheat a wealthy maiden of her dower. And this fine figure is Shakespeare's second pet. Then follow those poodles and parasites, Gratiano, Salarino, Salerio, Salanio, and Lorenzo; the first willing to put up with Portia's waiting-maid, Nerissa, because there is money 'all round' in Portia's neighborhood, and the latter inducing a little girl to rob her father's house, which contemptible crime meets with the unlimited approval and active aid of the whole gang, from Antonio down." "Here are a precious set of scamps, not one of whom has ever done a worthy act or who owns an honest dollar, to contrast with the patient and lawful thrift which has made Shylock simply the Rothschild or the Drexel of his day, in a way of business now practised by every banking institution in the Christian world."

"Neither can any one credit, for an instant, the pretence that so keen a girl as Portia would not have jockeyed her foolish father's will by giving her favorite, Bassanio, a wink."

These extracts indicate pretty clearly how fit the author is to throw light on Shakspere. He esteems the poet to have possessed more of the "divine creative faculty than any other mortal," but to be a servile worshipper of rank, who does not know a man when he sees him, much less a lady, having "had but poor opportunities of closely studying true *ladies* and their manners." He also thinks him a Papist and no lawyer, and the book, which is a large octavo of 471 pages, is cast in the form of a discussion of the question whether Bacon wrote Shakspere's plays for him. It would seem marvellous that any sane person should seriously discuss such a question. One is apt to forget how little knowledge even of the most famous men reaches the masses. But doubtless several readers of the New York *Herald* run over an editorial about Bacon's writing "Shakespeare," with no prejudice on either side of the question; and when they learn that "General B. F. Butler" believes in Bacon, think that is the side for a "smart man" to take, they knowing nothing of either Shakspere's plays or Bacon's life and works. Then there are a number of lively admirers of the plays who know little more of Bacon than Pope's couplet, and for whom the Baconian argument is pretty nearly all included in the question, whether the wisest and most learned works in the world are more likely to have been written by an uneducated country lad whose father could not write his name, or by "the wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind." And it seems that there are men who would be fairly fitted to discuss this matter, but who are disabled by their theory of genius. They regard it as a mystery inexplicable in its source and boundless in its powers. They make the study of it in some sort a branch of theology. They do not expect the maxims of common sense or the deductions of the science of man to apply to its problems; they look for antinomies as the natural result of any attempt to apply them. Bacon was a great genius of the opposite type to that exhibited in the plays; his life was packed full of thought and action of the opposite type; he had no such character, prejudices, or experiences as are here recorded; he was not a Warwickshire man, and does not let slip the provincialisms of that region; he could not have written the plays. No matter. *Credo quia impossibile.* Let not Dryasdust undertake to set bounds to genius.

Before the tribunal of reason, an opponent of the "Baconian theory" can hardly go amiss; Mr. Wilkes manages it by running to the opposite extreme from the error he is confuting. Shakspere knew some law, though he was no Bacon; and he was no Papist, though not much of a Protestant. But we should have found little call to speak of this matter, were it not that we made a discovery. At the end of this book there are thirty pages contributed by Professor J. W. Taverner on the styles of Shakspere and Bacon, judged by the laws of elocutionary analysis and the melody of speech. This essay shows that Bacon did not write the plays, by a method similar to that in which the modern critics determine the authorship of poems by analysis and induction of their metres. It is a complete contrast to the rest of the book; thoughtful, scholarly, cultured, with much delicate insight into the secrets of style; a little quaint withal, as though the writer had lived among the masters of the Elizabethan age, and taken coloring from them. If any lover of Portia and the kindred heroes and heroines of Shakspere may happen to have this book, let him not reject it as wholly profane before he has read the essay of Professor Taverner.

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Continued from page iii.

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REPORT

OF THE

Superintendent of the Insurance Department of the State of New York

ON THE EXAMINATION OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OF NEW YORK CITY.

INSURANCE DEPARTMENT, ALBANY, October 24, 1877.

The Superintendent having personally, and through the services of the Deputy Superintendent, aided by the force of the Department, commenced and completed a searching examination into the affairs of the NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY of the City of New York, it affords him unqualified pleasure at being able to announce and make public the gratifying fact that the result of this examination is most satisfactory, and that, from the data in possession of the Department, the solvency of this, or other companies undergoing a similar test, can be readily ascertained, at little expense, for many years to come.

This Company was organized in 1845; and no investigation having been made, either by the Department or other properly constituted public authority, prior to the date when the Department was formed, much time has necessarily been expended to bring the matter to a conclusion.

The services of forty one gentlemen of character, standing, and experience have been procured, who have valued and appraised the property situated in forty counties in this State and in the State of New Jersey, covered by 2,629 mortgages amounting to the sum of $17,354,847 84, and forty-nine pieces of property owned by the Company amounting in value to the sum of $2,541,576 46; which services have been intelligently and efficiently performed. The abstracts of title to each and every piece of these large amounts of property have been closely examined and reported on to the satisfaction of the Superintendent. All other investments, amounting to $10,311,045 67, have been carefully looked into, and evidence of payment by the Company, either by check or otherwise, for such investments, demanded and given, although many of these payments were made twenty years ago. The cash securities of the Company, the cost of which on the books amounts to $9,730,529 91, are of the most unexceptionable character, and are worth $580,515 76 more than cost.

The Superintendent personally examined these securities, taking the letter, number, and denomination of each security, and preserving the record of the same in the Department. In every instance where securities had depreciated in value, such depreciation had been promptly charged to profit and loss account, and all items of doubtful character had been stricken off by the Company from its assets and omitted from its reports. Complete seriatim lists of policies, premium loans, and uncollected and deferred premiums have been made, and are on file in the Department.

LIABILITIES.

Every item of liability, real and actual, or contingent, as sworn to by the officers in the last Annual Report made to the Department, a copy of which is herein embraced, has been closely scrutinized, and the statements in said report found to be true to the letter, and no other liabilities were found to exist.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The different Departments—Medical, Actuarial, and Agency—have been reviewed, with the most satisfactory results—gentlemen entirely competent and assiduous having been found in charge of each branch to whose conduct and performance of their duties much is due.

Agents collecting funds of the Company at different points are held to a rigid accountability, remittances being required at the larger points tri-weekly, while at the smallest points settlements are not allowed to be delayed longer than one week. Bonds are required where the sums handled are sufficient to justify the same.

The system of book-keeping adopted by the Company, after many years of experience, seems to be perfect—the checks by one division on another being so complete that no wrong can be done to policyholders by false entries of any kind short of widespread collusion among many employees, all of whom were found to be exceedingly courteous, and, acting under instructions from the principal officers of the Company, were prompt in furnishing full information as to every detail.

Judged by the hardest test that could be applied under the law, and with every doubtful item eliminated from their resources, the net surplus, as shown by the detailed statement of this Company, which follows, amounts to $5,962,878 79.

This exhibit clearly establishes the fact that where a Life Insurance Company is honestly, ably, and prudently managed, there is no occasion to force a showing of solvency by including in its assets prospective value of real estate, and excesses of premium payments to be received.

For the reasons above given, the Superintendent has no hesitation in stating that this great Corporation is entitled to public confidence, and its officers to his warmest commendation.

ASSETS.

Real Estate			$2,473,087 50
Bonds and Mortgages			17,205,232 84
Stocks, Bonds, etc., owned by the Company:			
	Cost Value.	Market Value.	
Merchants' Bank, N. Y., stock	$15,758 75	$16,100 00	
Bank of America, N. Y., stock	8,484 00	10,164 00	
Bank of the Republic, N. Y., stock	1,470 00	1,470 00	
American Exchange Bank, N. Y., stock	10,125 00	10,500 00	
Metropolitan Bank, N. Y., stock	5,381 25	6,400 00	
United States Bonds	3,792,113 97	3,892,763 34	
Central Park Loan	25,233 75	26,750 00	
Delaware and Hudson Canal Co., stock	44,800 00	44,800 00	
Delaware and Hudson Canal Co., bonds	400,000 00	400,000 00	
New York Street-opening bonds	549,967 10	576,110 00	
New York County Bounty bonds	41,104 00	42,000 00	
New York City consolidated bonds	645,596 25	745,875 00	
New York County consolidated bonds	113,928 75	131,625 00	
New York City (Morrisania and West Farms) bonds	60,000 00	60,000 00	
New York Central and Hudson River R.R. bonds	1,019,382 50	1,170,000 00	
New York and Harlem R.R. bonds	1,074,075 00	1,178,333 33	
Brooklyn City bonds	983,144 80	1,024,700 00	
Jersey City bonds	442,425 00	450,590 00	
Yonkers Town bonds	178,479 16	183,700 00	
Newark City bonds	129,875 00	131,210 00	
Flushing Water bonds	77,600 00	80,000 00	
Rensselaer and Saratoga R.R. bonds	9,519 92	10,155 00	
Eastchester bonds	5,000 00	5,000 00	
Richmond City bonds	46,250 00	56,500 00	
Tennessee bonds	8,000 00	8,000 00	
Georgia bonds	2,730 00	3,500 00	
Alabama bonds	15,840 00	15,840 00	
South Carolina bonds	8,960 00	8,960 00	
Mississippi warrants	15,285 71	20,000 00	
Totals	$9,730,529 91	$10,311,045 67	10,311,045 67
Premium Notes and Loans			$781,585 39
Cash in Banks and Trust Companies			1,427,933 18
Interest due and accrued on Bonds and Mortgages			224,052 75
Interest due and accrued on Stocks and Bonds			42,320 39
Interest due and accrued on Premium Notes and Loans			25,709 37
Rents due and accrued			8,476 17
Premiums due and unreported		$125,027 15	
Premiums deferred		432,695 40	
Total		$557,722 55	
Deduct 20 per cent. estimated cost of collecting above		111,544 51	
Net amount			$446,178 04
Total admitted Assets			$32,945,621 30
ITEMS NOT ADMITTED:			
Agents' Balances		$36,154 19	
Cost value of Real Estate over present appraised values		68,488 96	
Loans on Mortgage in excess of present value		149,605 00	
Total			$254,248 15
TOTAL GROSS ASSETS			$33,199,869 45

LIABILITIES.

Death Losses and Matured Endowments not due	$418,393 19
Death Losses and Claims resisted	97,200 00
Premiums paid in advance	17,038 32
Estimated liability on Lapsed Policies	10,000 00
Net Re-insurance Reserve	26,440,111 00
Total Liabilities	$26,982,742 51
Surplus as regards policyholders, on the basis of admitted assets as determined by this report	$5,962,878 79
Surplus as regards policyholders on the basis of total assets, as reported by the Company.	$6,217,126 94
Estimated Surplus of Tontine policyholders included in the above	$517,504 84

JOHN F. SMYTH, Superintendent.

E. F. Bickford 324 27 Dec 77

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 15, 1877.

The Week.

IT would be difficult for a party seeking to prove its capacity for directing a government in which it has had no hand for seventeen years, to prove the contrary in so short a time as the Democrats of the House have done. Last week was signalized by the passage of the swindling Bland Silver Bill; the present week sees the passage of the ridiculous Army Bill; and next week, to judge by appearances, an anti-Resumption Bill—dishonest, of whatever complexion—will crown the wasteful and wicked achievements of the extra session. The debate on resumption began on election day, and is not yet concluded. On Wednesday week Mr. J. D. Cox, avowedly in the interest of resumption, offered as an amendment a substitute for the bill under debate, providing that the Secretary of the Treasury shall on January 1, 1878, begin the redemption of greenbacks in sums of $50 and upwards at 97 cents in coin, on July 1 at 97½ cents, and so on, till par is reached January 1, 1881; the greenbacks thus called in to be cancelled until they amount to $300,000. We think it enough to say of this measure that it would have deserved consideration some years ago, and that it may deserve consideration when resumption in accordance with the solemn pledge of 1875 is shown to be impossible. Nor is it worth while to refute Mr. Cox's view that the greenback currency is such a loan of the people to the Government that they have "an absolute right" to make the currency irredeemable if they choose, any more than the assertion, also by a resumptionist (Mr. Price, of Iowa), that the United States was unlike any other country, so that the experience of France, for example, might be disregarded.

On Thursday the House began the consideration of the Army Appropriation Bill in Committee of the Whole. Without heeding the proper and urgent request of the President, that the arrears since June might be provided for without raising the question of the ultimate strength of the army, the committee having the bill in charge reported the full measure. It allowed for an army of 22,000 for the first four months of the fiscal year, and 20,000 for the remainder, and reduced the Secretary's estimates from $30,000,000 to $25,700,000. It omitted the condition as to the use of the troops by the President which formed the bone of contention that compelled the extra session. The Republican opposition to this measure aimed to secure a minimum army of 25,000 men (its nominal strength at present), and the chances of an increase above the actual force of 22,000 seemed to be favored by the course of the Texas delegation, who loudly complained that their State was left to police the Mexican frontier with its own militia at heavy expense. Led by Mr. Schleicher, this delegation succeeded in removing the restriction against recruiting the army beyond the rolls of Nov. 1; but when they undertook to secure the recruiting of four full companies of cavalry, to be expressly stationed on the Mexican and Indian frontiers of Texas, this amendment was threatened with defeat unless they consented to couple with it a restriction against recruiting beyond 20,000, including Indian scouts and hospital stewards. Their selfishness prevailed over their patriotism, and the bill was thus modified when reported to the House on Monday, and so passed by a vote of 133 to 127. The result is, of course, to effect a reduction of the army, to fill up the cavalry at the expense of the other arms of the service, and to leave the northern Indian frontier to look after itself. The bill is certain to be amended in the Senate, and we shall probably witness a long wrangle between the two Houses over the reduction, as well as over the alleged infringement of the Commander-in-Chief's prerogative in regard to the disposition of the troops. The Republicans voted solidly against reduction, and all but a few Democrats for it. The argument based on the necessity of the army as a national police in strikes and riots like those of July was only heard from the Republican side. On Tuesday the House passed the Deficiency Bill, chiefly for the relief of the Navy.

The Senate has been holding short and infrequent sessions, and has done nothing that calls for mention. A caucus of the Republican members was held on Saturday, with a view to restoring harmony among themselves and between the President and themselves, and in order to settle upon a line of conduct in regard to nominations and the Louisiana contestants. The secrecy enjoined has been better kept than usual, but it appears to be true that Senator Conkling failed to bind his colleagues to a rule which would defeat the New York Custom-house nominations, on the ground that the present incumbents have discharged their duties faithfully and without reproach, and that their term has not expired. On Monday, at all events, such a rule was disregarded in the confirmation of a new minister to Sweden, with almost no Republican opposition. The second subject related to Southern appointments, which all were agreed ought to include only men in sympathy with the Amendments and other reconstruction measures looking to the protection of the civil rights of the negroes. As for the Louisiana seats, Mr. Kellogg's claim on the united Republican support would seem to have been conceded. We may hope, after this reconciliation, that there will be no further delay in granting to the first commercial city in the Union a collector who will show, in a way that has never been attempted before, what can be done by conducting the customs-service on business principles, and that the Senate will not be too much fatigued to hold an executive session every day till Mr. Roosevelt's nomination is confirmed. It is now settled that he cannot be defeated. Mr. Welsh was unanimously confirmed for the English mission, Mr. Don Cameron "gracefully" coming forward to urge this action. Mr. Voorhees's appearance in the Senate as Mr. Morton's successor was thought worthy of a "floral welcome" by his admirers. He finds the body having a Republican majority of six (or four, as Mr. Davis may ally himself with either party), and, according to the doubtful fortunes of the South Carolina and Louisiana members, he may yet find himself on occasion in a Democratic majority of one, before 1879.

It is marvellous how much satisfaction the late elections have given to everybody. The Democrats see in their victories "the handwriting on the wall" warning the Republican Belshazzar, while the Republicans are delighted to have "done so well" in the States where they did not win. The causes of the defeats and victories as given by the newspapers are almost too numerous even for mere mention. The only election in which the relation of cause and effect, however, seems quite clear is that in Massachusetts, where the Republicans obtained a handsome majority on a platform containing a full and outspoken approval of the President and his doings. Yet some papers maintain that even here they would not have been successful if it had not been for Simmons, the Boston Collector—that is, the 17,000 voters who composed the majority would either have voted with the Democrats or have stayed at home if Simmons had not "taken off his coat and gone to work," as some have it, or "rolled up his sleeves and gone to work," according to others. In other words, as soon as they heard that Simmons wished it they determined to vote for Hayes and his policy.

The failure of "the policy," by the way, has just been curiously illustrated in Texas, where a masked mob took a doctor out to the woods, stripped him naked, and then, after complimenting him highly on his character as a man and a physician, whipped him severely for holding infidel views. No such occurrence as this has taken place or could take place in Massachusetts or Vermont, and

the question is whether "troops" ought not to be kept in Texas until an infidel physician is as secure in that State as he would be in Boston. Doubtless it would be a long while before this consummation would be reached, but what is time or space where principle is involved?

An interview with Mr. Conkling, of which, however, he denies the accuracy, has been reported in the *Herald*, as to the result in New York and the political situation generally. He was "aggressive, positive, easy, and chirpy in his talk," the report says, which also resembled "the successive discharges of a Roman candle." "Reddish tints are still noticeable" in his hair and whiskers, and "his eyes are keen and flashing, and at times merry with humor," but "more gray than blue." His conversation also consists of "knowledge and anecdote, badinage and jest, life and philosophy, with a pleasure and variety that might have been the envy of Coleridge and Macaulay." What he said was, that New York is a very great State—greater than Illinois—and has many men in it eager for distinction; that the Constitutional Amendments are ridiculous things, got up by "Jackson Schultz and others," and "a trap" which the Rochester Convention would not touch; that a fine new Conkling daily has been started at Utica by a friend of his named Lawrence; that the opposition editor, "little Roberts," is in a bad way and "mortgaged down to the last shilling," and voted the Democratic ticket, and wanted to pocket the back pay two years ago; that the Hayes party and Tammany people worked together against him, Conkling, at Utica; that the Cabinet is Democratic, and "little Evarts" says that the aim of the Administration in New York is to "destroy chieftainship"; that the Republican party should live to resist Southern attacks on the Treasury, Tammany corruption, and Western inflation and Communism; that John Morrissey has "a great fund of knowledge derived from actual business acquaintance with all kinds of people"; that it was Hayes's bargaining with the Southerners, and not his withdrawal of the troops, that was objectionable and dishonorable; that Packard's title was as good as his (the President's). Apropos of William E. Dodge, Mr. Conkling told a story of a negro who went to hear Whitefield preach; and, apropos of Mr. Schurz, a story of a man who didn't believe in the Bible because he didn't write it; made some cutting remarks on the course of the Republican papers in praising Tilden while he was Governor, and then covering him with "vituperation, lampoon, and all manner of ribaldry" when he became a candidate for the Presidency. Mr. Conkling "seemed to be in fair health and able to measure himself with his equals in any respectable disputation." We doubt, however, whether this particular talk would have excited "the envy of Coleridge or Macaulay."

Mr. Conkling's admission, if correctly reported, with regard to the Constitutional Amendments is important, as some of his defenders in the press immediately after the Rochester Convention pretended that the silence of the Convention about them was a mere stroke of policy, and that the real feeling of the body was favorable to them. It was difficult to believe this at the time. The Convention was favorable to nothing, and expressed itself about nothing, which had not some bearing on offices. Its one contribution to reform of any kind was the great plan of civil-service reform to which we have so often called attention, and over which so many have laughed. The question, Which had the best of it in the election, the Conklingites or Curtisites? is a knotty one, inasmuch as the Conklingite candidate for the State Senatorship was badly defeated in Conkling's own district, or his "home," as the politicians call it, owing, he says, to the "superfine Hayes men" working against him. But, on the whole, it is hard to say what the "illustrious Senator" has lost. The Legislature is Republican, and the other candidates he probably never expected to elect, and since the Convention there has been no organized opposition to him anywhere but in the newspapers. The meeting which was called in New York to correct his manners and excesses really gave him a certificate of good conduct, and charged him with nothing worse than a slight but pardonable negligence. Then, too, he has the immense satisfaction for a statesman of seeing his enemy, "little Roberts," loaded down with debt, and generally unhappy.

The controversy raised by General Grant about Mr. Sumner has not as yet reached any more satisfactory issue than we expected. Additions have been made to it on both sides, notably in the shape of letters from Mr. Fish, and that eminent historiographer, Wendell Phillips, keeps "the ball of discussion" rolling in occasional lectures; but nothing carries us beyond the edifying alternative that either Mr. Fish or Mr. Sumner made statements about their quarrel which were untrue. Mr. Fish's last letter, in reply to Mr. Phillips, performs very neatly the unnecessary job of convicting him of changing the date of a letter in order to suit the purposes of his argument—that is, of citing as written in June, 1870, a letter approving of Mr. Motley's course in London. The letter was really dated June 28, 1869, and it contained one passage, which Mr. Phillips characteristically omitted, as it would have spoiled his case, in which Mr. Motley is explicitly informed that any further negotiation or discussion of the Alabama claims must be conducted in Washington, and showed that the previous approval was mere compliment. As we ventured to predict, Mr. Sumner's friends believe it is Mr. Fish who lied, while Mr. Fish's friends are in their turn satisfied that it was Mr. Sumner. Mr. John Jay has an article in the current number of the *International Review* supporting the former thesis, but it will doubtless draw out one in the *North American* supporting the latter, and as the case is one which only in a very limited degree admits of documentary proof, we doubt whether judicial-minded persons will be able to reach any more satisfactory conclusion by the time the case is closed than that *somebody* has been lying. Would it not be well under these circumstances for sensible men to drop it, and leave it to General Grant and Mr. Wendell Phillips? What can come of it that can be relied on or be worth remembering?

The financial markets were comparatively little affected by the threats of the promoters of the Bland Silver Bill that it would speedily be made a law. The reason for this was, that clear-headed and sober-minded people cannot bring themselves to believe that so monstrous and, judged even from the standpoint of the advocates of a double standard, so stupid a bill can receive the approval of the Senate, or, at any rate, of the President. So strong has been the conviction that it will not become a law that even the price of silver in London has declined, and gold, which if the bill were to become a law would probably advance to 110 to 115, has not ruled above 103, and late in the week fell to 102⅜. The prices of U. S. bonds, too, have been very firm, although a considerable amount has been returned from Europe, partly because of the condition of the exchanges, and partly, we may presume, because, even if nothing is accomplished by the silver men in Congress, so large a vote as that recorded in the House in favor of the Bland Bill shows less regard for the public credit than it was supposed existed. The price of silver in London fell during the week to 54¼d. per oz., English standard, which would make the gold value of the 412½-grain silver dollar $0.9126. The gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar ranged during the week between $0.9708 and $0.9744.

The general trade of the country, outside of such departments of it as are directly concerned in the movement of breadstuffs and provisions, has been dull during the week. This is shown in the money market, where so light is the demand for mercantile accommodations at bank that money lends on demand at 5 to 6 per cent. The foreign trade of the country is remarkable for the large exports, of which a greater proportion than usual consists of breadstuffs. The exports from New York during the last month amounted to $32,002,677—the largest of any month on record—against $24,293,679 last year, and $25,276,182 in 1875. The imports, although larger than in the last two years, are comparatively small. Notwithstand-

ing the fact that the railroads, with the close of navigation, are about beginning to reap the advantages properly coming to them from the large crops, to such an extent have these advantages been "discounted" in Wall Street speculation that prices of railway stocks have declined during the week.

In France the fact seems to be ascertained that the Marshal cannot obtain from the Senate either a vote of confidence for the Ministry or a consent to a second dissolution. The last news is, that the Cabinet, who were expected to resign after having appeared and made explanations before the Chambers, will be retained because of the violent accusations brought against them in the Chamber of Deputies. M. Caillaux, the Minister of Finance, will present the budget as soon as the Assembly is finally organized, which means that he will not present it until the contested seats have been disposed of. These cases will be taken up at once, and evidence collected touching the Government's interference with the elections, which each day's revelations show to have been unprecedented, even in French history. The release of the deputies who were prosecuted during the canvass for "insults," and notably that of M. Bonnet Duverdier, of Paris, has been demanded, and will probably be conceded.

The Marshal's confidence in himself seems in no degree abated, and he furnishes in this another striking illustration of the effect of high political office in a parliamentary country on military men. There have been three conspicuous cases of it—the Duke of Wellington's premiership and General Grant's presidency, and now that of Marshal MacMahon. Greville has some interesting observations on the enormous conceit produced or revealed in the Duke by his political honors, and we all remember the wonderful assurance of the "Old Man" that he knew enough about every question that came up, and did not need picked advisers. MacMahon seems to have been really modest when he was elected President, but now he snaps his fingers at the whole of France. He has developed, too, the well-known Grant affection for officers "under fire." The more the public finds fault with an official or makes charges against him, the surer he is of his place under the Marshalate. All three of these soldiers are disposed, in true military fashion, to treat political criticism or opposition as they would treat mutinous language in camp —that is, if not worthy of condign punishment, as personally offensive. To add to the resemblance, the London *Times* correspondent in a recent letter from Paris, which reads very like a letter to one of our papers from Washington in 1875 or 1876, tells how the Marshal keeps himself shut up in the Elysée, sees only one or two newspapers, and has his "mind poisoned" regularly every morning by his Shepherd, his Babcock, and his Murtagh.

The defeat of Mukhtar Pasha at Deve Boyun, on November 5, was not followed by his evacuation of Erzerum, as was concurrently reported from various places at the time of our going to press last week, but by another battle on the 9th, before that city. It is presumed that previously some unsuccessful attempt had been made by the Russians to prevent reinforcements reaching Erzerum from Baiburt, and that, on the other hand, Generals Heiman and Tergukassoff had been joined by the Ardahan column even before the battle at Deve Boyun. At four o'clock of the morning of the 9th two Russian columns attacked the redoubts at the southeast of Erzerum, but after a stubborn fight and heavy losses were repulsed and driven back to Deve Boyun, in the neighborhood of which they are now stated to have intrenched themselves. The engagement is said to have lasted eleven hours. These particulars come from Erzerum, the telegraphic communications of which with Constantinople are uninterrupted. The Russian version of the affair, just received, is somewhat different, but it admits the principal fact—the repulse. Concerning the siege of Kars the Russians report that on the 5th Gen. Lazareff occupied a position in front of the southeastern forts, for the purpose of erecting batteries, and, being attacked by the Turks, beat them back, pursued them into one of the forts, and spiked its guns, but was unable to hold it. There is also a report that the Russians have recommenced a vigorous bombardment of Batum.

From the theatre of war in western Bulgaria we have several Russian bulletins. Russian cavalry occupied the road between Rahova and Widdin; a part of the Turkish garrison of the former place had withdrawn with the non-combatants. On the night of November 4, Gen. Skobeleff "pushed up to Brestovetz," about five miles south of Plevna, "threw up batteries there, and, after a violent cannonade, attacked the Turkish positions with infantry." The issue of the combat is not stated. On Friday night, November 9—this "official despatch" comes from Bucharest, not from the Imperial headquarters—a Russian cavalry detachment surprised Vratza, an important position sixty miles southwest of Plevna, west of the road to Sophia, capturing several thousand wagons and a large quantity of stores. On Saturday night Osman Pasha's troops attempted to surprise Gen. Skobeleff's new position near Brestovetz, but were received with a heavy fire, whereupon they retreated to an intrenched post, and maintained a violent fire till two o'clock in the morning. These posts, Turkish and Russian, intervening between the main Russian positions southeast of Plevna, on one side, and the newly-acquired Dubnik, southwest of it, on the other, are evidently destined to play a very important part in what is apparently becoming the final struggle for Plevna. The number of the defenders of that now isolated town, and the amount of their supplies for a siege, are matters of vague conjecture, while the investing army is perhaps less loosely estimated by a friendly correspondent to be 120,000 strong. The circle of investment is, however, very large, and far from being completed. Mehemet Ali Pasha is reported to have superseded Shefket Pasha in command of the forces to be concentrated in the neighborhood of Orhanie for the relief of Osman Pasha. The latter commander is erecting new fortifications, and seems to be determined on fighting it out.

Shefket Pasha has gone to Shipka, more likely to take troops from there to operate against the Russians who lately appeared at Teteven and Turkish Izvor than to reinforce Raouf Pasha at the pass. Raouf boasts of having inflicted a loss of five hundred killed on Russian supports from Gabrova, marching to the pass within range of his guns, which is probably a gross exaggeration. Suleiman Pasha reports the enemy to have very hastily abandoned Opaka and Palomarköi, places situated west of the upper Kara Lom, which is rather surprising. The news, coming from Bucharest, that Suleiman's men made an unsuccessful attempt to land at Oltenitza needs confirmation. The placing of the armies of Rumelia under his chief command is reported from Constantinople. Zimmermann is said to be going into winter quarters in the Dobrudja, after having spent there five months in almost complete inactivity. Prince Nicholas, of Montenegro, has reduced a fortified post in northern Albania, and Milan of Servia is again reported to have determined on war, a resolution less improbable now, after the advantages gained by the Russians in the rear of Plevna, than it ever appeared to be before. There are also reports of a conspiracy in favor of the dethroned Sultan Murad detected in Constantinople, and, according to one version, stifled in blood. In the midst of its troubles, however, the Porte has received words of cheer and comfort from England, where the Earl of Beaconsfield, at the Lord Mayor's banquet, declared that "the Government unswervingly adhered to the declaration they made at the commencement of the war that British neutrality must cease if British interests were assailed or menaced," and strongly expressed his conviction that, whatever the fortune of war might be, Turkey had by her recent display of vigor and force demonstrated her right to be recognized among the sovereign powers, and rendered her independence indubitable—words in which the *Nord* of Brussels, a Russian organ, justly sees "an encouragement to Turkey to fight to the last extremity."

THE NEED OF KNOWING WHAT THE PRESIDENT THINKS.

IT is a singular circumstance that, although the country is much troubled and business men somewhat alarmed by the extraordinary silver bill which has just passed the House of Representatives, and is now before the Senate, and which, if enacted in its present shape, would change the standard of value considerably, and modify the terms of all existing contracts, both public and private, nothing definite or certain is known with regard to the opinion upon it of the President or Secretary of the Treasury. As usual, there is a report that Mr. Stanley Matthews said that the President said he would sign it if passed; and then there is another report that Mr. Stanley Matthews says that he never said that the President said anything of the kind; but this is all that the world in general has heard about the matter. Then Secretary Sherman's silence about silver in the late canvass has not unnaturally created the fear that the silver mania had made some impression on him too, but now there is a report that he pronounces the Bland Bill a most outrageous and mischievous measure, and there is another report that Mr. Evarts has been recently "talking silver," but who knows whether any of this is true, or if any, how much? That this ignorance and uncertainty are very unfortunate and inconvenient is of course plain enough. Everybody expects the President and his Cabinet to have opinions on the great questions of the day, and expects them to be deliberate and well-considered opinions, and it is not unreasonable—indeed it is only right—that when the public is face to face with a perplexing problem with which but few people are familiar, these opinions should be made known at as early a date as possible, so as to assist in the formation of that popular judgment by which all such problems must be solved, or, at all events, to which any proposed solution of such problems must owe its permanence and success.

This is particularly true with regard to matters of finance. There is no civilized constitutional country whose governmental machinery is so ill-fitted for the legislative treatment of such matters as ours. Under all other parliamentary governments the Minister of Finance is charged with the duty of making up the estimates for the coming financial year—that is, of calculating how much the expenses of the state will be, and how much they may be safely reduced by legislation; how much the receipts of the state will be, and how much they may be increased or may safely be diminished by legislation. From him, too, all suggestions with regard to changes in the currency are expected to come. When he has formed his plan, he submits it in person to the legislature, explains and defends it orally, and hands it over to the appropriate committees for minute, searching, and prolonged criticism. His production of it is the great event of the political year. It is, while under examination in the legislature, in everybody's hands and mouth out of doors. Its chief features receive thorough overhauling in the press. The various interests it affects and the public generally have time to think out that most important part of all financial schemes—its remoter consequences, and to direct attention to them. In the meantime nobody's opinions about it are so well known as those of the members of the Government. It is their scheme, and the reputation of the finance minister as a public man is staked on its success in standing the fire of investigation, and his experience and character count heavily in recommending it to popular acceptance.

Under our system the Executive is precluded from the formal initiation of legislation on this or any other subject. The President and Departments are required or expected to communicate information and recommend legislation, but they are not called on to frame it, and are not held responsible for it. The duty of framing financial measures, and introducing and defending them, is imposed on persons chosen by the Speaker of the House at the opening of the session for reasons best known to himself, who may never have been heard of outside their own districts until he names them, whose only experience of finance may consist in having dealt extensively in some commodity, and whose private character may be of the worst. This might not be so bad if the measures so framed had the exclusive possession of the public eye and ear, and imposed real responsibility on their authors. But in reality they get little more attention than the plans of private members, and every private member thinks himself entitled to introduce a financial bill and get it passed if he can. We believe that dozens of such bills have been introduced this session. Mr. Stanley Matthews, who holds a seat in the Senate simply *ad interim*, and in whose financial judgment probably no one has any confidence, has actually just brought in a new resumption bill, which, if passed, would upset all the arrangements which have been maturing for two years under the present one, and he apparently feels quite proud and happy in the job, and is unconscious of anything ridiculous about it. One of the marked peculiarities of these volunteer financiers, too, is that they never want their schemes to be much discussed. They work privately to get them in such a position before the House under the rules that they can order the previous question on them, and then pass them with three cheers, and without any, or only a few minutes', debate, so as to have them burst on the country suddenly. Like the late Secretary Morrill, they like to make their great financial strokes in the night, so that people may "wake up" and find gold or silver demonetized or monetized, or specie payments ordered or postponed, or the standard of value changed, without having heard of what was going to happen.

It would not be possible without changes in the Constitution which, even if desirable, are not in the least probable, to impose on the Secretary of the Treasury here the duty and, above all, the responsibility which devolve on him under other parliamentary governments, because the legislature cannot punish him for the badness of his budget by driving him out of office. But a good deal might be done in the direction of securing more attention and weight for the Secretary's views and discouraging the enterprise of the volunteer financiers, and thus securing more attention to special fitness in the selection of Cabinet ministers, if Congress were to avail itself of the permission given it by the existing United States statutes to require the Secretary to report "in person" on matters connected with the duties of his office. And it would require no legislation beyond a simple resolution or a new rule in either branch to give not only the Secretary of the Treasury but all Cabinet officers the right to take part in the debates at their own pleasure. The House and Senate most probably, and the country certainly, would profit largely and increasingly by the formal and frequent communication of the views, on the absorbing topics of the day, of those who are specially and constantly charged with the administration of the national business and are in daily contact with the facts of it. Indeed, there is in such reticence as they now observe something absurd as well as discreditable.

As a matter of fact the Executive does hold opinions on all the questions of the day, some of which, however, are probably not very distinct or very much prized, while others it clings to closely and desires to see carried out. In other words, if the President and his Cabinet are the men they ought to be, they must on all prominent questions have a policy of their own which they would like to see and do try to get embodied in legislation, and this is all right and proper. But the misfortune is that the custom has now been long established of getting the policy of the Administration carried out not "man-fashion," as John Morrissey says, by open debate and explanation before all the world and in a way that will contribute to popular education and the formation of healthy public opinion, but secretly, by huggermuggering in the lobbies and cloak-rooms; or, in other words, by offering members their share of patronage in return for their votes. The President, by present usage, if he greatly desires legislative action on certain facts, does not send down the appropriate minister to explain and defend his views where every American can hear what he says and become acquainted with his motives and aims, but goes down himself to his room at the Capitol, or sends a secretary to whisper with the chairmen of committees or with mulish or petulant members of his own party, and make promises to them of some purely selfish advantage, in order to excite

their interest or overcome their opposition. The effect on public life of such a mode of making Executive influence felt cannot but be corrupting and demoralizing. The loss to the people as regards political education and the intelligent observation of public affairs is equally apparent, whereas a policy produced and defended in the way we have suggested can never do harm, and is almost sure, even if mistaken or wrong-headed, to have a healthy influence on public life.

TARIFF REFORM.

THE new Committee of Ways and Means is believed to be composed largely of members who favor some sort of tariff reform. For some years there has been a growing belief among the class (by far the largest in every community) who never trouble themselves with abstract views about anything, that high duties on imports have not been productive of any high degree of prosperity to the country. This belief is shared by not a few manufacturers who joined in securing for us the present tariff, and who once supposed that their interests depended upon the rigid maintenance of such legislation. It is noteworthy that nobody desires any increase of protective duties just now, although many oppose any meddling with the subject whatever. The protectionist doctrinaires of the Carey school, and the protected interests which have so far got the better of their neighbors in the adjustment of duties that they can keep their heads above water in the surrounding sea of bankruptcy, are firmly opposed to any change. Subsidies to steamship lines are the remedy they propose for the unsatisfactory state of our foreign trade. Anything which looks to compensating anybody out of the public treasury for any losses he may sustain in cotton-spinning, or ship-building, or otherwise, meets their approval. Cheap freights to South America at the public expense would undoubtedly help some of our suffering and over-crowded industries. If Government would undertake to lay down American goods at Rio, Calcutta, Melbourne, Hongkong, and other convenient places without any freight-charge at all, they would be helped still more, and the perfection of the system would be reached if Government would pay a portion of the cost of the goods sufficient to enable the manufacturer to undersell the grasping Briton. In this way France has nearly crushed out the English sugar-refiners, and what France has done on a small scale, we might do on a large one. The plan of putting the entire cost of running a steamship on the letter-bags is susceptible of a high state of development, and it is evident that protection, having drained the tariff to the very dregs, is looking that way for a new stimulant.

Whatever may be the decision of Congress on the subject of steamship subsidies, it is not likely to be accepted as a substitute for tariff reform. Nevertheless, the state of Congressional and of public opinion is rather hazy as regards measures for embodying this reform. Discontent with the present tariff is much better defined than plans for its amendment: it is always easier to tell what is not wanted in the way of legislation than what is wanted. This state of uncertainty finds expression in newspaper articles and letters from public men objecting to anything like free trade. The tariff, they say, is bad, vicious, ruinous if you please, but free-trade would be worse. Duties must be lowered, raw materials must be admitted free or at very low rates, and manufacturers must be content with less protection; but the Government must still have revenue, and therefore free-trade is not to be thought of. The members of the Saratoga Conference are reminded that their notions are utopian; that at some remote date when the sword shall be turned into a ploughshare and the spear into a pruning-hook, and when the reign of universal brotherhood begins, it will be time enough to talk about abolishing custom-houses and instituting a system of free-trade. Meanwhile they should stand aside and leave the work of reform to practical men. All this from the very persons who abolished the duties on tea and coffee, and proved their practical character by striking twenty millions out of the revenue at one blow.

There is, however, a modicum of sound sense in this advice, though it is a gross and unpardonable misconception to assume that free-trade in this country or in any other country contemplates the abolition of custom-houses or the abandonment of duties on imports. This misconception has been so often corrected that it amounts to a misrepresentation, and the friends of free-trade are excusable for being incensed by it. Yet they must remember that the political majority of the country have been taught to believe that there is something peculiarly heinous in their doctrines, and that even to keep company and co-operate with them is suspicious. Hence when "practical men" find themselves driven by the unsatisfactory state of trade, by the prostration of great industries, by the increase of pauperism, or by whatever impulse, to relax and unbend the monstrous system which protection has riveted upon the country, it is not unnatural that they should begin by decrying and denouncing the doctrines which they are beginning to entertain. The free-traders should not complain of such treatment. The Abolitionists were treated in the same way by the Republicans in the beginning.

A still more insidious way of sapping the foundations of the protective system is finding favor at Washington. Reciprocity is again becoming fashionable, and it is argued in official circles that a great impulse may be given to trade and industry by admitting certain articles from some particular country free, or at low duties, on condition that that country shall admit certain other articles from the United States on like terms, and the further condition that the principles of free-trade be not mentioned by the contracting parties. The famous commercial treaty between France and England which resulted in so great an increase of trade between the two countries, and which has contributed more than everything else to demoralize and weaken the protectionist bias of France, might well serve to reconcile free-traders to that mode of dealing with the question. It is expected that a new treaty of reciprocal trade with Canada will be proposed this winter, and the fate it meets in Congress will perhaps decide whether the Executive will feel justified in opening negotiations in other quarters. As regards Canada there never was any commercial reason for abrogating the old treaty. It had been a source of profit to us for more than ten years, and its termination was felt to be a loss on both sides—a loss less felt on our side than on the other, as the influence of the moon's mass upon the earth is less than that of the earth's mass upon the moon. We are not in such flourishing circumstances now that we can afford to despise any help that may be offered us. Small favors will be thankfully received, and Canada is likely to find a warmer welcome as buyer and seller than was extended to her three years ago. It is, of course, an objection to treaties of reciprocity that it is a mode of legislation conducted in secret, and that when the measure finally becomes public and is referred to the House for concurrence in the fiscal changes adopted, it is not open to amendment but must be accepted or rejected as a whole. Yet this is an objection not likely to be raised by those who think that no mistakes can be made by lowering or abolishing duties levied for protection rather than for revenue.

One of the first steps to be taken in a genuine tariff reform is to restore the duties on tea and coffee and to abolish those on drugs and medicines. Throwing revenue overboard by wholesale and taxing the sick and infirm for the benefit of pill-venders and crutch-makers, is the climax of the practical man's wisdom in the tariff laws. It is such measures as these which, in his own estimation, justify him in holding all theorists in contempt, and laughing to scorn the resolutions passed by college professors, editors, and book-worms at Saratoga and other places. The duties on tea and coffee were repealed at the instance of the protectionists at a time when the revenue was in excess of the wants of the Treasury, and when duties on something had to be withdrawn. Lest the burden should be taken off blankets, carpets, salt, quinine, spool-cotton, calico, copper, or something else producing little revenue but much taxation, they united in putting upon the free list the two articles which yielded the greatest revenue with the least taxation. In this enterprise they were assisted by sundry demagogues of free-trade extraction, who are now discovering, or pretending to discover, that the repeal of the tea and coffee duties never benefited the consumers at all. The truth of the matter is that tea and coffee are articles of

such general and constant use that a very large sum can be realized to the Treasury from them by a tax so small that the public are not made aware, by any change in retail prices, when it is put on or when it is taken off. To sacrifice such a source of revenue was something worse than a blunder; and tariff reform, which consists not merely in repealing and lessening duties but in adjusting them so that the largest fiscal results shall be achieved with the least burden to the people, should begin by reimposing these duties, and thus making it possible to remove duties now exacted from the tools and materials of industry, which constitute the basis, or pretended basis, for a large part of the protecting duties on manufactures. If the Committee of Ways and Means has tariff reform at heart, it will begin by clearing up the underbrush of raw materials, such as wool, hides, copper, hemp, linseed, fibres, alkalis, dye-stuffs, and chemicals, and thus obtaining a clear view of the foundation of our manufacturing system, which is at present so choked and obscured by weeds and parasites of every description that nobody knows the reason of anything, although everybody complains of hard times, and the manufacturing operatives suffer grinding misery under the highest tariff ever known to the present generation.

Correspondence.

THE LATE MR. SUMNER AND THE PURCHASE OF ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 1, in reviewing the November number of *Harper's Monthly*, it is remarked that "it is sad to read" a paragraph cited from the article by Mr. Elliott in that magazine, entitled "Ten Years' Acquaintance with Alaska." The original paragraph is as follows:

"When the cession of the Territory was made and the money paid, it is a somewhat singular fact (1) that the Pribylov group of seal-islands which now constitute the only real source of wealth and income to the Government in all Alaska, should never have been alluded to by the eloquent advocates of the measure, who sketched the country as the 'New England of the Pacific,' peopled it with farmers, and covered its bleak hills with flocks. The great speech of Sumner in favor of the treaty, and which, in the universal ignorance of the subject prevailing in the American mind at the time it was delivered, was hailed as a masterly and truthful presentation of the case, is, in fact, as rich a burlesque upon the country as was Proctor Knott's 'Duluth.' Sumner, however, doubtless meant well, but (2) he was easily deceived by the cunning advocates of the purchase. No, (3) no mention was made of these islands and their fur-seal millions, but infinite stress was laid upon the commerce which would spring up in ice and fish, when in fact not a single ice-ship has sailed from Alaska for the last seven years, and the fishing-fleet and its whole year's work would be (4) considered unworthy of notice in a New England seaport town."

In justice to the memory of the great Senator (which has recently been attacked in more than one quarter) it seems desirable to point out that the real sadness of this paragraph consists in the fact that it is fundamentally untrue.

In reference to statements 1 and 3, on turning to an extra copy of Mr. Sumner's speech, we find on pages 38, 39, and 40 an account of how "Pribolow collected within two years on the islands north of Alaska, which bear his name, the skins of . . . 40,000 sea-bears or ursine seals"; an account of the enormous yield of furs of this species, and of an estimate that between 1787 and 1838 the value of the sealskins taken amounted to more than sixty-three million dollars; of the fur-seal taken in one year (40,000) by the Hudson Bay Company, and how the seal "has always supplied the largest multitude of furs to the Russian Company," while the Russians were led to adopt a systematic plan of "killing only a limited number of males," under which economy the supply was vastly increased. As for other "eloquent advocates," in the report of the majority of the committee favoring the purchase (H. Rep. Rep. No. 37, 40th Congr., 2d session, May 18, 1868) on the "Treaty with Russia," p. 16, the statement is quoted from the director of the Telegraph Expedition in regard to the island of St. Paul of the Pribyloff group: "Under proper management . . . the skins from this island alone would in a few years pay the cost of the entire purchase." It is said to be "of more intrinsic value for a steady revenue than any other part of the Territory."

2. Mr. Sumner is careful to quote the (mostly standard) authorities from whom the information he imparts was derived. Cook, Dixon, Meares, Lütké, Portlock, Wrangell, Baer, Erman, and Messrs. Bulkely, Pease, Dr. Bannister, George Gibbs, and Prof. S. F. Baird can hardly be reckoned among deceptive and "cunning advocates of the purchase."

4. In regard to the "fishing-fleet and its whole year's work," I append an account of that industry taken from the *Commercial Herald and Market Review* of San Francisco, January 18, 1877, for the year 1876:

"The total catch of Pacific cod in 1876 was upwards of 800,000. Few of our industries present a more encouraging condition than that of cod-fishing and curing. The requirements of the trade have caused a number of improvements during the year. The firm of Lynde & Hough have, at an expense of $20,000, erected extensive and substantial buildings at their curing establishment in Marin County, and claim that their facilities are now equal to any in the United States. Another leading house, with an energy characteristic of Californians, has established a station on the Aleutian Island of Poporski, which employs seventeen men the year round. This venture is of an experimental nature, and should it meet the hopes of the owner, will no doubt be enlarged in the future. Eleven vessels, several of them having a tonnage of over 250, are engaged in the business, which, in its various branches, gives employment to over 200 men; but 26 of these only follow it during the business season. The total catch for the year has been 1,000 tons, 450 of which are still on hand, and will be about sufficient to meet the requirements of the market until the month of July, when fresh supplies will commence arriving from the Okhotsk Sea and the Alaska coast. Our leading producers take great pride in improving the quality of Pacific cod. . . . Under these favorable changes we are now producing an article equal to any the world can afford, and invoices of Eastern cod are falling off, only enough coming in to meet the wants of a few who still persist in using it. It is maintained by some dealers that we will within two years monopolize the trade as far east as Omaha. Pacific cod is selling at 5*a*6½c."

Which is better entitled to the appellation of a "burlesque on the country"—Mr. Sumner's speech, founded on judiciously selected statistics and reports of actual observation for nearly a century, or the magazine article from which the cited paragraph is a "specimen brick"—I leave to the intelligence of your readers to decide, and remain respectfully yours,

Wm. H. Dall.

Smithsonian Institution, November 3, 1877.

MUNICIPAL AND NATIONAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your allusion to myself must be my apology for again intruding upon you. I cannot claim to be a resident of Cambridge, but that is an unimportant detail. I believe that the government of Cambridge has for some years past been worse than that of Boston; the remarkable feature in the latter case being its sudden lurch downward in the present year. There are nineteen cities in Massachusetts with charters all constructed on the same plan and all suffering from the same evils, apparent chiefly in the great increase of debt and taxation. The cause of this phenomenon is, of course, of the deepest interest. The favorite explanation is universal suffrage, and if the New York amendments to the constitution are passed we shall have some interesting evidence on this point. There is a cause, however, which seems to me at once more immediate, more potent, and more easily handled—namely, the absorption of executive power by a legislative body. In Massachusetts, at any rate, I believe the conservative elements have still the preponderance of power, only it is neutralized by the want of organization. The present system is so bad that the wonder is not that things are no better, but that they are no worse. Each city is divided into wards, as independent and as free from general control as if they were separate nationalities. These wards, manipulated by politicians, elect members of council, and there begins at once a pull of local and private interests, the general interest being left to take care of itself. All executive powers are absorbed by the council, and all executive offices made elective to be used for ward purposes. Secrecy and irresponsibility are the leading characteristics. Good men are powerless and bad men rampant. The nominal executive, who alone represents even in semblance the general interest, is reduced to a cipher. An occasional furious effort of independent citizens will elect a decent mayor, but he is powerless, and that official must be in practice either a knave or a dupe, the resultant evils being only a question of degree. No efficient reforms can be carried, because they would touch the usurped powers of the council, and that body will not permit this—not so much (here, at least) because it is elected by universal suffrage as because it is the council. The only hope for us is in the framing of a charter by an independent association, effecting a real separation in the powers of the branches, restoring some power and responsibility to the executive, and remanding the council to its proper function of critic with the power of the purse, and then following this up by agitation till the legislature is forced to allow the experiment to be tried. Prosperity and reputation await the city which can first accomplish this result.

It may seem a great jump from this to the silver question, but the principles involved are precisely the same. Congress is made up entirely of local representatives. The nation has no voice there. Congressmen as a body are much more anxious about their elections than anything else, and they can secure these much better by taking care of their friends than by engaging in a quixotic defence of unpopular principles of currency, for which after all they are only remotely responsible. A silver commission, therefore, being made up by a Congress at best languidly indifferent, falls into the hands of strong private interests, and its report and the influence it can bring to bear are all that reaches the country with any authority. The only hope against this great fraud on the country is in a veto of the President—addressed, be it observed, to Congress and not to the people—and thus that unfortunate official may add another to the vials of wrath which every Congressman, who cares anything about him at all except in a very general way, is ready to empty on his head.

Fortunately, the national remedy is easier and more obvious than in the case of the cities. The executive officers do still in some degree represent the Administration and not ward politicians. To quote your own words, "the country is fairly entitled to know, by clear and explicit statement, where the President and the Secretary of the Treasury stand on this matter—what they believe and what they intend, and the reason why." This can be done, and only be done, by giving to the Secretary the same power of addressing the country that a member of Congress has. If Mr. Sherman stood on the floor of the House—and by a vote of that body he could do so to-morrow—it would be his duty to take up the question from a national point of view, and wage relentless war on the private jobbery which is misleading the country to disaster. He might have done this in Ohio? Yes; but in Congress he would be compelled to do it. The screw would be applied in a way which would leave him no other alternative except confessing himself recreant or incompetent. And every member of Congress would also have to toe the mark—with the question fairly stated before the country—would have to walk up and choose his side. There could be no skulking or shirking then.

The advent of the Secretary would be like that of a bull in a china-shop to mine-owners, land-grant railway projectors, office-traders, tariff-manipulators—in a word, to the lobby generally. But that is exactly what the interest of the people demands. The question is rapidly taking this simple form, whether the country is ready to bend Congress to its will, or whether it prefers to be led round by the nose indefinitely by Senator—well, by the owners of silver-mines.

G. Bradford.

Needham, Mass., Nov. 10, 1877.

THE DEMOCRATS AND THE ARMY BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a Democrat, born and bred. I have "a reason for the faith that is in me," and in my attachment to what I conceive to be *principles* am what might be called a "Bourbon." Having thus asserted my orthodoxy, let me say that the extraordinary course taken by the Democrats in the House in favoring a reduction of the army is enough to drive every decent man out of the party. The inadequacy of our present force to cope with the Indians on the frontier and to protect our Mexican border has already placed us in a humiliating position, and every member from the Middle States knows that but for the few regulars that had to be hurried hither and thither at enormous expense, the riot and anarchy which disgraced many parts of our land would never have been quelled. We in Pennsylvania had an experience that we do not wish soon repeated, and that life and property were anywhere protected was due only to the promptness with which the President responded to the Governor's call. It is only lately we were able to dispense with the regulars from the Luzerne region, and a large body of State troops, levied and maintained at great cost, are still necessary to preserve the peace—although the demagogue who fitly represents that district in Congress had the hardihood to say that not a gun or a sword had been needed there. Not a man arose to rebuke the rant about the use of troops to "put down" workingmen, although all know that the use of the troops was only to "put down" those who wanted to prevent men from working. Members from the agricultural districts of the South, perhaps, do not know that the North and East have a large and growing element in their population which is the offscouring of the large cities of the Old World—a most dangerous class, who have everything to gain and nothing to lose by disorder and violence, and who can only be kept in order by a strong arm. It was clearly demonstrated last summer that militia are not to be depended on in such an emergency as then occurred, and the disgraceful treatment which some of our Philadelphia troops received at the hands of the local authorities—civil and military—in Pittsburgh is both disheartening and demoralizing to all such organizations. All this is, or ought to be, well known to all the members from the Middle States, and for any of them to pretend otherwise is either demagogism or gross stupidity.

As to the bosh that was talked about danger to our liberties from an army of 25,000 men, I can only say that if our liberties ever suffer from such a force, or from four times such a force, it will be because we deserve it. The abuses which were committed by General Grant in the use of troops in the Southern States could have been as readily effected had the army been but half its present size; and had Congress done its duty in promptly calling him to account on the first usurpation, the wrong could have been stopped there and then. The false economy of a small army has been pretty clearly demonstrated by the gentleman who has lately been handsomely endorsed by the Democracy of New Jersey.

Common Sense.

Philadelphia, November 12, 1877.

Notes.

Dodd & Mead will publish immediately a new translation (from the seventh German edition) of Lübke's 'History of Art,' revised by Edward L. Burlingame and edited with notes by Clarence Cook, and provided with an index and additional illustrations, in two volumes, octavo. ——The Long Island Historical Society announces that it has in press a Centennial volume entitled 'The Campaign of 1776 around New York and Brooklyn,' by Henry P. Johnston. In it the story of the battle of Long Island will be told again, with the aid of many hitherto unpublished documents, the most important of which is an order-book of General Nathanael Greene, kept during his four months' stay on Long Island. The volume will be an octavo of at least 400 pages, and will be sold for three dollars. A small edition will be issued and no plates will be made. Subscriptions should be promptly addressed to George Hannah, the Society's librarian, Brooklyn.——Henry Holt & Co. announce 'Dita,' a new novel by Lady Margaret Majendie, author of 'Giannetto.'——Hurd & Houghton have issued the Burns of the British Poets series—three volumes in one. A peculiar feature of this edition is that the glossary accompanies the text, the explanatory word being put in small type in the margin on a line with the word explained.——The October number of the *Library Journal* is devoted to colleges, and besides an important account of the arrangement and management of the Princeton College Library, by Mr. Frederic Vinton, the efficient librarian, contains numerous replies to a circular enquiring as to the condition and use of college libraries generally.——News has been received of the death of the Rev. James Orton, Professor of Natural History at Vassar College, and well known as the author of 'Comparative Zoölogy' and 'The Andes and the Amazons.' Professor Orton made his first expedition to South America in 1867, crossing the Andes eastward from Peru, and descending the Napo to the Marañon. His second expedition, in 1873, was the reverse of the former one, beginning with the ascent of the Amazon. He was on his way home from a third expedition when he died, September 25, on board a small schooner on Lake Titicaca. He was greatly esteemed by all who knew him.

—We not long ago had occasion to expose the worthlessness and disingenuousness of a book by Dr. Rule, an English Protestant clergyman, in which the monuments and records of antiquity discovered and translated within a few years past were used to "confirm" the Bible. A very much more carefully considered work in the same line, entitled 'La Bible et la découvertes modernes en Égypte et en Assyrie' (Paris: Berche et Tralin), is by a French Catholic priest, F. Vigouroux. After what might be called an introductory essay of great length on the history of Biblical rationalism in Germany, intelligently prepared and with every attempt at candor, the author sets himself to the task of arraying in defence of the Bible the discoveries of Egyptology and Assyriology. His work is avowedly apologetic, and attempts to prove from these sources the actual historical character of the early chapters of Genesis, and to verify the Biblical history wherever it touches on the contemporaneous history of other nations. He especially insists, though his evidence is mainly a quotation from the German Syriac scholar, Dr. Bickell (a Catholic convert), that the Assyrian records prove that the Pentateuch is not a compilation, but entirely the work of Moses. This is too much of a burden of proof to put upon them, although they certainly do prove an extreme antiquity for important portions of Genesis. On the matter of the unity of any Jewish

book it is impossible that they should say anything. They can only confirm or discredit historical statements, or, by offering parallel myths for comparison, suggest the source of the Biblical accounts of the creation, the deluge, the confusion of tongues, etc. Frère Vigouroux's method is quite too easy. According to his trilemma either Moses has copied from the Chaldean poet, or the Chaldean poet from Moses, or they have each drawn from a common source. But, he argues, "as all the world must admit," "Moses speaks with quite another accent, and his words have quite another signification" from those of the Chaldean myths; therefore neither writer copied from the other, but each drew independently from the common tradition. But it must not be too easily assumed that the common source was an historical tradition and not a myth, having its origin like the myths of other races. At the time that Abraham left Ur of the Chaldees the Babylonian pantheon was full, and its mythical cosmogony completed. In order to show that the cosmogony of the Abrahamidæ given in Genesis represents an earlier and purer tradition rather than a recension of the old myth by a monotheistic people, it must be shown that Abraham represented the antique type of faith which had resisted the polytheistic corruption about it. F. Vigouroux's argument for the original monotheism of Egypt, Assyria, and Syria is strong and supported by excellent authorities. He is in error, however, in basing his belief in the original monotheism of the Assyrians on the identity of attributes of their chief divine triad, Anu, Hea, and Bel. Their original one god was Assur or Ilu, the biblical *El*. One of the most valuable portions of this work is its discussion of the belief of the Hebrews in the immortality of the soul. Although, like the whole work, too partisan in its character (for the priest of Saint-Sulpice with his unquestioning faith cannot put himself in the place of a doubter), this is an admirable résumé of the freshest arguments from the monuments which show the belief in immortality of those nations by whom the Hebrews were most affected. Any Catholic publishing house which should give us a translation, suitably edited, would do a good service.

—Our silver and greenback inflationists, to whom the financial example of France just now seems so precious, will naturally feel a deep interest in the schools in which the French youth are taught the sound doctrine of Messrs. Jones, Bland, and Voorhees. We have before us the programme of the Paris Free School of Political Science, for its seventh year, 1877–78, which begins next Monday. The instruction furnished by this school is, we are told, the natural finish (*couronnement*) of every liberal education, and familiarity with the subjects studied should be part of the equipment of every cultivated man. MM. Alfred André, one of the regents of the Bank of France, and Jacques Siegfried, a Paris banker, members of the Board of Control, ensure right teaching as to bi-metallism and the "dollar of our fathers"; but it will pain the advocates of silver repudiation to learn that this does not constitute the sum of political science, and that finance embraces but three of the twenty-one heads of instruction. It is a sad fact that the School, like its predecessor the *École d'administration*, aims to prepare candidates for entrance into the public service, for which purpose it has an administrative and a diplomatic section; that its diploma does not entitle one to admission to the public service except upon examination by the state authorities; and that there is no mention of advantages to be derived from acquaintance with any senator or deputy, or from being a resident of any particular *pays* or *arrondissement*, or hint of any geographical equilibrium in the distribution of Government clerkships.

—It follows of course that politicians have no place in the direction of the School, whereas "literary fellers" like MM. Germer Baillière and H. Taine are admitted to the Board of Control—the former even handling the money as treasurer. Two of their colleagues, MM. Beaussire and Bethmont, are described as *anciens députés—i.e.*, no longer "inside politics." Senator Laboulaye is "pocketed" in one of the *comités de perfectionnement*. In short, only our civil-service "theorists" can take any comfort in this aspect of the School, or in the bureaucracy which it is designed to perpetuate. The complete curriculum covers two years, and consists of recitations and lectures, with examinations. It includes comparative administrative organization; administrative affairs; financial systems of the leading nations; public revenues and taxation; organization of the French financial service and regulation of the public accounts (decree of May 31, 1862); political economy; comparative commercial legislation; history of the commercial treaties since 1786; history of the treaties from the peace of Westphalia to 1789; analyses of the principal treaties from 1648 to 1789; diplomatic history of Europe (1789–1872); practical exercises on the organization of the diplomatic service; constitutional history of France, England, and the United States for a century; parliamentary and legislative history of France (1789–1852); analyses of the constitutions of Belgium, Switzerland, Germany, and Austria-Hungary; international law; international law derived from treaties,—consular services; geography and ethnography; statistics; industrial and commercial geography; comparative civil legislation. While it is humiliating, from the Indiana point of view, that so much rubbish should be thought essential to the highest culture, it is consoling to find that it is not overvalued in francs. The *École Libre* charges but $60 a year for its entire round of recitations (nine branches) and lectures (six courses), instruction in English and German (two courses), and admission to the combined library of the School, the Statistical Society, and the Linguistic Society. There are also free scholarships, and *bourses de voyage* such as Mr. Hendricks must have sighed for in his early youth.

—The French Minister of Education, M. J. Brunet, has issued a circular to all engaged in instruction in France, in which he invites co-operation in forming a collection of all educational works published in that country since 1867. This collection, which is to include every publication, however small, is to be placed in the Paris Exposition of 1878. A carefully prepared catalogue will be published, and, to aid in this, directions are given for the writing of catalogue slips to accompany each work. During the Exposition the collection will be opened every morning for the purpose of consultation and study. Eventually it will be given to the University of Paris.

—It is an indication of the great intellectual activity of the Jesuits from the very beginning that their first bibliographer was Pedro de Ribadeneyra, a personal friend of Loyola's, and an original member of the order. No copy of the first edition of his work published in 1602 is now known to exist. The second, however, published in Antwerp in 1608, gives an account of the writings of 250 authors, out of a total membership of 10,581. In 1676, when Southwell's 'Bibliotheca' appeared, the number of writers was 2,240, whilst a supplement published in 1814 contains 4,400 names. Valuable as these works undoubtedly were, the 'Bibliothèque des Écrivains de la Compagnie de Jésus' of Augustin de Backer, recently completed, far excels them, and in fact in many, perhaps all, respects stands at the head of all bibliographical works. To one familiar with the means employed at the time of the suppression of the society to scatter and destroy its libraries and archives, the success of De Backer in collecting the materials for his work is the more remarkable. In prosecuting it, he has evidently not only ransacked every prominent library in Europe, but also mastered the theological and literary history of the past three centuries. He commenced his labors in 1839, at first entirely unaided and whilst cumbered with more than the regular duties of a Jesuit priest. After eleven years, his brother Alois was appointed to assist him, and, still later, Carlos Sommervogel. Volume one of the first edition was published at Liége, in 1853; the seventh, completing the work, in 1861. So incomplete did it appear, however, to the indefatigable bibliographer himself, that he immediately began to prepare a second edition. This edition, of which two hundred copies only have been printed (there is one in the Boston Public Library), consists of three large folio volumes, with three columns upon a page. The arrangement is upon the following plan: A brief historical sketch of the author treated, giving the dates of his birth and death and entrance into the society, together with the position which he filled, precedes a chronological list of the titles of the works which he wrote, with the various editions and translations. These titles are very full, and the collation of the books most elaborate. In addition to these are lists of works to which they have given rise. For instance, under Annat, the famous antagonist of the Jansenists and confessor of Louis XIV., can be found a complete bibliography of Pascal's 'Provincial Letters.' The enumeration of Bellarmine's works, together with the multitude of controversial treatises which they occasioned, fills forty-three columns, whilst the Loyola literature extends to fifty columns. Under Bollandus is a similar elaborate bibliography of the 'Acta Sanctorum' and the works written on or compiled from it. An interesting list of the works upon Pope Joan is given under G. Scherer, and a most valuable account of the Roman martyrologies under Rosweyde. After the more important works of a writer, follow the articles which have appeared in reviews and periodicals, together with the manuscripts left by him at his death. At the close is a list of biographies and notices of the author. The living writers of the society, as well as additions and corrections, are given in a supplement. In all, the works of about 11,000 writers are catalogued. It is hard to conceive of a more enduring monu-

ment to the society than this work Almost every page bears witness to its labors in every part of the world. To the student of the literary and controversial history of the Roman Church, from the middle of the sixteenth century, it is simply invaluable. Father de Backer published in 1864 an 'Essai bibliographique sur le livre 'De Imitatione Christi,'' in which the number of editions mentioned was over 3,300. His biographer, Van Tricht, says that he left in manuscript a second edition of this work, in which the number of editions noted exceeds 6,000. He died in 1873, before the completion of the third volume of his 'Bibliothèque.'

—Several weeks ago we announced the death of the eminent Anglo-Saxon scholar, Grein. No. 2 of the *Anglia*, recently issued, contains a brief obituary notice by the editor, Prof. Wülcker. The story of Grein's life and labors is a sad one, and not without its reproaches for Germany, the land of scholarship. To Grein may be applied most emphatically the judgment of Stahr upon Lessing, that "he had no luck." After having qualified himself as a gymnasium teacher in mathematics and the natural sciences, he resolved in 1854, through the influence of Vilmar, to follow Germanistic philology as his specialty. But it was not until 1873, four years before his death, that he succeeded in obtaining a professorship, and even then only an *ausserordentliche*. His life was passed, we might almost say wasted, in arranging the archives of Bückeburg, Marburg, and Cassel. The time necessary for his Anglo-Saxon and other philological studies was literally snatched from the treadmill round of classifying and cataloguing. His means were always extremely limited, and he was never able to gratify his lifelong wish to visit England and consult the Anglo-Saxon MSS. The most unfortunate event in his life was the publication of his essay on the "Hildebrandslied," in 1859, and the controversy to which it gave rise. Prof. Wülcker passes over this in silence, but it is none the less true that this controversy and the cruel injustice done to Grein by those whom his views offended are a dark spot in the history of German letters. To those who knew him well—and these remarks are based upon daily intercourse extending through several months—Grein appeared amiable, thoroughly interested in his favorite studies, and singularly unpretending in manner. He showed no trace of *Gelehrtendünkel*. His views upon the general science of language, especially the views embodied in his essay on "The Verb in Gothic" (1872), were a shade behind the most advanced scholarship of our times, but in his peculiar domain of Anglo-Saxon it is safe to say that he was without a rival, and his death—a lingering and painful one—leaves a gap which it will be difficult, if not impossible, to fill. To our knowledge, certainly, no one appears to devote himself to the study of our early language with such enthusiasm and such complete grasp of the details. Prof. Wülcker gives a chronological list of Grein's works, and is also charged with editing his literary remains. Of the other contents of the *Anglia*, the longest is by K. Regel, upon the proverbial and figurative element of style (*Spruch und Bild*) in Layamon. Wagner concludes his elaborate and valuable critique of Ward's 'History of English Dramatic Literature.' Trautmann contributes a searching criticism of Sweet's 'Anglo-Saxon Reader.' Elze's explanations of certain passages in the poets, chiefly in Shakspere, will be found fresh and valuable.

—A striking proof of the strong hold taken by the science of comparative philology upon Italian scholars within the present decade is afforded by the work of Domenico Pezzi, entitled, 'Glottologia Aria Recentissima' (Turin: Loescher. 1877). Within the narrow limits of 190 pages the author has given a sound and very readable summing-up of the progress made in Aryan linguistics. The only objection of a general nature that we might urge against the author is that he is too much disposed to swear *in verba Schleicheri*. His style is clear and concise; he possesses great power of condensation and the ability to state conflicting views with fairness. So far as our observation extends, indeed, we do not know any work of the kind in German—certainly not in English—that will afford such a comprehensive survey of the whole field of Aryan philology. A mere glance at the alphabetical list of authors cited will show that Professor Pezzi is fully up to the times. Although the preface is dated October, 1876, we find him taking note of Siever's 'Grundzüge der Lautphysiologie,' a work which did not appear until midsummer of the same year. We can safely commend the 'Glottologia' to all who are interested in the subject of which it treats.

VÉTAULT'S CHARLEMAGNE.*

ONE of the most noteworthy and encouraging effects of the disastrous war of 1870 is the increased interest taken by cultivated Frenchmen in the early and mediæval history of their country and its literature. This interest does not solely proceed from a disposition to take refuge from the distractions of the present in the stately glories of the past; it betokens also a nobler impulse, the desire to study the vital connection between present and past, to appreciate the abiding sources of French greatness, and to awaken a steadfast patriotism that shall hold the middle course between Chauvinism and empty cosmopolitanism.

No better evidence of such a spirit could be found than the present work. Dealing with the greatest name and the greatest epoch in early French history, it must of necessity attract attention and—unless stupidly marred in the execution—must command respect. That it should betray a "tendency" is almost a matter of course, and we do not judge that such a tendency is in itself deserving of blame, or even of strict criticism. Without going to the length of asserting that no historical work, in any age or any country, was ever written without a tendency, we may safely hold to the belief that perfect freedom from subjectivity, which is extolled as the historian's ideal, still is, and probably will always be, only an ideal. So long as mankind is split up into parties, sects, nationalities, we must expect different views of the same facts; and all that we can demand of the historian is that he shall not seek disingenuously to cloak his tendency, or bias, or prejudice, or whatever we may chance to call it, and especially that he shall not suffer it to mislead him in his just estimate of "sources" or in his truthful statement of premises. As to his conclusions, they may be left to each reader's correction. Furthermore, we should not be warranted in applying the strictest standard of scientific excellence to a work like the present, which is—to indulge in verbal paradox—a popular *œuvre de luxe*. It is popular in the sense that it aims at acquainting the reader of ordinary information and culture with all the determining features of Charlemagne's character and reign; it is an *œuvre de luxe* by virtue of its typographical execution and the profuseness of its illustrations.

It has become the rule among historians and essayists to regard the Revolution of '89 as a great and impassable gulf in French history. We regard this view as erroneous, and fraught with evil consequences. However sweeping the legal and social changes wrought by the Great Revolution, it did not change the national tendency, but, on the contrary, intensified it, and carried it to the farthest possible limits. Under Napoleon I., as under Louis XIV., Henry IV., Louis XI., Charlemagne, France was still—to use the conventional phrase—"marching at the head of European civilization." This national illusion, or delusion, as the reader may see fit to call it, was never seriously checked until 1870. Whether it will remain suppressed, as it now is; whether France will voluntarily renounce the title to "*prima* inter pares," or whether we are to witness renewed efforts to regain the rashly-forfeited hegemony, the future alone can show. Precisely in this trait—to wit, the recognition of an unbroken continuity in French history, despite revolutions and changes of dynasty—lies the "tendency" of the present work. By skilfully choosing and faithfully describing the epoch when France not only was, but deserved to be, the focus and mainspring of European life, the editor rehabilitates his country in the eyes of her children, and suggests what it might not be wisdom to inculcate explicitly. The establishment of the Merovingian dynasty, the nature of its occupation, and its dissolution, are given with more than sufficient fulness. We should have preferred a rather condensed account of the interminable squabbles between Austrasia and Neustria. The portraiture of St. Arnulph, Pepin of Heristall, Charles Martel, and Pepin the Short, is clear and vivid, although marred to our taste occasionally by excess of deference to ecclesiastical considerations. One might almost infer that these hard-hearted and hard-fisted heroes had a clear prophetic vision of the church as it was to be under Gregory and Innocent, and labored with single, unselfish purpose towards its establishment. Still more evident is the author's aberration in his conception of Charlemagne himself. He has failed to detect what was pointed out long ago by Ranke, namely, that Charlemagne, who had a touch of prophetic insight, was the first statesman to detect the growing danger to the secular power from the superior organization of the church and to guard against it. Not even Frederic II. or Richelieu was quicker than Charlemagne to resent every attempted encroachment upon secular supremacy. In this respect Gautier's Introduction, p. vii.–xxv., is simply pitiable. The learned editor of the *Chanson de Roland* has fallen into the rôle of an over-tardy Jeremiah, and the burden of his lamentation is that Charlemagne, so great, so good, so wise, should nevertheless be only a king, an emperor, and miss that saintly crown which Mother Church gives to her best beloved. Gautier seems to be not quite sure that the Church can be infallible in this matter. Let him be

* 'Charlemagne. Par Alphonse Vétault. Introduction par Léon Gautier.' Tours: Mame et Fils; New York: F. W Christern. 1877.

assured that the Church does not err; that Charlemagne is not canonized because he did not deserve to be. As for the oratorical quotation from Bossuet: "His prodigious conquests extended the kingdom of God, and he showed himself most Christian in all his works," it deserves to be ranked with the old-time Oxford professor's verdict upon Henry VIII.: "He had some domestic infelicities, but he was a wise king and did great good to the Church of England."

The story of Charlemagne's life and conquests is told by Vétault with extreme fulness. So far as we can judge, not a single incident of the contemporaneous chroniclers is omitted. In clearness and arrangement of details the narrative leaves little to be desired, and is calculated to impress the thoughtful reader more deeply than ever with a sense of Charlemagne's energy, foresight, intuitive perception of the needs of the moment, and marvellous command of resources. But while according to Vétault a full measure of praise, we cannot refrain from expressing certain grave strictures. In the first place, we detect a want of perfect familiarity with the best German writers on the Carolingian age. In the next place, Vétault is so engrossed with the chroniclers as to be "entangled" in them. He is too prone to look upon them as of equal value, and he does not rise high enough above them to view them in the correct light. He has, in consequence, fallen into certain blunders, one of which we cite. Thus, p. 350, in speaking of the attempt to assassinate Pope Leo, April 25, 799, he states: "The monsters trampled under foot the venerable old man, thrust out his eyes, pulled out his tongue," etc. But, p. 357, we read that the pope, on the occasion of his meeting Charlemagne at Paderborn, "by a providential healing had recovered his speech and sight." Would Vétault have us regard the pope as cured by a miracle *ad hoc*, or is the first account, taken from the 'Liber Pontificalis,' to be discredited? Again, what is the sense of a passage like the following, p. 188, that serves to introduce and justify the forcible conversion of the Saxons: "The sword it was that must open a passage for the peaceful envoys of the Holy See. The land of Arminius is also the land of Luther." We learn here for the first time that Thüringen, the Eichsfeld, and Wittenberg are the land of Arminius! We do not attribute to the author any wild desire to reconvert Germany at the point of the sword, or the belief that a reconversion would have been possible in the days of Luther. But such empty rhetorical phrases are out of place in a sober historical treatise. In general, the author's treatment of the Saxons suffers from one radical fault: it is based too much on the descriptions of the Germans given by Tacitus. Whether Tacitus be a safe guide for his own times, is a question that does not concern us here. We content ourselves with calling attention to the fact that six centuries had elapsed between the times of Tacitus and those of Charlemagne, and that the accounts in the 'Germania,' whatever view we may take of them, are in no wise applicable to the Saxons of Witekind.

The appendices (*éclaircissements*) are of equal value with the history itself. We have a chapter on the Charlemagne-Legend, by Gautier, that offers an extremely valuable bibliography of the literature on this subject; a chapter on the Coinage of Charlemagne, by Anatole de Barthélemy; two by Germain Demay, on the Seals of Charlemagne and the Costume of the Carolingian Epoch; and one upon the Geography of the Empire, in explanation of the large and minute map, by Auguste Longnon. Paper and press-work are sumptuous. The illustrations are not only profuse, but executed in the best style, and selected, in the main, with good taste. There are twenty full-page illustrations (*hors texte*), representing either Charlemagne himself or some episode or prominent object in his history, according to the conception of mediæval and modern artists. The most interesting are the equestrian statuette of Charlemagne, now in the Musée Carnavalet (ninth century), the so-called "Crown of Charlemagne" (eleventh century), the Vitrail de Charlemagne in the Cathedral of Chartres (twelfth century, based upon the Chronicle of the False Turpin), the portrait of Charlemagne by Albert Dürer, in his happiest style, and the "Carolingians" by Lameire, etching by Léopold Flameng. The countless headings, initials, and tail-pieces scattered throughout the text are all taken from manuscripts of the ninth century. A special chapter upon the illustrations, a facsimile of a charter from Count Hrodhard to the abbey of St. Denis (790), countersigned by Charlemagne, and facsimiles of the signatures of the Merovingian kings, help to complete the tableaux of the great age. There is not a little in the volume that we could wish otherwise. Some of the illustrations might be profitably changed for others less conventional, and we regret that no one of the manuscript-illustrations has been given in full size and in the manuscript-coloring. But when we consider the complexity of the theme, we can only congratulate editor and artist upon their successful co-operation. Taken all in all, the volume is a most laudable effort to revive the faded glories of the past, and is to be heartily commended to all purchasers who are not deterred by the necessarily high price.

SCHUMANN AS A MUSICAL CRITIC.*

NOT until the taste for good music has become as prevalent as the taste for good literature can we hope that the general standard of musical criticism will be as high as that of literary criticism. Hitherto there have only been two musical critics who rank with the best literary critics, such as Sainte-Beuve and Matthew Arnold—critics who endeavor "to see the object as in itself it really is." Their names are Robert Schumann and Richard Wagner. Both have been frequently told that it would have been better for them had they never written, but simply confined themselves to composition. Better for them, perhaps, but not for us. A few more compositions would be ours in that case, and they themselves would have avoided much bitter opposition and personal vituperation; but general musical culture would not be as advanced as it is now. The musical public needs a guide in its opinions, especially when anything new is set before it or a new epoch is inaugurated. But musical critics, according to Schumann, "are always behind the times, unless themselves creative." They will attack everything that is new, and, unfortunately, "one voice that blames has the strength of ten that praise." There is need, therefore, at intervals, of the pen of a creative artist to enlighten the public as to the development, the actual condition, and the future prospects of his art. Such a need existed in 1834, when Schumann established the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*, which has ever since remained the best musical periodical in Germany, always fighting for advanced ideas and against pedantry and old-fogyism. At that time the musical situation was not very encouraging in Germany. "On the stage Rossini reigned, at the pianoforte nothing was heard but Herz and Hünten; and yet but a few years had passed since Beethoven, Weber, and Schubert had lived among us." In fact, Beethoven was but half understood; Schubert had not been able to find a publisher for his later orchestral compositions, including the wonderful C-major Symphony; and Bach had not been aroused from his hundred years' slumber.

To help to a better appreciation of the old masters, to assist and encourage rising talent, and to fight against mechanical routine and general musical Philistinism, were the aims which Schumann had before him in writing his criticisms. He did more than any one else to establish a musical literature. The purely technical, dry analyses of his predecessors in this field were found inadequate, and attention was directed to the poetic spirit and emotional contents of a composition. This was a very important step, but one which could not very well be taken until the fact began to be recognized that music does, and ought to, express definite *emotional* states, but not intellectual conceptions or material objects and scenes—an important distinction. Schumann was unusually well qualified for his task. His almost excessive admiration for the poet-novelist, Jean Paul, betokens an affinity with his spirit. Some of his private letters are not inferior to Mendelssohn's best, and the essays before us abound in similes drawn from the other arts, from poetry, painting, and architecture, as well as from nature. Our own critics would do well to study them as models. Schumann's impartial spirit is well illustrated by his fond habit of playing over new pieces sent for review, and deciding on their merit, before looking at the title-page. And he always observed his rule: "Do not judge a composition on a first hearing of it." We wonder what he would have said of the flock of unfeathered scribblers who "did" the Bayreuth festival, as tourists often "do" Europe and its galleries?

It is a well-known fact that jealousy and envy are nowhere so prevalent as in the world of smaller musicians and executive artists. But it is no less true that the great masters have not only been free from such feelings but have ever exerted themselves to advance one another's cause. We all know what Mendelssohn did to revive the memory of Bach; what Liszt has done for Wagner, for Chopin, and for Schumann; and Wagner for Gluck. Still greater praise, perhaps, is due to Schumann. He was the first to discern, and openly and repeatedly to proclaim, the genius of Chopin; and he never got tired of advocating the claims of Berlioz, Bennett, John Field, even now too little known, Schubert, and the older

* 'Music and Musicians. Essays and Criticisms. By Robert Schumann. Translated, edited, and annotated by Fanny R. Ritter.' New York: E. Schuberth & Co. 1877.

masters. If he errs it is in praising too much. He rather overrates Bennett, as well as Mendelssohn, in our opinion, perhaps because he lacked the perspective of time necessary to see one's contemporaries in the proper light. On the other hand, he has little admiration for modern Italian music, as an art, although he is most cosmopolitan in taste and thinks that music cannot but gain by the absorption and assimilation of national peculiarities. "One must hear Italian music among the Italians; German music may be enjoyed under every heaven." In contradicting the assertion of Fétis that Berlioz lacks melody, he adds, "Only we must not have in mind here Italian melody, *which one already knows before it begins.*" We may add that this last sentence, as translated in the present edition, loses all its force. "Rossini is an admirable scene-painter; but take away the artistically managed light and the alluring stage distance, and see what remains." Of Donizetti's "Favorita" he could endure only two acts: "Marionette stage-music" is the verdict. Such remarks were, of course, so many stones thrown into critical hornets' nests, and brought him no honey. But a still greater excitement was caused by his utter demolition of Meyerbeer. "To startle or to tickle is Meyerbeer's maxim, and he succeeds in it with the rabble." "In 'Il Crociato' I still counted him among musicians; in 'Robert le Diable' I began to have my doubts; in 'Les Huguenots' I place him at once among Franconi's circus-people," and so on, for half a dozen pages. This agrees remarkably with Wagner's opinions on the subject. The condemnation may seem too sweeping, but we think it is not. In estimating a composer we must consider whether the sum total of his activity is beneficial or injurious to his art, and pronounce accordingly. In the present case there is no doubt. The works of Meyerbeer mark the culminating point of that clap-trap method of composition which consists in carefully noting the tricks, roulades, final high notes, etc., which are sure to "bring down the house," and panders to such a depraved taste. By the success of his works young composers were misled, the popular taste was vitiated, and we must regard it as a good sign of the times that every year adds to their unpopularity in Germany.

Turning now to the most recent period in musical development, it is interesting to note Schumann's standpoint. His opinion of Wagner is somewhat undecided. This is not strange when we bear in mind the wretched performance in those days of Wagner's early works, which were too much for the existing stage-powers, and suffered much by the application of the totally irrelevant Italian vocal method, where sensuous sound is everything, and articulation nothing. He says: "Wagner is, if I may express myself briefly, not a good musician; he is deficient in the sense of form and euphony." But "Tannhäuser" "certainly bears the mark of genius." "It is deep, original, a hundred times better than his earlier operas, and I consider the composition and instrumentation extraordinary, far beyond what he ever accomplished before." And Hanslick tells us that this opera exerted a great influence on the character and form of Schumann's "Genovefa." Finally, the much-abused Hector Berlioz is discussed and strongly defended in the longest and perhaps most important essay in this collection. It is a review of the Symphony Op. 4, "An episode in the life of an artist," written when Berlioz was eighteen. While endeavoring to restrain the young artist's inclination towards eccentricity, and scarcely approving of the elaborate, sensational programme accompanying it, he is careful to point out all the evidences of genius in the composition. "How could he [Fétis] be deaf to his richness of melody and harmony?" "His harmony is distinguished by such raciness, simplicity, and concentration as we only find—though certainly more thorough and complete—in Beethoven." "He does not squeeze out his themes to the last drop, nor does he embitter our pleasure in a good idea by tiresome thematic treatment, as so many others do." "His melodies are characterized by such intensity of almost every tone that, like some old folk-songs, they will scarcely bear a harmonic accompaniment, and even seem to lose in fulness of tone when accompanied." We advise the reader to study the essay, especially the remarks on programme-music on pp. 250–252. Schumann's prophecy that Berlioz could not be exterminated by ignoring him has come true. All Paris "went crazy" last winter over his "Faust" Symphony, and this will doubtless lead to a general revival of his works. It is to be hoped that we too may share the benefit of the movement.

The translation, as a whole, is excellent. Should this first volume be a success, another will follow, containing the remaining essays printed in the German edition. The work should have a large sale, as it is both entertaining and instructive. Some of the "Rules and Maxims for Young Musicians" at the end of the book are very suggestive, and should be printed in large type and hung up in the rooms of every conservatory of music.

A MILITARY HISTORY OF THE WAR OF 1877.*

IF anybody is sufficiently prepared to begin the history of the Russo-Turkish war now raging, at so early a period of its course, it is Colonel Wilhelm Rüstow, a military critic and historian of acknowledged ability and experience, and the author, among many other works on the art of war and special campaigns, of histories of the Eastern war of 1853–6 and of the war in Turkey in 1875 and 1876. Of this latter work, which treats exhaustively of the struggles in Herzegovina and Bosnia and the Montenegrin and Servian campaigns, down to the armistice of October 31, 1876, the book before us forms a kind of continuation, regarded from a literary point of view, while, historically considered, the military events of the two years past are but a light prelude to the great war-drama now enacting. The scene is the same only in its less important parts, and the most powerful of the present combatants, the Russian, appears on it for the first time. Yet the author may be excused for not repeating everything previously stated that refers to all the three years alike. In a statistical summary he lays before us the military resources and organizations of Russia and her present and possible allies, Montenegro, Rumania, Servia, Greece, and Persia, and those of Turkey and her only and feeble supporter, Egypt; and in a geographical sketch he acquaints us with the characteristics of the principal theatres of the war, the regions of the lower Danube and the Balkans, Armenia, and Transcaucasia. The information imparted is lucid and valuable.

Since the writing—about the end of May last—of the first part of the book, the resources both of Russia and Turkey have become better known than they were at the opening of the contest, and those of Russia especially have undergone a severe scrutiny, being measured by the standard of power elicited under high pressure. Yet we must do our author the justice of acknowledging that he has hardly overestimated the forces which the Czar was about to march across the Danube, or to launch on Erzerum, when those chapters were written. Making allowances for losses since incurred and reinforcements received, and all the necessary deductions, we should not expect, if we adopted Colonel Rüstow's figures, to find many more than two hundred thousand Russian combatants, not including Rumanians, south of the Danube; and this is precisely the figure which competent observers of the present day give as their estimate. He clearly foresaw the difficulties in transporting troops and supplies arising from the exclusion of Russia from the Black Sea; from the straightness of her railway lines, which pass between important towns without approaching them, and have but rare stations; from the limited capabilities of the Rumanian lines, all having single tracks, and their different (narrow) gauge, which necessitates the unloading of everything transported at the Moldavian frontier; from the scantiness of the rolling-stock in Rumania, which, on account of the difference of gauge, cannot be augmented by that of Russia; from the badness of the Rumanian and Bulgarian roads, and the oft-changing condition of the banks of the Danube. Nor did he as a strategist underestimate the value to the Turks of their Bulgarian quadrilateral of fortresses, while he correctly judged the Balkans to be a much less formidable barrier to the advance of the Russians. That the invaders crossed the Danube with so little sacrifice must have surprised him, judging by his description of that river and the importance he attached to the Turkish gunboat flotilla on it. From the Turkish fleet on the Black Sea he expected what it has done: good services in transporting troops from shore to shore and in aiding a rising on the Circassian coast, but no extraordinary exploits and landings, which he believed Russian torpedoes and Turkish mistrust of Hobart Pasha were likely to prevent. The armaments he considers excellent, but the crews poor.

Our author was less successful in estimating the forces which Turkey could keep in the field, outside of the fortresses. His figures may not have been much too low at the moment when he wrote, but they were certainly low even then. The Turks had more troops in Bulgaria and Rumelia than he thought, and he ascribed too much importance to threatening hostilities in other quarters. He believed the corps operating against the Montenegrins would have to be increased. Events have shown that, instead of having a harder struggle with Montenegro, the Turkish commanders were able, after dealing some crushing blows, to carry the bulk of their troops from her borders to the Balkan region,

* 'Der Orientalische Krieg in seiner neuesten Phase 1877. Von W. Rüstow.' Instalments I. and II. Zurich, 1877.

without sacrificing more than a Herzegovinian valley with a few insignificant posts. He erroneously considered all Herzegovina and Bosnia threatened, and all Christian Albania likely to rise; a feeble Mirdite attempt at rising was all that followed. Yet, in spite of such errors, he considered the invading armies in Europe, though expected to be reinforced by fifty thousand Rumanians, inadequate to their task; for the task of the Russian commander, as our author rightly understood it, could be no other than to cross the Danube as rapidly as possible, lay siege to or mask two fortresses of the quadrilateral, deal a staggering blow at the main Turkish army in the field, cross the Balkans without lingering, and appear at Adrianople—not with twenty thousand men, as Diebitsch did in 1829, but "with an effective army of at least one hundred and twenty thousand"—if the Porte was to be coerced into submission, and England and Austria cowed into idly standing by.

Colonel Rüstow expected a slow advance, though he thought rapid movements were needed. His scheme of campaign for the Russians in Europe was different from that which they adopted. Dividing the line of the Danube, as it borders Rumania, into three parts, the right (to the Russians) extending from the Servian frontier to the mouth of the Aluta, nearly opposite Nicopolis, the central from the mouth of the Aluta to that of the Arjish, opposite Turtukai, and the left from Turtukai to the Black Sea, he unqualifiedly condemned an advance on Adrianople from the right, by way of Sophia, though it offered an easier field for marching, and, to an advance from the central division, which the Russians have chosen for their main armies, he preferred a line of march from the left, as the shortest and the one which would the least expose the Russian base and communications in Rumania. Presuming the invaders to do as he thought best, he blamed the Turkish distribution of forces, which left too much strength—Osman Pasha's army—on the upper Danube, between Widdin and Nicopolis. His condemnation of a march from the right is obviously just; a march by a line so long and so far diverging from the natural base would probably have proved utterly destructive to the Russians. The preference, on the other hand, given to an advance from the lower Danube, in which the Russians, without connection with the sea, would have to pass between Varna and Shumla, fortresses so little distant from each other, and leave the whole quadrilateral and the Balkans in their rear, before reaching Adrianople, can hardly be considered sound, even from a standpoint taken at the earliest stage of the hostilities. The strength actually developed by the Turks in the defense of the parts of Bulgaria nearest to the Russian base, and the disasters encountered by the Czar's armies in attempting to free themselves from the incubus of a fortified camp improvised on their flank—we refer to Plevna—distinctly show how easily the route proposed by our author might have led to Caudine passes in the Balkans, or to a position, south of them, similar to Czar Peter's on the Pruth in 1711. Both the Russians and the Turks acted more wisely than they were instructed by Colonel Rüstow: the Russians, in crossing their main army at Sistova, and thus choosing an open field of advance to the Balkans; the Turks, in leaving a strong force on the invaders' right flank. The Russians blundered in underestimating that force and the fighting qualities of their foes, not in overestimating the task of reducing or masking the quadrilateral.

The second instalment of the book (pp. 93–193) treats of the advance of the Russians to the Danube, and their distribution along that river, of the combats of the Montenegrins in May and June, and of the first Russian campaign in Armenia, from its beginning on April 24 to its termination about the beginning of July.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.*

FROM the title of Mrs. Hallowell's book one might naturally infer a satire on the "girl of the period," and this misconception is confirmed on first acquaintance with the heroine. The careless, castle-building, slightly selfish miss of sixteen, depicted in the first chapter, seems doomed to mortification if not to misery, while her sister Hetty exhibits what we are prepared to regard as old-fashioned devotion, thoughtfulness, and energy. By-and-by, however, Nan, who aspires to be an artist, and has by hard sewing earned the privilege of instruction, suddenly chops up her easel into kindling-wood, breaks off her lessons, and learns telegraphing from the artist's son in order more speedily to contribute to her own support and that of the family, which has been reduced by the father's loss of health and eyesight. The end of the story is reached when she takes the place of an operator of her own sex, who makes a timely vacancy by getting married. This, as it happens, is the only marriage in the book. There are several lines leading up to betrothals and weddings, but the rehabilitation of Nan in the reader's esteem seems more important; and if part of this young lady's reward for sacrificing the long run to the present is to be getting a husband, it will require another volume to show us how it is done. The present history is more cheerful than may appear from our sketch of it, thanks to episodes in which fairs and candy-scrapes are made use of to introduce a little local color—local to Philadelphia under a thin disguise. The pleasure which Mrs. Hallowell evidently had in drawing these scenes from the life has led her perhaps to overlook some incongruities in the narrative regarded as a whole—as that the distressed Norrises should permit themselves the luxury of a soft-coal fire; or that the hunchback whose table was piled up with "expensive books, and the new scientific pamphlets in French and German" (p. 107), should talk like this (p. 29): "S'pose so; 's up-stairs. Just you go on up . . . Father's paintin' 'im." And we doubt not it was adult readers and not youngsters for whom such allusions as "a juvenile Cranford life," "Hetty was no Griselda," and "the debt she owed to that soldier's daughter," were really intended.

'Elsie's Children' is a second part of 'Elsie,' by the same author, and the accumulated grandfathers and intricate relationships of this part are probably clear to the readers of the first, but it is a lack of technical skill to make the understanding of one book depend on the reading of another. The story has a slight Southern flavor, chiefly owing to the presence of one of those "Bress de Lord!" old negroes who have almost ceased to be individuals (in a literary sense)—the type is so unvarying. Great wealth, beauty, the highest principles, and adoring affection are lavished on the heroine, and the children might be called angelic if they were not evangelic. Prodigal benevolence meets in this story with unvarying success and gratitude, and the story flows on unimpeded by any hindering deference to human nature. This would be more harmful if the book were calculated to make a deeper impression.

'Six Sinners' has a familiar sound, and is built on a well-known model; but the girls' boarding-school, and the scholar suffering from injustice, and the detested under-teacher, have a certain amount of American coloring, and Miss Jones is certainly a most original schoolmistress. Cynthia, the fat girl, is by no means one of the stock figures of children's books, and Uncle Sol is fairly well described and gives a good effect of contrast. May we plead with "Campbell Wheaton" to get Mr. Osgood well married before Dora grows up, to furnish out the sequel which is half promised?

'Adrift in the Ice-Fields' is a boys' story of adventure near and upon the Gulf of St. Lawrence. That part of it which describes duck-shooting, the preparations for it and all concerning it, is a piece of very vivid and real description, which occupies about half the book. The stories, however, told by the sportsmen at night are of a superstitious cast, and when the life on the ice begins, the full tide of melodrama sets in, and brings with it disguised youths, murdered men, and icy sepulchres of the most approved description. The story is a little like a chimera: it begins with a human figure and ends with an arabesque.

Mr. Horace E. Scudder, after an interval of two years, again offers his young readers a connected story composed of materials mainly drawn from the late *Riverside Magazine*. We should not say that personal interest in the fortunes of the Bodleys would be greatly heightened by the present narrative, but the stories told them will find almost anywhere an attentive audience. These embrace (corresponding to the increased age of the Bodleys) some account of historical buildings in Boston, sketches of Joseph Warren and Patrick Henry, the Goffe and Whalley legend (with Whalley dying in 1674), the life of Hans Christian Andersen, a prose abstract of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' a glimpse at the mysteries of type-setting and stereotyping, a suggestion of the charms of Hyannis Port (Cape Cod), and kindred matters. There are also numerous songs with music, both good and old, interspersed; three of the capital South Carolina negro animal fables, of which Br. Rabbit is the hero; and sundry pieces of versification, of a very poor quality. The plentiful illustrations and the paper binding, with its Japanese decorations, will prevent this volume from being overlooked amid the general holiday stock.

* 'Nan; the New-Fashioned Girl. By Mrs. S. C. Hallowell, author of 'Bec's Bedtime.'' Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 1877.

'Elsie's Children. By Martha Farquharson.' New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1877.
'Six Sinners. By Campbell Wheaton.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.
'Adrift in the Ice-Fields. By Capt. Chas. T. Hall.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1877.
'The Bodleys telling Stories. By the author of the 'Doings of the Bodley Family in Town and Country,' etc.' With illustrations. New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1877.

The three French stories of which 'The Wings of Courage' is one belong to the class in which fairies and other supernatural machinery are employed to serve the writer's purpose, and then discarded as rubbish—*i.e.*, explained away as dreams or illusions. They are, therefore, not very artistic productions, but they are nevertheless pervaded by a pleasant fancy and evince considerable descriptive power. The moral of all three may be said to be the duty and the reward of following one's highest aspirations, and on that account they must be deemed wholesome as well as agreeable reading. The English is very good.

Among recent attempts at the old-fashioned fairy-tale we cannot recall any which will compare with 'On a Pincushion.' 'Alice's Adventures' and its companion are *sui generis*, and we except them; and, besides, each is a book in itself, and there are seven tales in this volume. But Miss De Morgan's freshness, delicate humor, and genuine narrative style would doubtless receive the homage of Mr. Carroll himself, of whose influence there is here and there an occasional trace. The opening story of "Vain Lamorna," whose reflection is, for her moral discipline, stolen from her by the water-elves, so that she cannot even see herself in the glass, is conceived in the true spirit of the *conte des fées*, and is complete in form and moral. We incline to think the childish judgment will prefer it to any of those which follow, though there will be many a laugh over the scene in "The Hair-Tree" where the royal order is procured by the bald queen that all the ladies in the kingdom must have their heads shaved, and in public, on a scaffold in the market-place, beginning with "a duchess who was quite young and very beautiful." Grown folks, on the other hand, will enjoy most "A Toy Princess." The scene is laid in a country where "the people all grew so very polite that they hardly ever spoke to each other. And they never said more than was quite necessary, as 'Just so,' 'Yes, indeed,' 'Thank you,' and 'If you please'; and carefully repressed all emotional demonstrativeness. These chilling ways proved the death of the queen, who had been brought from a neighboring country, and she besought her fairy godmother, Taboret, to care for the little girl she left behind her. The natural behavior of this young princess, even in her cradle, caused great scandal at court, and the correction of it brought her so much misery that Taboret substituted for her a toy princess, a fairy product of unexceptionable demeanor, and carried Ursula off to a fisherman's hut to grow up in freedom. The time came when the king resolved to abdicate in favor of his supposititious daughter, and then Taboret came and told him the whole truth. He in turn tearfully informed his courtiers that "our dear, dear daughter . . . is—is—in fact, not our daughter at all, and only a *sham*." But they would not believe his authority, and the toy princess being summoned, Taboret decapitates her with her wand, and leaves the body an empty shell. "'Just so,' said the head," in reply to a previous remark of the king's, and rolled towards him. Ursula is next brought in, and her affectionate greeting of her father shocks everybody:

"'This is indeed a change after our sweet Princess,' said one lady to another.

"'Yes, indeed,' was the answer, 'when one remembers how even after her head was struck off she behaved so beautifully, and only said, 'Just so.'"

Again Ursula's life becomes unbearable, and Taboret intervenes. "When you had that bit of wood-and-leather Princess," she rebukes the King, "you could behave well enough to it, but now that you have a real flesh-and-blood woman, you none of you care for her." What follows reminds one of the enactment of the Bland Silver Bill in the House of Representatives:

"'Our late dear daughter—,' began the King, when the fairy interrupted him.

"'I do believe,' she said, 'that you would like to have the doll back again. Now I will give you your choice. Which will you have—my Princess Ursula, the real one, or your Princess Ursula, the sham?'

"The King sank back into his chair. 'I am not equal to this,' he said; 'summon the council, and let them settle it by vote.' So the council were summoned, and the fairy explained to them why they were wanted.

"'Let both Princesses be fetched,' she said; and the toy Princess was brought in with great care from her cupboard, and her head stood on the table beside her, and the real Princess came in with her eyes still red from crying and her bosom heaving.

"'I should think there could be no doubt which one would prefer,' said the Prime Minister to the Chancellor.

"'I should think not either,' answered the Chancellor.

"'Then vote,' said Taboret; and they all voted, and every vote was for the sham Ursula, and not one for the real one. Taboret only laughed.

"'You are a pack of sillies and idiots,' she said, 'but you shall have what you want'; and she picked up the head, and with a wave of her wand stuck it on to the body, and it moved round slowly and said, 'Certainly,' just in its old voice; and on hearing this, all the courtiers gave something as like a cheer as they thought polite, whilst the old King could not speak for joy.

"'We will,' he cried, 'at once make our arrangements for abdicating and leaving the government in the hands of our dear daughter'; and on hearing this the courtiers all applauded again.

"But Taboret laughed scornfully, and taking up the real Ursula in her arms, flew back with her to Mark's cottage."

The illustrations of this volume are as original as the text.

Lessing's Laocoon. Herausgegeben und erläutert von Hugo Blümner, Prof. der Archäologie an der Universität Königsberg. Mit Holschnitten. (Berlin. 1876. New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—This work has only two defects. One lies in the arrangement of the notes, the other in the absence of a general introduction. As to the first, it must certainly be condemned as clumsy and unpractical. The editor gives us first the text of a whole chapter, with Lessing's notes at the bottom of the page, then his own notes on the text, and then the notes on Lessing's notes. He felt this was an awkward arrangement, and tried to relieve it by different sizes of print, but he did not succeed. The want of a general introduction is the more serious defect, however. Much that now swells the notes to an enormous size would have found a more convenient place in an introduction. Much, on the other hand, which should have been in the introduction we do not find in the notes. Thus, for the time of the writing of 'Laocoon,' the connection between it and Lessing's other works and studies, the occasion of its publication, for all this we are referred to vol. ii. of Danzel and Guhrauer's 'Biography of Lessing.' But how many have this work within reach, however fully and well it may treat of those points? A mere résumé of Guhrauer's introductory chapters, such as Buschmann and Cosack give, would have been invaluable. Yet any one provided with this edition and Guhrauer may feel himself fully equipped for the study of Laocoon and the many questions of art, criticism, and archæology involved in it.

This edition is meant for the friends and students of art, for teachers and for artists; "but," says the editor, "I do not know whether there are still many artists who will admit at all the right of æsthetics to prescribe for them." It aims to show that in spite of various well-founded objections the æsthetic principles laid down by Lessing are indisputable; that the philological and archæological excursuses added to the æsthetic investigations contain much, to be sure, which the researches of to-day have pronounced false, but that in very many other cases the sharp-sighted Lessing found the correct result even then, by divination as it were; and that Lessing is great and important even where he errs. From this declared purpose of the editor the suspicion would be unjust that he may be partial to Lessing and unfair to his objectors. Herder, the first and principal objector to the 'Laocoon,' has his objections (which are frequently not well founded and often directed against what Lessing never maintained) well presented, and also upheld where he was right. Neither need we have any misgiving because the editor is an archæologist. Many questions lie entirely within this department, especially if taken in the narrower sense of "Kunstarchäologie"; and those which concern literature alone are ably discussed—witness the long commentary to chapter xvi., the very sum and substance of the whole essay.

The notes, we must confess, do look formidable. Out of 318 pp., allowing 18 for Lessing's own notes, just one-half are Blümner's. And yet there is not a page that could be spared, unless it be put in a general introduction. Some long-disputed questions he does not treat as fully as he was entitled to. He gives, for those who wish to push enquiries farther, references which in some cases are a regular bibliography of the subject. For example, there is an appendix containing the literature of the 'Laocoon' group from Winckelmann to the present day; on p. 221 begins a list of references to everything of importance that has ever been said or written on the shield of Achilles; and so of many other important matters. In fact, these are not the least merit of the book. We owe them, no doubt, to the excellent custom which German professors have of giving such in their lectures, under the heading "Quellen." These "Quellen" are a reliable starting-point for "Orientirung" on any subject. Had Prof. Blümner not lectured in Breslau and Königsberg on 'Laocoon,' we should probably have missed them in this volume.

There is probably no book which needs a thorough and full com-

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'The Wings of Courage. Stories for American Boys and Girls. Adapted from the French by Marie E. Field. With illustrations by Lucy G. Morse.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

'On a Pincushion, and Other Fairy Tales. By Mary De Morgan. With illustrations by William De Morgan.' New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1877.

mentary more than Lessing's 'Laocoon.' Notwithstanding the clearness and precision of his style, the closeness of his reasoning, and his cautious inferences, many of Lessing's results are so startling, his statements so concise and abrupt, many of his definitions so scanty and short, and yet so sweeping and far-reaching, that they absolutely need modifications and explanations. Again, there are questions which Lessing tried to answer and settle which, however, are unsettled to this day; matters on which the highest authorities are arrayed directly against each other. All such demand more or less full treatment by an editor, and account for the copiousness of Blümner's notes. As many difficulties and unsatisfactory statements are explained by Lessing himself, all that bears upon them, especially in Lessing's posthumous writings, Blümner has admirably used. We refer particularly to the 'Fragments to Laocoon' that have lately been published by Hempel, in Berlin, and which no previous commentator has had the opportunity to consult so fully. The definition of "actions" (*Handlungen*) is a case in point. As to text, we are given that of the first edition of 'Laocoon,' with few alterations. The index is complete, and the woodcuts give the different representations of the Laocoon myth besides the great Vatican group.

There is no book which deserves more to be used as a text-book in our schools and colleges where German is studied than Lessing's 'Laocoon.' It is much used in the Gymnasia in Germany, and has been frequently edited by Buschmann, Gosche, and Cosack. That it is used so little in this country is chiefly the fault of the teacher. It requires not a little preparation and knowledge on his part, but this edition should attract him to it. Even one ignorant of Latin and Greek should use it by taking Cosack (who has translated every language into German) as an additional help. To the classical student 'Laocoon' has always been an aid, and with this commentary will prove doubly so. For, after all, the subject of 'Laocoon' is poetry, its sphere, its limits, and its subjects. The group is the mere starting point. It is part first of a grand "Ars poetica," containing the general introduction and epic poetry. Unfortunately, part second never appeared, unless we consider the 'Hamburgische Dramaturgie' as such. Neither is it a systematic book. It was not meant to be. "Of systematic books," says Lessing, "we Germans suffer no want. To deduce from a few accepted word-definitions in the most beautiful order whatever we please—that we understand how to do better than any nation in the world."

Les Amours de Philippe. Par Octave Feuillet. (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.)—M. Octave Feuillet's new novel reaches an eighth edition within a few weeks of its appearance; and this circumstance, combined with the reputation of the author, may fairly be held to indicate that it is worth reading. M. Feuillet usually lays his hand upon an interesting fable, and his execution is always extremely neat and artistic. His defect is a too obvious desire to be what we call in English a "fashionable" novelist. He relates exclusively the joys and sorrows of the aristocracy; the loves of marquises and countesses alone appear worthy of his attention, and heroes and heroines can hope to make no figure in his pages unless they have an extraordinary number of quarterings. But there are few story-tellers of our day who know how to tell their story better than M. Octave Feuillet, though we must add that it may sometimes be a question whether his story was worth telling. This one is about a young man of very ancient lineage, who is predestined by his family to a union with a young girl of a proportionate pedigree. The young girl is his cousin; he is brought up side by side with her, and, knowing that she expects to be his wife, he conceives a violent aversion to her. This rebellious sentiment is so strong that when he comes of age he declares he will never look at her again, and departs for Paris, greatly to the distress of his aristocratic father. In Paris he takes a fancy to turn playwright, and manufactures an heroic drama, with a part especially intended for a brilliant and celebrated young actress with whom he has fallen violently in love. In the portrait of Mary Gerald M. Feuillet has evidently meant to suggest the figure of an actual artist, about whom "legend" has clustered thickly—Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt—but the image is rather vague; it lacks detail, and we should have advised the author either not to go so far or to go further. Philippe, however, goes very far in the company of his young actress. She takes a fancy to his play and to his person, and, staking everything upon the success of his drama, he mortgages his financial future on her behalf. The drama proves a colossal failure, and Mary Gerald ceases to care for a lover who has been hissed.

Philippe has a cruel awakening, but the war of 1870 breaks out in time to distract his attention. He serves in it gallantly, and on the return of peace falls in love with Mme. de Talyas, the wife of an intimate friend. This lady is a fiend incarnate and a monster of corruption, but she has charms which are so highly appreciated by Philippe that he becomes her reluctant but abject slave. Mme. de Talyas is very cleverly described by M. Feuillet, who in the portraiture of diabolical fine ladies has a very skilful touch and a very practised hand. Meanwhile Philippe's cousin and intended, the amiable Jeanne de la Roche-Ermel, is pining away at the château, deeply attached to the young man, and sorrowing over the *spretæ injuria formæ*. Mme. de Talyas has learned from Philippe that his marriage with her has been the dream of both their families, but that he has a positive repugnance to the young girl. The moment comes when she commands him, in these circumstances, to pretend to have reconciled himself to the project, in order to throw dust into the eyes of her husband. He obeys her, and the result of his obedience is that, weary of Mme. de Talyas, and disgusted at the dishonorable part he is playing, both as regards his friend, her husband, and as regards Jeanne, he falls honestly and earnestly in love with Mlle. de la Roche-Ermel. Caught in her own trap, the unscrupulous Mme. de Talyas tries first to stop the marriage, and then to bring about the death of Jeanne. At the moment when she has almost succeeded in the latter attempt Philippe comes on the scene, and seeing his fiancée in a very bad way (her rival, having invited her out to walk, has tried to push her into a lake), demands an explanation. Jeanne looks at Mme. de Talyas for a moment, and then utters one of those magnanimous fibs in which, from Victor Hugo down, French romancers delight. She says that she has by her own awkwardness slipped into the water, and that Madame has tried to save her. Madame, overwhelmed and humiliated by such generosity, retires, leaving the coast clear.

Such are the loves of Philippe, which, if they are not very pretty, are very prettily told. The faults of the tale are a certain disjointedness, the want of connection between the episode of Mary Gerald and that of Mme. de Talyas, and the very unsubstantial and inestimable character of the hero. The author tells us that he looked like one of the *mignons* of the court of the Valois king; and he really is hardly less contemptible. But French novelists are always addicted to making their heroes too unscrupulous first and too comfortable afterwards.

Epochs of Ancient History. The Roman Triumvirates. By Charles Merivale, D.D., Dean of Ely. With a map. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 12mo, pp. 248.)—This is, we believe, the fourth time that Mr. Merivale has narrated the story of the downfall of the Roman republic: the period which came at the close of his first work, at the beginning of his second, and midway in his third, is now treated by itself as the most striking and important epoch of Roman history. With such a preparation, and with the author's eminent talents as an historian, we could not fail to have a brilliant and instructive work. In political history Mr. Merivale is always at his best, and the account of the intrigues and coalitions of these years, the characters of leading personages, and the general current of events, could hardly be improved. As especially good, we note what he says in the introductory sketch of the relation of the provinces to the governing oligarchy. We must think that he underrates Cicero and unduly exalts Octavius. It is not always remembered that those of Cicero's faults which are most repulsive to us, his vanity and his womanly emotion, were those which were least offensive to his own generation; and that his helplessness in the presence of civil war is no derogation to his capacity as a statesman; a man whose powers are essentially peaceful and civic should not be expected to deal successfully with the convulsions of war and revolution. Even as it was, the last few months of his life brought out powers as a leader which we should hardly have looked for in him. On the other hand, Octavius at best only carried into operation the plan of government devised by Julius; and had he died before his victory over Mark Antony, his reputation would be that of cruelty and perfidy.

There is one peculiar danger to which a writer is exposed who undertakes to go over the same ground so many times, and that is of slipping into vagueness of phraseology when there is no necessity for studying and thinking a subject out at the time. We find some illustrations of this in the introductory sketch. The author says (p. 4) that Sulla "would deny them [the plebeians] the protection of their tribunes now, when they had become substantially the ruling power in the state, and it was through the tribunes that their power was exercised." Why, pray, if they were the ruling power in the state, did they want the *protection* of tribunes? This word "protection" belongs some centuries earlier. He proceeds after this to analyze the results of Sulla's work; but the first point we cannot clearly understand. It appears to have reference to some special

circumstances in the position of the commander of the East; but it is all stated in the most general terms, and we really cannot decide whether he has in mind Pompey's extraordinary command in the East or the permanent power of Augustus and his successors. On the next point—the extension of the franchise and its results—if the whole subject had not been so familiar to Mr. Merivale he would have seen that many of his expressions would convey no meaning, or a false one, to a student. For instance (p. 7), "the bulk of [the Equites] ranked with the plebeians." Of course they did, and so did the bulk of the senators, as he has said just before; but the fact has no bearing here. Just below we read, "the plebeian faction"; but the faction opposed to the Optimates is never called *Plebeian*, but *Popular*—a significant distinction, for the Equites, who were its leading members, belonged to the *populus*, or *people*, and were its most substantial class, but did not belong to the *plebs*, in the later and popular meaning of the word, as *commonalty*. In fact, we miss at this point a careful statement of the classes, factions, and political issues of the time, without which the events that follow are scarcely intelligible.

There are one or two inaccuracies in the map of the Roman Empire at the close of the Republic. Bithynia should be given as a province, not as a dependent state. It became the property of Rome B.C. 74, and was organized as a province by Pompey in 65. On the other hand, Lycia was not incorporated in the empire until the reign of Claudius. In other respects the provincial organization is not given with precision. Spain made two provinces; of Gaul, on the other hand, only the southern portion, Narbonensis, was organized as a province at this time. The name of the province Achaia is not given; while Epirus, Numidia, Mysia, Lydia, Caria, and Phrygia are given in such a way as to make them appear as independent provinces, which none of them were at this period.

Chrysomela. A Selection from the Lyrical Poems of Robert Herrick. Arranged with notes by Francis Turner Palgrave. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.)—The twofold stamp of compiler and publisher would suffice to make one take this dainty volume on trust: it is uniform in appearance with the Golden Treasury Series. Examination shows that it contains something not easily to be found elsewhere, a biographical notice and critical appreciation of Herrick. Mr. Palgrave's discussion of his relation to his predecessors and contemporaries is instructive in many ways. The sum of his judgment is that

"Herrick is classical in the great and eternal sense of the phrase. . . . Throughout his work, whether when it is strong or in the less worthy portions, sanity, sincerity, simplicity, lucidity, are everywhere the characteristics. . . . In these, not in his pretty Pagan masquerade, he shows the note—the only genuine note—of Hellenic descent. Hence, through whatever changes and fashions poetry may pass, her true lovers he is likely to 'please now, and please for long.' . . . We have greater poets, not a few; none more faithful to nature as he saw her, none more perfect in his art, none more companionable."

Besides making a selection from which almost every trace of the coarseness of the morals of the Restoration has been excluded, Mr. Palgrave has prettily grouped the several pieces under appropriate heads, and added notes in which all that is likely to puzzle the modern reader is explained as well as may be. It is noticeable that Mr. Palgrave thinks it necessary to interpret "fill-horse" by "in the shafts." The word is in every day-use in this country, but its Old-English origin has been overlooked by Mr. Bartlett, who accepts it as an Americanism pure and simple: "*Fills.*—A common mispronunciation for *thills*, the shafts of a wagon or chaise" ('Americanisms,' ed. 1860). We conclude by remarking that the punctuation of this volume is often eccentric, and at times annoying. This is the more surprising because the editor is a purist in this regard, and because in his preface he admirably exposes the futility of facsimile reproductions of old poetry for any but scholars. "Even unaccustomed forms of spelling are an effort to the eye," he says; "a kind of friction, which diminishes the ease and enjoyment of the reader." The same is in a high degree true of unperspicuous pointing.

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Harvard University Catalogue, 1876–77	(C. W. Sever)
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 22, 1877.

The Week.

CONGRESS adjourns to-day—if it can. This the supporters of the Anti-Resumption Bill will do all in their power to prevent, if the bill is not finally acted upon. All the week it has been kept back by losing its precedence of the Paris Exposition Appropriation Bill, and beyond passing the latter, on Tuesday, with an appropriation of $150,000, the House has accomplished nothing. The debate on resumption, however, has elicited two admirable speeches, one by Mr. Chittenden of New York, and the other, on Friday, by General Garfield, who visibly carried dismay into the ranks of the enemy. His speech was all the more remarkable because in the vote on the Bland Silver Bill his name was not recorded at all, and because it has been and still is doubtful how far he resists the Ohio mania on that question. Mr. Garfield's readiness in reply to the interruptions of Kelley, Ewing, and others showed him to be a debater of uncommon powers. The House Committee having reported unfavorably on the Senate's amendments to the Army Appropriation Bill, the House rebuked it and retraced its own steps by concurring (134 to 130) in the two most important amendments, and sending it back to the Senate, which in turn made the trifling concessions called for, and the bill was finally passed on Monday. It fixes the strength of the Army at 25,000 men, and in regard to the cavalry gives a general permission to recruit regiments to their full number, and directs that a sufficient force shall be employed on the Texas frontiers. It was Senator Thurman who first moved to make the total 25,000 instead of 20,000, and this ensured the discomfiture of the House Democrats. The Senate has also agreed to a resolution urged for some years by Mr. Davis, of West Virginia, which appoints a committee of five senators to investigate the finance reports, books, and accounts of the Treasury, with a special view to discrepancies, alterations, etc. This committee will have power to send for persons and papers, and to sit during the extra and the regular session.

The Treasury is getting used to enquiries of one sort and another. In response to a resolution of the House, Secretary Sherman on Thursday transmitted a statement of the amount of coin and bullion in the Treasury on October 31. The gold coin amounted to $101,486,964; the gold and silver bullion, silver coin, etc., amounted to about $34,000,000 additional, or a total of $135,565,580. The net amount of available gold coin, bars, and bullion (estimated) was $57,436,071. In reply to still another resolution, calling for copies of the contracts made with the Syndicate for the funding of the four per cent. bonds, the Secretary gives the history of the transaction, and does not omit to mention the check which the funding received from the public's "fears of the effect of the proposed legislation by Congress remonetizing silver." The subscriptions for the four per cents up to November 19 were $75,496,550, against which there have been called in fifty millions of the 5-20 bonds, leaving a balance of $25,496,550 on account of the Resumption Act. Mr. Sherman has also, it is said, responded to Mr. Conkling's enquiries, through the Committee on Commerce, for the reasons for making the contemplated changes in the New York Custom-house officers. He explains that the commission appointed by the President to overhaul the New York customs-service made a report which was approved; that this report called for the reform of certain abuses and a change of organization, which did not meet the views of the Collector and other officers; and that, as these reforms and changes were resolved upon by the Administration, the only way to have them certainly carried out appeared to be to put in new officers in sympathy with these objects.

The effect of this on Mr. Conkling's sensitive nature is expected to be not to crush but to harden it, and to fix him in the determination that his committee shall not report the Custom-house nominations during the extra session, thus compelling the President to make them all over again at the regular session. Nothing can be more wholesome for the country than to witness this spectacle of the tyranny of a committee not only over the Senate and the Executive but over the people of the whole country, whose interest palpably lies in having the New York Custom-house placed at the earliest moment on a business footing, from which idleness, fraud, and "politics" shall alike be banished. The Democrats, with the help of the few untrammelled Republicans, could confirm Mr. Roosevelt if they got a chance, and doubtless would do so, and they are endeavoring in another case to rebuke a faithless committee—that, namely, on Privileges and Elections—by taking the cases of Eustis of Louisiana and Butler of South Carolina out of its hands. The reason why they cannot count on Republican support in this endeavor is curious. Granting the *primâ-facie* right of these gentlemen to the seats they claim, and waiving the irregularity of doing so "uncourteous" a thing as to rob a peaceful committee of its charge, no good Republican would surely admit the rights of Messrs. Eustis and Butler, however plain, until the Kellogg-Spofford contest had been decided. For with this addition to their ranks the Democrats, if reinforced also by Judge Davis, would have a majority that would give the seat to Spofford, and so in a twinkling change the political complexion of the Senate. We do not say that it is a desirable thing to have the Senate Democratic like the House, but what honorable excuse can be given for refusing to put an end to intentional postponement of the two cases which present the fewest difficulties, in favor of one which is full of legal doubts and subtleties, and obscured by contradictory statements of fact, and which requires prolonged and tedious investigation?

The Senatorial Republican caucuses which have filled so large a space in the Washington despatches during the past week, and have led to two or three interviews with the President, intelligent and patriotic men hoped were held with the view of considering how best to protect the country against the anti-Resumption movement and the silver craze, which are now threatening the public credit and paralyzing business. Republican senators, they thought, at such a crisis would have no mind for anything else. It appears, however, that this was all a mistake, and that these conclaves, lasting for long hours behind locked doors, were all about offices. What is perplexing and saddening the Conscript Fathers is that the President does not seem disposed to make a fair division of the appointments with them, and has sunk so low as to appoint a few respectable Democrats at the South. Moreover, he has announced his intention to continue to nominate out of his own head, but to respect the Senate's right to reject—which is certainly an alarming state of things, and one that calls for the utmost vigilance and the laying aside of all other businesses and cares. Where, for instance, would the abolition of "the courtesy of the Senate" land us all by the end of one short year? What would a Senator be without his share of the "courtesy"? We are glad to see that Senator Edmunds is equal to the crisis, and that the illustrious Conkling is not sleeping at his post.

It will have been observed in the debates on the Army Bill in the House that it was not alleged by any of the opponents of the army that it was used anywhere during the late troubles for any purpose but the suppression of flagrant riots, or was used anywhere where any other effective force could be had, or that the rioters were not engaged in the destruction of life or property, or both. The position of most of those who objected to the use of the army as police was, apparently, that the strikers and the rioters and the workingmen

of the country were the same persons, and that when workingmen strike and riot it is wrong to interfere with them; or, in other words, that in America a man who wants more wages and cannot get it, is entitled to smash and destroy as many goods, chattels, and buildings as he pleases or can get at, and, if he thinks it necessary, suspend all business of every description, as one of his natural rights. Mr. Bland supplemented this by the announcement that the workingman, if he cannot get the kind of currency he likes, would be justified in repudiating the national debt, and would do it too. Putting all these things together, the picture of the workingman they present is an attractive one. He seems to be a pleasant and soft sort of person to have in a civilized country, and a country which was made up of him would have a remarkable career.

The jury in the Cardozo case brought in a verdict of guilty, and the trial of Robert Smalls was immediately begun. His counsel in vain attempted to procure a transfer of his case to the United States Circuit Court, under the Civil Rights' Act, on the ground that a colored man who had run off the steamer *Planter* and turned it over to the Union forces, and who had twice been elected to the State Senate and twice a member of Congress, could not obtain a fair trial before a State court, in a city and county "filled with the magnetic influence of Hampton's popularity"; and on the further ground of his Congressional privileges. The evidence in the case clearly showed that, while acting as chairman of the Committee on Printing of the State Senate, he accepted a bribe of $5,000 from Woodruff on behalf of the Republican Printing Company. The mixed jury promptly found him guilty.

It is to the credit of a Democratic House of Representatives that Smalls's seat in Congress has not been declared vacant without stopping to investigate the question whether the constitutional privileges of a Congressman have been violated. On motion of General Butler, the Judiciary Committee was empowered to send for persons and papers in the case. Some of the newspaper comments on Smalls's downfall have been very amusing. The Hartford *Courant* thinks it "not nearly so surprising as the downfall of James Brooks, Senator Patterson, and other Congressmen who had advantages of education and culture which Smalls never enjoyed." The Indianapolis *Journal* finds "a sad commentary on justice, in this anomalous era of reconciliation and good-will, that the conviction and sentence to the extreme limits of a slave-born man, who has enjoyed his freedom but ten or twelve years, who was called into public and political life without training or education, surrounded by the most corrupting influences, and made the tool and victim of superior men, is hailed as the greatest triumph of justice by the press of cities and States whose councils and legislatures have been the notorious hot-beds of corruption and bribery for years, briber and bribed walking their streets unharmed, elected to office repeatedly with the moral certainty of their venality as well known as their names and faces." On the other hand, the Hartford *Times* (Democratic) sees in it a just retribution on account of the *Planter* exploit, inasmuch as the running away with his master's vessel "was not in the line of lawful acts or moral conduct." The Government's paying him for it "encouraged Smalls to follow improper practices, and he finally goes to the State prison." But, according to the Beaufort paper, Smalls "obtained factitious greatness by climbing upon the shoulders of the real heroes who brought the *Planter* out of Charleston, and stealing the gratitude and money of the Government from those who did the brave work and possessed the courage, but lacked the low cunning and the brass through which he achieved popularity"; moreover, he has "been ready at all times to accept bribes; and the pitiful sum of $5,000 is but a drop in the bucket, which had to be filled every time he was asked to respond to the call of ayes and nays before his heavy tones could be heard." It must be confessed that his case presents unusual difficulties to the moralist.

The week has been very quiet in the financial markets. In New York the rate for money fell to 5 per cent., the reasons for the decline having been (1) the return of currency from the West in excess of the shipments to the South, which had the effect of strengthening the bank reserves, and (2) the restricted mercantile demand for money on account of the dulness of trade, the only branch of trade which is at all active being that in breadstuffs and provisions. In London the actual rate of money advanced 1 per cent., or to within ½ of the Bank of England rate. This advance, it is thought here, was caused by the Bank of England itself, which has an interest in keeping the outside rate up to its own, or near enough so. The rise of the London rate for money stiffened exchange on London, but not in time to prevent the shipment of $650,000 gold from London to New York. U. S. bonds are coming back in large amounts, and even on the day when the gold referred to was shipped there was a profit in importing them. Should the 412½-grain silver dollar be made a full legal tender, U. S. bonds will probably be sent back in sufficient volume to turn the exchanges in favor of London to the extent that gold would have to be shipped from here. At the close of the week the gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note for $1 was $0.9732. Silver in London fell to 54⅛d. per oz. early in the week, and then advanced to 54⅝d. At the close the gold value of a 412½-grain silver dollar would have been $0.9160.

The announcement of twenty-five or more of the Constitutionalist or Moderate Conservative senators, mainly Orleanists, that they would not support the Marshal in a prolongation of the fight with the Assembly—that is, would not agree to another dissolution—appears to have had the desired effect on him, and has led to the final resignation of the De Broglie Ministry. There can hardly be a doubt that it is very welcome to him, as furnishing him with the means of extricating himself from a bad scrape. He has neither the nerve nor the following nor, in all likelihood, the military support that would be needed for such extreme measures as levying taxes without a parliamentary vote, and is, perhaps, very glad of a good excuse for not continuing the mad game of the last six months. It is even doubtful whether he would have obtained the support of any but the Bonapartist senators in extreme measures, as a seat in the Senate is a snug berth, and most of the senators are elderly men, who would, when it came to the point, recoil from any convulsion that would be likely to put the Constitution, and therefore the Senate itself, in danger. A *coup d'état*, he vows, he has never thought of, which is also probably true. It seems pretty certain he could not command the services of all the army. None of the chiefs of corps are bound to him by strong personal ties, and some of them are Republican, and success in Paris would no longer suffice. The Assembly, if dispersed at Versailles, would probably retreat to the provinces, and be supported by a portion of the troops, and there would be real civil war, from which French soldiers all shrink. Moreover, success even in Paris would be doubtful. The troops there have never fought against the bourgeoisie and the workingmen united, as they would be on this occasion and as they were in 1830 and 1848.

An incident has occurred in Italy which has caused a good deal of sensation and shows that there is more or less of what our politicians call "weakening" among the extreme Ultramontanes. Father Cenci, a Jesuit of considerable distinction, over fifty years a member of the order in good standing and a preacher of some renown, in a preface to a volume of his sermons published in 1873 took up the idea first put forward in 1861 by Monsignor Liverani, that the Pope should in some manner reconcile himself with the kingdom of Italy. His remarks caused considerable disgust at the Vatican, which was made known to him. He then, by way of defending himself, wrote a memoir in June, 1875, addressed to the Pope, and setting forth his plan in full. No notice appears to have been taken of it at the time, but by some indiscretion part of it got into print, and this caused the Pope to direct the general of the order to expel Father Cenci, which was accordingly done. Then there was a chuckle among the Italian Liberals, and then the *Osservatore Romano* denied that he had been expelled, and then the father himself published a declaration acknowledging his expulsion but testifying to the rectitude of his intentions and his entire submission to

the authority of his ecclesiastical superiors, and solemnly requesting the newspapers to take no further notice of him.

The memoir to the Pope has now been published *in extenso*, and is a very curious and interesting document, but could hardly be surpassed in naiveté. The writer says that nobody who has spoken or written to him about the views enunciated in his preface, and which first gave offence, has attempted to deny their truthfulness; that the restoration of the temporal power as it stood before 1870 is an impossibility—the political and moral condition of Europe forbids it, and forbids it more and more; that the attempt to raise it to the dignity of a dogma is full of misfortune for the Church and for Italy; that the separation of earnest Catholics from the political life of Italy leaves a Christian nation at the mercy of atheists, and causes the Italian Liberals to regard the Church as a deadly enemy, whose destruction is necessary to their own safety, and forces the Italian Government into alliance with heretical Germany, and the heretical Slavs of Eastern Europe, to the great danger of the Latin race and faith. As no change is to be looked for from the policy of combat, he proposes that the Pope should accept Italy as it is and pronounce Victor Emanuel a legitimate king, in return for the acknowledgment of himself as a kind of suzerain of all Italy, and for proper provision for his residence in Rome. Victor Emanuel would then dissolve the Chambers, and choose a new "Christian ministry," which would fill the offices with persons favorable to the new policy, which a Christian press would explain to the country. All being ready, a general election would be ordered, and the Government would use all the means at its disposal, including the priests and bishops, to secure a "large Christian majority," which the father has no doubt it could do, and the church and state would live happily ever after. The paper is very powerful as an argument against the present policy of the Vatican, but the constructive part of it is causing a good deal of amusement among the mundane politicians. It shows, however, that the idea of surrender on some terms is growing among the more rational clergy. As regards the future of this idea, it is worthy of notice that the Roman correspondent of the London *Times*, in describing the cardinals who will probably weigh most in the election of the next Pope—eight in all—sets down all but one as either men of liberal, compromising tendencies or careless Gallios.

In England the season of dulness in domestic politics is not yet over, and the public attention is almost wholly concentrated on affairs in France and Turkey. Lord Beaconsfield has made a speech at a public dinner in which he referred humorously to the difficulty the Sultan and the Czar had in making peace, although they both desired it and both appeared to agree in their aims of every kind. He was a little defiant still towards Russia, announcing that English neutrality would cease as soon as English interests were in any degree menaced, which may mean something or nothing; but all accounts agree that there is little present danger of interference. It is to be observed, as to the possible effect of the fall of Kars, that the difficulty of helping the Turks increases with their need of help. In short, it begins to be more and more clear that the best service that could have been rendered Turkey was the application of a little coercion after the break-up of the Conference at Constantinople. Mr. Lowe and Mr. Gladstone have been having a debate in the magazines on the expediency of extending to the counties the household suffrage now existing in the towns, in which Mr. Lowe sees another step towards the ruin of English institutions. Mr. Gladstone in his reply acknowledges and deplores the increasing difficulty which young men of ability have in entering public life in England, the resulting loss of the valuable class of politicians who in bygone days were trained for politics in the House itself, and the seizure of the House by elderly rich men, who have entered politics too late for adequate training of any kind.

The storming of Kars, on Sunday morning, November 18, is a triumph of which the Russian army, officers and men, can justly be proud. Tactic precision and personal valor seem to have had equal shares in the achievement. The assault was begun about 8:30 o'clock on the evening of the 17th, the main strength being directed against the southern fortifications. Gen. Lazareff led the attack on Fort Hafiz Pasha, crowning a steep hill at the southeast angle; Gen. Grabbe, on his left, was assigned the task of capturing Fort Khanli, the southernmost point, and the works on its left and in its rear, covering the city proper and the citadel; and another division was directed against the northern positions. At the first onset, which was made against the Khanli redoubt, Gen. Grabbe fell, pierced by a bullet. The fighting was continued with fierceness all night. About dawn the southern fortifications and the citadel had been carried, and soon after Fort Karadagh, at the eastern extremity, was captured by Gen. Lazareff. Fort Arab, adjoining the preceding to the north, Fort Tchakhmakh, at the extreme west, and other posts, bravely held out till eight o'clock, when the garrisons sought safety in flight towards Erzerum, but were intercepted by the Russian cavalry. Gen. Loris-Melikoff, who directed the operations, entered the city before noon. The Russians, who went into the battle only 15,000 strong, lost about 2,500 in killed and wounded; the Turks about double. The captures, according to the correspondent of the London *Daily News*, from whom we have all the details, embraced three hundred cannon and ten thousand unwounded prisoners. These figures are obviously exaggerated. The same correspondent some weeks ago estimated the entire garrison of Kars at ten thousand; and the number of guns mounted on its walls, according to a very late estimate by Colonel Rüstow, was about 118. Speaking of Kars, in a review of the Armenian campaign for a recent number of the London *Times*, Captain Norman made the following remark, now strikingly justified by events: "It was dangerously denuded of troops during the occupation of the Aladja Dagh. If Mukhtar was enabled, subsequent to his defeat, . . . to leave a garrison of the same strength as he did in April last [not fully 15,000], there should be no fear for its safety. If, however, he was unable to do so, it is more than probable it will fall by a *coup de main*." Kars was easily taken by Paskevitch in July, 1828, and surrendered to Muravieff in November, 1855, after resisting a siege of more than five months. The treaties of peace both times restored it to the Turks.

Aware of the impending attack on Kars, the capture of which promised to strengthen them with troops no longer needed there, Gens. Heiman and Tergukassoff did not discontinue their operations against Erzerum after their repulse of November 9. According to telegrams from the Turkish side, they made another assault on the 14th, when they carried Fort Azizie at the point of the bayonet, but were expelled by the Turks, under the lead of Mehemet Pasha, a Prussian, "with great slaughter." Reinforcements for the Turks are said to be "continually arriving." The news of the week from the European theatre of the war is remarkable for the absence of all allusion to the armies of the Tzesarevitch, Suleiman Pasha, and Zimmermann, and for considerable obscurity concerning the operations west of the Yantra. In the immediate vicinity of Plevna, Gen. Skobeleff is still confronting the Turks at their southern advanced post, near Brestovetz, and a Russian bulletin mentions his having received wounds in "skirmishes" on the 15th and 16th, without stating any further particulars of the fights; while in Constantinople, in the absence of direct news from Osman Pasha, the report was current that another assault on Plevna had been repulsed. According to more positive Turkish reports, the Russians have also suffered severe checks in repeated attempts to advance on Orhanie by the Etropol road, and have been expelled from Berkovatz, whither they had gone from Vratza. The Russians, on the other hand, announce that "a detachment of Cossacks and infantry succeeded in driving the Turks out of Rosalita pass," west of Shipka, leading from Troyan to Kalofer, "by turning their fortified position," which may prove to be more important than the much-heralded movements of the Montenegrins in the neighborhood of Antivari. The most interesting communication concerning Servia is that Count Andrássy has significantly expressed it as his opinion that she will not go to war.

GENERAL GARFIELD'S SPEECH.

THE success of General Garfield's speech in the House on Friday—for it is said to have achieved that now rare distinction of being a speech that changes votes—is, from one point of view, very curious. The speech consists simply of a plain, unvarnished statement of facts, most effectively put together, it is true, but put together without any rhetorical device or embellishment. It is, as he himself remarked, simply a contribution to a controversy which has been going on among Anglo-Saxons for two hundred years, and some of his most telling passages were those which described the manner in which England, under circumstances like ours at present, disposed of it over half a century ago. But those passages contained nothing which is not within the reach of every man in the United States who has learned to read. The rest of his illustrations were drawn from the phenomena of our own daily life, the statistics of insurance companies, savings-banks, and banks of deposit, phenomena with which all the best portion of the community—the portion which saves something, be it little or much—is more or less familiar. Every man who buys even a hundred-dollar United States bond has some notion of the conditions on which the value of his bond depends. Every man who deposits money in a savings-bank makes himself in some degree acquainted with the means by which the bank is enabled to pay him interest on his deposit. Every one who insures his life knows what the company must do with his premiums in order to be able to pay the policy to his representatives at his death. Every reader of the newspapers, too, is acquainted with the fact, which General Garfield brought out once more so strikingly, that the United States bonds are heavily held by small investors and by the banks which receive the savings of the poor. This has been paraded again and again since the war in reply to the attacks of repudiationists and inflationists on the public credit, beginning with those of the late Senator Morton and General Butler in 1867, just two years after the war closed. In fact, in reading over his speech we have not been able to lay our finger on anything of which the average newspaper-reading American may not fairly be presumed to have knowledge. He was not familiar with them twelve years ago, because there had at that time been no currency debates for thirty years, and because he had then no experience of a delicate and easily-injured public credit. But we are now in the twelfth year of a controversy on currency in all its phases, and on the relations of government, and especially of our Government, to currency, which has hardly known any intermission, in which the whole newspaper press has been actively engaged, which has produced a large number of books for popular use, on which the Republican party, so late as 1875, fought two desperate campaigns in the great States of Ohio and Pennsylvania, and of which General Garfield's speech may fairly be called simply an able summing-up.

What, then, is the reason that the speech has proved so effective? It is not far to seek, and it reflects more credit on him than if he had been able to cram it full of startling discoveries. The knowledge of the bulk of the public on all subjects of which the connection with their daily avocations is not close, constant, and patent is apt to be what we may call dormant; that is, it is there, but in the vague and somewhat undigested shape in which knowledge is apt to be of which we do not make daily use and which does not help us in bread-winning. It takes the form of an impression rather than a clean-cut idea, and is not in a shape fitting it to be used in repelling an attack of any kind. For instance, there is many a man who has at one time followed the currency discussion in England in the beginning of the present century, and learned how and why the victory of resumption was carried. But he puts it all away in the lumber-room of his memory, and goes about his spinning and delving, and his recollection of it has become considerably blurred, when there appears on the scene a wild-eyed demagogue like Mr. Kelley, pretending to have all the facts and figures at his fingers' ends, full of quotations and fury, and tells him that English resumption was a hideous mistake and caused terrible suffering, that the celebrated A. thought so, and here is how the distinguished B. mourned over it—persons of whom the honest citizen has never heard, but who, he thinks, must have been men of weight, or Kelley would not cite them. So he concludes that his knowledge is probably defective, that he did not read far enough, and that probably there is something in Kelley, crazy as he looks, after all; and so he begins sliding down the incline towards some nebulous theory of delay or compromise like that invented in Cincinnati last summer by Mr. Richard Smith. The case we are here supposing, too, is that of a citizen of more than average reading and intelligence. What we have said of the way in which inflationist or anti-resumptionist theories are propagated in his case might be put in a far stronger form with regard to the large body of men whose reading never goes beyond the local newspaper, and who only master even that with a little intellectual effort.

But this popular ignorance or dimness of recollection or perception on special subjects could not be worked on successfully by the Kelleys if it were not for the cowardice or timidity of the other side. The history of the currency controversy since 1865 illustrates this most remarkably. Not one year since then has elapsed in which an attack on the public credit has not been made in the form of some craze about money, yet where the leading Republicans have promptly met it without flinching it has speedily come to naught. We have not space here to be more specific, but we may point to the fight in Ohio and Pennsylvania in 1875 on this very subject as a remarkable example of what we mean. The Republicans there met the inflationists and repudiationists boldly when the West was all alive with the greenback heresy which prominent Republican politicians had been supporting in Congress; and though the battle was a hard-fought one, it was won, and from that day the original greenback nonsense of unlimited paper for "the poor man" has not been heard of. It was, however, absurd to suppose that all its advocates would abandon it. They simply retired to an inner line of entrenchments, and determined to try for the next best thing—namely, non-resumption, or the indefinite postponement of resumption; and as soon as the fall of silver came to their notice they added to this resumption (if we ever resumed at all) in silver, which they began to talk of as beloved silver and the silver of their fathers.

Against this new danger the canvass of 1876 ought to have protected us. The powerful minds which were occupied during that eventful summer in cooking up "outrages," or in varnishing over the frauds of the Returning Boards and in analyzing Tilden's tax returns, ought to have been engaged in the refutation of the dangerous fallacies about money which were known to linger in one form or another in the West; for the money question and the question of reforming the civil service were clearly then, as now, the two leading questions of the day. Nevertheless, we can honestly say that, in spite of the prominent place they occupied in the Republican platform, we cannot now recall a single speech or article from a prominent Republican during the canvass devoted to the full discussion of them. On the contrary, the efforts of the Republican chiefs seemed to be mainly directed to turning public attention away from them to matters which were essentially ephemeral, as the result has shown, and which at best could promise nothing but purely party gains. Accordingly, Mr. Hayes was hardly seated in the Presidential chair when the financial problem came promptly again to the surface. Some of the foremost Republican papers at the West began impudently to denounce the Republican Resumption Act in almost the very words of Tilden and Hendricks, and the silver craze made its appearance and was allowed to grow without hindrance and be stimulated by every species of sophistry and misrepresentation.

It is, of course, true that both the anti-resumption movement and the silver movement have their main strength in the Democratic ranks, but it is also true that the Democrats could accomplish nothing without the powerful assistance which these movements have been for the last year receiving from the Republicans. How far this support has gone—how much open favor or secret connivance they have received from Republican sources—General Garfield's success is a good illustration. His facts and figures have been

within everybody's reach during the past year, and yet the country has been growing during the whole of that period more and more forgetful of them, and a larger and larger proportion of the Republican party going over to the comic Cincinnati plan of waiting for the "monetary system or machinery of the country to establish a drift" towards resumption. Accordingly, when a man is found who has the courage to rise in his place in Congress, and put together the reasons why resumption was ever thought of or resolved on anywhere, his speech falls on Congress and the country like a burst of unexpected light, and intelligent people begin to breathe freely and say he has killed the heresy. Could there be a more woful commentary on the manner in which Republican leaders have of late been discharging their duty as the guardians of the national credit? There is perhaps one other which surpasses it, and that is the fact that, at this moment of great anxiety and of some peril to the national fame and prosperity, there is great agitation among the Republican senators, and they are holding frequent secret meetings to devise means of relief from a much-pressing trouble, and that trouble is the unwillingness of the President to let them have a fair share in nominating their protégés to petty Government offices.

THE MONETARY EXPERIENCE OF FRANCE.

NOTHING in the history of the silver craze has been more remarkable than the course of the Cincinnati *Commercial*, which used to be a strong and able friend of sound and honest ways, and especially of honest money, and continued to be so up to 1875. The public in that year was prepared for some sort of moral decadence by the appearance of the editor, who, during the evil days of the Grant régime had been a stanch reformer, as an ally of the corrupt Republican politicians in their scheme of turning public attention away from the Cincinnati platform and the Hayes letter of acceptance, and converting the canvass into a blatant crusade against the South, coupled with an enquiry into the sources of Tilden's income. His entrance on the scene with an enormous lecture on "claims," which was delivered to large audiences under "Zach" Chandler's auspices and winks, was probably the most grotesque incident of a grotesque campaign. It is, therefore, not so surprising as it would have been two years ago to find his paper trying laboriously to put a good face on a piece of legislation which has of late years only been equalled in dishonesty by the Inflation Bill of 1874. Nor are we surprised, since the lecture on "claims," that it should publish in a recent issue the two following paragraphs:

"The *Nation* is a paper of great hardihood. It says of the Silver Bill which passed the House:

"'If it became a law it would give us a second depreciated legal tender, would substitute silver for gold in the payment of the customs duties, and would give all debtors a chance to cheat their creditors once more, except in the few cases where gold payment is in the contract. It would dispose completely of Secretary Sherman's promise that the new four per cent. bonds should be paid in gold, and would thus operate as a naked swindle, without the shadow of an excuse as regards the holders of these securities.'

"The Secretary of the Treasury did not say that the new four per cent. bonds would be payable in gold. He expressly did not say that. He said they would be paid in coin 'equal in value to gold.' The remonetized silver dollar would meet that requirement."

Now here are the Secretary's exact words, and a previous letter of the Assistant-Secretary was still more explicit:

"Under the laws now in force, there is no coin issued or issuable in which the principal of the four per cent. bonds is redeemable, or the interest payable, except the gold coin of the United States, of the standard value fixed by the laws in force on the 14th of July, 1870, when the bonds were authorized."

If by this he meant to convey the idea that they would be paid in silver, which *probably* would be as good as gold, he is fitter to preside over a faro-bank than over the treasury of a great nation. The *Commercial* says also:

"'The double-standard men, who pretend that you can so regulate the relation of gold and silver by law that one can always buy a thing either for a certain sum in gold, or for the sum in silver which the law declares equal in value to that sum in gold, have, without meaning it, considerably aided in this delusion. No such simple state of things has ever existed. The metals cannot be made to circulate in this way in any fixed relation. —*Nation.*'

"These are very positive statements. If true, they are important. We desire to ask the editor of the *Nation* how he reconciles them with the monetary system of France."

The monetary history of France is an excellent illustration of the correctness of our statement, and it is marvellous that the editor of the *Commercial* should not by this time have made himself familiar with it.

From the passage of the coinage laws of the years III. (1795) and XI. down to 1850, silver, as the cheaper metal, was the money in daily use in France, and payments were mostly made in five-franc pieces, while gold was virtually not in circulation, the quantity in existence in the country in 1850 not being estimated at more than 100,000,000 francs, or $20,000,000. We take the figures from Maurice Block. In 1848 came the gold discoveries in California and Australia. Gold began to fall in value. Accordingly, between 1850 and 1860, 1,300,000,000 francs in silver were *ex*ported and 3,000,000,000 francs in gold were *im*ported. Silver passed out of circulation except for small change, and gold came into use under the well-known law as the over-valued metal, and so continued down to the suspension of specie payment in 1870. The process, in fact, is exactly similar to the one which took place here. The "dollar of our fathers" was not in circulation when it was demonetized.

What has happened in every other country in which there has been a double legal tender is that only one has ever been used at a time, and prices are all fixed by that standard, and people buy and sell and contract with that standard in their minds. This is exactly what the French have done down to 1870. The reason that transactions were made in silver before 1850 was that it was more profitable to export gold than to circulate it—or, in other words, that the relation in value of the two metals fixed by the law of the land was a nullity, having been overridden by the laws of trade. For a precisely similar reason gold was substituted for silver after 1850, the law proclaiming that so much silver was as good as so much gold notwithstanding. As M. Chevalier says, in talking of money, "the word standard is one of those things of which it is important to fix the meaning. It is not uncommon to meet with persons who give the name of 'standard' to a metal as soon as the coins made of it cannot legally be refused in payment. This is an error. A metal on which the law has bestowed the quality of legal tender is legal money, but it is not *ipso facto* a standard." This is exactly the error under which the *Commercial* and its Western allies are laboring. The law can create a legal tender: nothing but the consensus of the trading and contracting community can create a standard; and a double standard composed of two substances of fluctuating value is an absurdity. The only way, if there be a way, to give any fixity to the legal relation of gold and silver coin is to cut off the possibility of exporting the undervalued metal to foreign parts, which is really what bi-metallists such as M. Cernuschi propose. "Get," say they, "all the civilized word to enter into a monetary convention to maintain a certain relation in quantity and value between the two metals in circulation, and then your bullion-dealers will have no market in which to sell the metal which has most commercial value, and your work is done; each country will keep both gold and silver in circulation." This plan may be worthy of discussion, and might succeed, but the chance of its being tried is so remote as to take it out of the category of practical schemes. Anyhow, it is not the plan of our Western bi-metallists. They propose, like a parcel of savage chiefs, to act independently of mankind, and to defy the experience of mankind as to the limits of legislative power. They do not even confine themselves to Professor Jevons's idea, that by making both metals a legal tender the fluctuations of each may be diminished, which has a rational sound, and may be true if neither metal fluctuates *much*, or, in other words, only oscillates slightly about the legal ratio. But it is hardly worth consideration with silver in its present state of violent agitation.

The present condition of the currency of the world undoubtedly presents many problems of great gravity, and will repay all the attention which the best minds of all civilized countries can bestow on it, and it may be that we are on the way to a better solution of these problems than is now visible. But in any attempt to deal with the very least of them one has to bear in mind the words of the eminent French financier, M. de Parieu: "We must remember that monetary legislation is not a thing to be lightly upset, but slowly reformed in accordance with the results of ripe and circumspect deliberation, in which due count is taken both of theories, facts, and habits." We hope there are some men at the West who are beginning to be ashamed of the way in which, largely under the impulse or dictation of that region, the United States is now contributing its share to the great work of regulating the world's standard of value. When our Silver Commission was appointed, the foremost man on it was a half-taught speculator, who had great quantities of silver to sell, and about as much delicacy or scruple in serving his own ends under the mask of currency reform as the average moralist of Poker Flat has in pocketing the proceeds of a game of bluff. When the subject is before the Senate this man objects to the Committee's hearing the opinions of those Americans who are most prominently occupied with the business of exchange, or, in other words, most familiar with the actual working of the laws of currency, and suggests, that if any one is to be listened to on the subject, it is those day-laborers ("horny-handed sons of toil") who have never given the subject any consideration at all, and are not qualified by education or experience to form any conclusion of the slightest value about it. Another member is Mr. Bland, the author of the Silver Bill now pending, apparently a half-crazy person, who shook his fist in the faces of the deputation of bankers and brokers, and threatened them with the repudiation of the national debt unless his own crackbrained notions were embodied in legislation. The report produced by these gentlemen was of course worthy of them, but very discreditable to us as a people, and well calculated to destroy all consideration for our opinions in any attempt made to bring about concert of action among civilized nations in the treatment of the currency problem. Nor has the course of the Western press done much to atone for the deficiencies of the Commission. The advocacy of the silver scheme close on the greenback scheme, and with substantially the same object, is not calculated to raise one's estimate of the morality of the constituency of such papers as the Chicago *Tribune* and Cincinnati *Commercial*. This would be true even if the remonetization were supported by purely financial arguments. But supported as it has been and is by unmeasured vituperation of all those who have placed faith in the promises of the United States Government, and taken for granted that the legislature represented the people, and by gross falsification of the facts of recent history, and by contempt for experience of the more advanced portion of the human species touching the most delicate of the instruments of civilization, it does much to justify the question which some people in this part of the world are asking themselves—viz.: Whether, after having had to contend for long years with the South on behalf of liberty and national unity, we are going to have to struggle with the West in defence of that common honesty, that faith of man in man, that correspondence between facts and words, promises and intentions, without which no liberty could last long, and national unity would be simply a fine name for the mutual fidelity of robbers?

CHURCH-GOING AND GOOD CONDUCT.

WE publish elsewhere a letter in which, so far as it is a reply to our recent article on "The Church as an Aid to Good Conduct," the writer labors under a misapprehension of our meaning; and as this misapprehension has appeared in several other strictures on our remarks, we may as well try to correct it. We do not maintain that belief in dogmatic and historical Christianity would make church members good men, or that it is the loss of this belief which makes them bad men. We simply maintain that without that belief the Church is not what it pretends to be. The Church was built up by and on the belief that Christ is the Son of God; that he came into the world to save sinners, not only by setting them a good example and preaching, but by dying for them as an expiatory sacrifice. This was the belief which founded the Church, and has kept it in existence down to our time, which supported its martyrs and inflamed its fanatics, and which made it the prodigious force it has been in the Western world for eighteen hundred years. Its claims on men's reverence and obedience have been derived almost wholly from this source. To say that mediæval Christians believed all these things, and yet fought, robbed, and gambled, is nothing to the purpose. That they were great sinners proves simply that their faith was not strong enough to change their lives. But then there is little question that without this faith, and without the Church, they would have been worse than they were. The belief kept the Church alive, and the Church did great things for civilization. The notion that it can retain its old influence on men as a church—that is, as an organization established by Christ as a means of bringing men to a saving knowledge of certain facts in his history—we think chimerical. After having dropped the history and the dogma the Church becomes something else, something totally different, something much less potent, something which would not have lived through the Middle Ages, or converted the barbarians, or founded the monasteries, or made robber barons tremble and make restitution on their deathbeds. What is unfortunate in its present position—and this is what we meant to say—is that it claims authority which its own members do not concede to it, and uses language which has lost or changed its meaning, and neither promises nor threatens with the force which was once at its command. True, these threats and promises did not convert mankind, but who ever supposed or pretended that they would? Is preaching morality going to convert mankind? Suppose all the pulpits in the country poured forth the soundest morality in a strain of the highest eloquence every Sunday, would fraud disappear totally? Of course it would not. The growth of mankind in morality is a slow process, which is promoted by one agency in one age and another in another, but by none without complete success. When, therefore, the Church is discussing the best means of keeping its members in the strait way, we think frank account ought to be taken of the fact that it does not hold them by the old bonds, that they belong to it for different reasons, and look at it with different eyes, and consequently need to be acted on by different influences.

One or two of our critics of the religious press seem to be under the impression that we would have the Church inflict some kind of corporal chastisement on its erring disciples. This too is a misapprehension. What we say is that, if the Church is ever again to impress the imagination of the world, and if church-membership is to be accepted by the world as a trustworthy indication of exceptional moral purity, the profession of religion must be accompanied by some generally accepted proof of sincerity, and this proof must consist in some form of serious self-denial. At present a church-member's life is very much like that of other men. His belonging to the church, far from being a sacrifice of any kind, may be and mostly is a positive addition to his personal pleasures. It brings him into good society, affords him a fashionable and agreeable mode of passing his Sunday, enlists him in charitable work that soothes his conscience or tickles his vanity without drawing very heavily on his purse or his time, and often helps him in his business or profession. Under these circumstances, the only knowledge we have of the state of his heart is his own story. The editors of the *Watchman* and of the *Christian Union* have, for instance, in denouncing the *Nation* during the last week or two, given directly or by implication a very pleasing account of their own spiritual condition. It may be all true, but then all the religious bond-peddlers, defaulters, forgers, and what not, would, if interrogated, have said substantially the same thing. They would have said that they felt just right internally, and that their questioner was a flippant sceptic. Now, it is not unnatural that the men of the world should ask some little corroboration of this pleasing description from outside sources Whether it is natural or not, however, they insist on it. They will not accept church-membership as a certificate of character unless it is accompanied by the open and continuous surrender of things which the modern man, both religious and irreligious, prizes. Take, for instance, the one little matter of church-going. As at present practised in large cities, it may mean the gratification of purely worldly ambition or of artistic taste, or, may be, an escape from *ennui*. But suppose it involved the maintenance of a church which, far from standing on a $100,000 lot in a fashionable street, stood on a $1,000 lot in a region of poverty and darkness; in which your contribution gave you no comfortable pew with resulting social *éclat*, or anything but a cane-bottomed chair wherever you could find room to place it; to which everybody was really

as welcome as yourself, and did not have to hang round the door until you got settled down on your cushion; in which you were glad to kneel, not beside your banking and dry-goods friends who gave you dinners during the week, but beside any poor man or woman who felt desolate and oppressed, and found relief in public worship from care and sorrow, and from the pressure of mundane distinctions—is there any doubt that your attendance would count for more than it does as an indication of your real motives and aims? Do you not think that there is something absolutely grotesque in your giving the account you do of the priceless value of "the preached Gospel," and then, when you have secured it in a peculiarly effective form, selling the privilege of hearing it at auction, or choosing the most costly spots in a great city to deliver it on, and presenting it to the poor man as the luxury of the successful? It would be easy to furnish other illustrations of the same kind, but they will suggest themselves to everybody without any mention of them. None of them would prove, however, that the Church does no good, or but little good, or does not contain multitudes of good men. But they do justify the widespread belief that the good men in the Church are persons whose character was formed and is strengthened by other influences than those which the Church supplies, and that bad men in it find it no check on their badness, and often find it a cloak for their badness, and that to weak men it often proves a veritable snare.

A PRUSSIAN "CRISIS."

GERMANY, October 24, 1877.

THE last number of the *Nation* received on this side of the ocean contains the gratifying news that the problem, where "the great statesman" of New York stands, has been solved at the Rochester Convention. No German patriot can read this news without some envy. For a considerable time we have been straining our eyes to the utmost in order to find out where our great and our middle-sized statesmen stand. The papers of all shades are agreed that we are in a crisis. Now, how a crisis will end, nobody can tell but a prophet. But in a constitutional state one ought to have some information about how a cabinet crisis has arisen and what it is about. We, however, grope in utter darkness as to both questions, though the air is thick with rumors. Nay, if we press the political augurs a little closer for a candid confession, we find the papers of all shades agreed that one cannot tell for sure whether there really is any crisis at all; and a common mortal, who derives all his political wisdom from the newspapers, would find it easier to write at this time a true history of the Russo-Turkish war than to find out what the farmer of Varzin is about. This much, however, is certain: if we are not now in a crisis, still we have been in danger of getting into one; or, if even that is an assertion which cannot be proved, we are at least justified in supposing that there has been and still is some danger.

At first the overthrow of Dr. Falk was apprehended. Some public remarks of the Emperor on his personal creed as to the relation of the state to the Protestant church in Prussia made us feel as if the shadow of Mr. von Mühler was once more flitting over the scene—of course, not the Mr. von Mühler to whose muse we owe the classical song, "Grad aus dem Wirthshaus komm ich heraus," but the later and worse "cabinet"-edition of this gentleman. The faces of the Liberals grew pretty long, while the Protestant Ultramontanes were in high glee, and their Catholic brethren pretended to rub their hands with satisfaction and exchanged significant looks. A short time afterwards one of these latter gentlemen had the goodness to declare that Rome could never be satisfied with the beggarly offering of a "revision" of the May laws; rescind, simply and totally, then we may be willing to accept your repentance! Perhaps Dr. Falk has been strengthened by such indiscreet utterances as these, though some more recent occurrences in Berlin seem to indicate that there is, "in a higher place," a still growing inclination towards a partial return to the old patriarchal system which we have but just shaken off. Some months ago a quarrel between the highest constituted ecclesiastical authorities, partly arising out of a conflict of opinion on the soundness and expediency of this principle, had to be composed by the personal interposition of the Emperor, but a real decision was shunned, or at least avoided. And now a clergyman has been reprimanded, and his election by one of the communities of the capital has not been sanctioned, because his sermon did not come up to the standard of orthodoxy deemed necessary for the salvation of Berlin sinners, though it is apparently sufficient for that of his present flock. Dr. Falk may, in time, find it pretty difficult to steer clear of all rocks, in spite of this current in the highest regions crossing the current of public opinion at a rather sharp angle. But there is certainly no danger of his being overthrown on account of his conflict with Rome as long as in France the Ultramontanes are allowed to continue in the rôle they are playing there now.

After the talk about Dr. Falk had barely subsided, Dr Achenbach, the Minister of Commerce, was brought on the stand. He was said to be endangered directly by Bismarck, the Prince accusing him of being generally not practical enough in his projects and undertakings. There is undoubtedly something in these assertions. As many as three years ago I was told by members of the Landtag, as well as of the Reichstag, that the Prime Minister was not quite satisfied with his colleague, and the rumors to this purport have, in fact, never completely died out. The character of this dissatisfaction seems to be somewhat general and vague. Though it has been several times asserted that the two statesmen were about to part company with regard to some main principle in the economical policy of Prussia and of Germany, the facts have thus far always failed to verify these rumors; and I even do not remember that an open disagreement as to any distinct measure of importance has ever been proved to exist between them. Bismarck is by nature very exacting, and his good fortune has surely not made him less so. Dr. Achenbach is made to feel that, because his successes do not come up to the expectations and demands of the Prince. How far the minister may, with justice, be held responsible for these shortcomings, I am unable to tell; but there are good friends of Bismarck who readily admit that his impatient and irritable temper, and the absolutistic cast of his mind, will not allow him to search very minutely and over-conscientiously for the reasons. With him the fact of failure—though it be but partial and comparative failure—will, in the end, always be the conclusive *argumentum ad hominem*. How near Dr. Achenbach has come to having this mode of reasoning applied to his case, he himself perhaps could not tell, but at all events the differences have been adjusted once more so far as to prevent the threatened rupture.

Mr. von Camphausen, who has so often had the pleasure of reading his obituary as a minister, has been this time suffered to pass unnoticed; Count Eulenburg has taken his place. The Liberals have frequently taunted him with sticking as fast to his office as the snail to its shell, and now they are more or less disagreeably surprised by his suddenly tendering his resignation. He alleges the state of his health as the reason; and although this is not regarded as a mere pretext, nobody finds it a satisfactory explanation. The Emperor, instead of accepting the resignation, has, "with the consent of Bismarck," granted the count a leave of absence for six months. What does this mean? is the general question. Count Eulenburg is personally very amiable and highly esteemed, and *persona gratissima* with the Emperor. Although originally even more conservative than Bismarck, he has often acted as mediator in the Cabinet, and the Prince would have preferred to see him more reserved in his concessions to the Liberals in the *Provincialordnung*, *Kreisordnung*, etc. These great reforms in administrative organizations are far from being completed, and for some time it has been rumored that the Government did not intend to pursue them any further at present. Is it this that is contemplated by letting the Minister of the Interior disappear for awhile from the scene? Bismarck and the Conservatives do not stand alone in the opinion that we have been somewhat too generous with reform laws; Mr. von Forkenbeck, the President of the Reichstag, declared the other day that we needed some breathing-time, and many other Liberals fully concur in this opinion. But though they are growing more and more willing to go ahead at a slow rate and with great caution, they still do not like the idea of folding their hands and seeing a half-finished work put to the test. And they ask whether the retirement of Count Eulenburg—be it temporary or permanent—does not amount to this? Dr. Friedenthal, who has been provisionally entrusted with the Department of the Interior, could not be blamed for not doing what Count Eulenburg would be expected to do, for the task is so great that the attempt would force him to neglect his own Department of Agriculture. On the other hand, if the intention of the Government is to bring this part of the reform legislation to a stand-still, how is it to be explained that, as a substitute for Count Eulenburg, a man has been selected who, as a member of the Landtag, played a prominent part in this legislation? Moreover, how shall we account for it that Mr. von Bennigsen, the President of the Landtag and one of the most prominent National Liberals, is spoken of as Count Eulenburg's successor? Bismarck is reported to be desirous of closing the liberal era, which has never been quite to his liking, and simultaneously to be, for the first time, about to give the Liberal party, which is his main support in the legislative bodies, a share in the government. Here is a bundle of riddles not easily to be solved.

To make confusion worse confounded, all this is said to be a con-

tinuation of the "Chancellor's crisis" of last April. At that time I was assured by a generally well-informed member of the Reichstag that Bismarck had been in a state of the highest excitement for fear lest his resignation should be accepted. Now, everybody has been and still is sure that he cannot even dream of leaving his post as long as the Eastern question and the troubles in France have not come to some settlement. But notwithstanding all that, we are told on all sides that he is still standing with the handle of the door in his hand, ready to go without a moment's warning, if he is not put in a position to bring about his "great reforms," though what they are going to be nobody ever knew or pretended to know. And, to crown this Babylonic hurly-burly, the Prime Minister and the Minister of the Interior, in whose persons the whole crisis centres, have withdrawn out of the reach even of an interpellation from the representatives of the people. If things are to go on in this fashion, and, unfortunately, the nerves of Dr. Falk and Mr. von Camphausen should also begin to give way, we may live to see the day when the whole Cabinet is away on leave of absence for half a year or more, the people, in the meantime, whiling away the dreary months by guessing what the great man in Varzin will finally conclude to do with himself, with the rest of the constitutional and responsible ministers, with the nation, and with the world at large. Our thinking men know well enough how foolish the attempt would be to measure Germany with the standard of English constitutionalism ; but this illustration of constitutional government is after all more than they are willing to swallow without at least making a face. The Landtag has just been assembled, and the Ultramontanes, with the hearty concurrence of the Liberals, have promptly announced that, with all the strength at their command, they are going to press the question, what all this means. The speech from the throne, however, does not render it likely that they will meet with much success. "It draws a veil over the situation," says the *National Zeitung*. It is already hinted that we may have to resign ourselves to wait for a full explanation until after the reassembling of the Reichstag. If this should prove to be true, it will not serve to strengthen the hands of the Government. Already the question is asked with deep dismay by many thousands : If the policy of Prussia is enveloped in such heavy and chilling fogs, what are we to expect with regard to the Empire ? It is not at all impossible that either the wind or the sun will soon succeed in dispelling the fog ; but for the moment the situation resembles a right disagreeable November day.

Correspondence.

SILVER AND PAPER.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : You speak of the Silver Bill as threatening us with three kinds of legal tender, as if paper would continue more valuable than silver. The case will be worse than that. As Government notes will be redeemable in silver, paper will at once drop to the silver valuation, and unless steps toward resumption are taken vigorously, paper will sink one or two per cent. below silver. Every debtor will shave his creditors the full present difference between paper and silver, and probably two per cent. more, as paper must go below that in which it is to be redeemed. Every depositor in a savings-bank will have the value of his deposit shrunk by the same percentage. It seems as if nothing short of insanity could account for such men as Cox and Monroe, of Ohio, lending themselves to such a scheme of spoliation. Is there no hope in the President ?

W. E. C. Wright.

Danvers, Mass., November 9, 1877.

A SEESAW OF FRAUD.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Why is it that in all your discussions of the silver question you constantly mention the fact that if silver be remonetized every debtor will be enabled to cheat his creditor out of seven cents on a dollar, and so pay back less than he borrowed, while you totally ignore what is equally true, that at present most debtors are paying back *more* than they borrowed ?

For instance, I borrowed $1,500 gold, when gold was at $1 25, and gave my note for $2,000 currency, I have paid 7 per cent. interest on this note, and am paying the principal as fast as I can, when gold is at 103. For every $125 borrowed I received $100 gold. For every $125 which I pay, my creditor receives over $120 gold. In other words, besides interest, my creditor is now taking from me about 20 per cent. more than I borrowed. He lent me $1,600 gold. I pay him back about $1,800 gold, besides interest.

And this goes on all over the country. If it is wrong for the debtor to pay less than he borrowed, why is it not wrong for the creditor to exact more than he lent ? And if there is a loss to be borne, the creditor is usually better able to bear it than the debtor, and especially as by the shrinkage of incomes the debtor has his obligations increased at the very time when his means are decreasing.

It seems to me that the natural restiveness of the debtor class, under manifestly unfair conditions, explains the whole behavior of the silvermen.

Yours very truly, Debtor.

November 11, 1877.

[Yes, but the opposite "went on all over the country" the whole time the premium on gold was rising—that is, from 1861 to 1864. During that period every debtor was paying his creditors less than he received. That was the deplorable consequence of the issue of large quantities of irredeemable paper, and one of the worst features of such issues is that it is a kind of wrong-doing from which the only escape lies through more wrong-doing. It is like having to amputate a man's leg because you have broken it. In other words, the only honorable and practical escape from a state of things in which debtors get the better of their creditors lies through a state of things in which creditors get the better of their debtors. It is a pity that there is not some other, but there is not. It is simply impossible to do justice in the matter. One of the strongest arguments against the interference with the standard of value is that you create a double disturbance of contracts, one when you are getting into the muddle, and the other when you are getting out. What "Debtor apparently desires is that we should go on keeping up a perpetual seesaw of cheating, first allowing debtors to trick their creditors and then creditors in their turn to trick their debtors, and so on *ad infinitum*, so that each generation as it comes on the stage may have its turn in some game of fraud. We propose, on the contrary, that we stop now and here; that all cheating now in progress shall be brought to a conclusion as soon as possible, and that all materials for fresh cheating shall be absolutely destroyed by the restoration of the one stable measure of value.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. SUMNER AND THE ALASKA PURCHASE.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The office of a critic is not a gracious one, I well know ; but it does not give the would-be reviser the right to distort facts in order to mould them to his prejudices. When I called attention to Sumner's speech on the purchase of Alaska, space in that magazine article would not permit of quotations to sustain my assertion. Now, Mr. Dall has not quoted Sumner's words at all—he has not even presented Mr. Sumner's opinion. On the contrary, he suppresses the words of the senator, and puts into his mouth a quotation which the senator was making from loose and irregular Russian records ; for, after reciting these stories, as paraphrased by Mr. Dall, the distinguished orator uses these words :

"Assuming what is improbable, that these skins were sold at twenty-five rubles each, some calculating genius has ciphered out the sum total of proceeds at more than eighty-five million rubles, or, calling the ruble seventy-five cents, a sum total of more than sixty-three million dollars. Clearly, the latter years can show no approximation to any such doubtful result.

"Descending from these lofty figures, which, if not exaggerations, are at least generalities, and relate partly to the earlier periods, before the time of the company, we shall have a better idea of the commerce if we look at authentic reports for special periods of time."

Thus Mr. Sumner, in especial and emphatic language *of his own*, disclaims his belief in the stories of the great wealth of the seal islands, and goes on at once to quote the report of Wrangell, and, again, that of Sir George Simpson, by which the fur-seal interests are placed way below those of the sea otter and land furs ! Then, immediately following, he quotes from Special Imperial Commissioner Golovin, and calls attention to the fact that this latter official, in making up his tables of fur returns from Alaska for a period of nearly twenty years, never alludes to seal skins !

My statement in *Harper's Magazine* is thus correct, for I say *verbatim* and by context that it is strange that these seal islands of Alaska, which

constitute the only real source of wealth and income to the Government, should never have been alluded to as such by the eloquent advocates of the measure; and, therefore, if Mr. Dall had carefully read Mr. Sumner's speech and then as carefully perused my sketch in question, he would be spared from this cast of a "specimen brick" taken from his own house.

Among others Mr. Dall has classed Professor Baird with the advocates of the purchase of Alaska. This is not true as far as any definite or positive statements made by this gentleman are concerned. Although he had, perhaps beyond a doubt, more acquired knowledge of Alaska in 1867 than any American living at that time, yet he knew nothing of the seal islands, and made no mention of them whatever to Mr. Sumner. Professor Baird is distinguished by his conservatism in making statements advocating a cause about which he has no definite knowledge; and in this connection he certainly had no knowledge of Alaska save that furnished him by the vague reports of sundry members of the Overland Telegraph Company, and the uncertain translations from the Russian and German books on the subject, which he with great energy and much labor gathered together and submitted to Mr. Seward and Senator Sumner for their use; and the senator used them just as a lawyer would in making up his case, and the opponents to the purchase could have used these same documents and papers just as effectively in their behalf.

The attempted criticism as to the importance of the fisheries is equally impotent, because the critic fails to tell the reader how much of this catch of codfish, which he quotes from a newspaper, came from the Okhotsk Sea; he knows well enough that nearly three-fourths of it was taken last year in Asiatic waters, and that it is, furthermore, of a much superior quality to our Alaskan cod.

Mr. Sumner was, in my opinion, one of those rare men who are great enough to acknowledge errors of their own, and be thankful to their friends when they are pointed out by them, while my critic plainly leans with the majority in an opposite direction.

HENRY W. ELLIOTT.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION, Nov. 16, 1877.

WHY RELIGION DOES NOT ACT MORE POWERFULLY AS A RULE OF CONDUCT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent article of the *Nation* on "The Church as an Aid to Good Conduct," in which reference is made to the number of culprits in the late cases of fraud and defalcation who were professing Christians, and the question asked why religion does not act more powerfully as a rule of conduct, is interesting as a recognition of some of the facts of the case and as the opening of a subject which very much needs discussion; but the answer it gives—that it is because people have lost faith in the fall, the atonement, the resurrection, the supernatural authority of Jesus Christ, and generally in the dogmatic part of Christianity, and because they do not believe with the assurance they once did in a future state of punishment where they will be damned for sin—is it not based on a very partial view of the facts? If this reason were the true one, then manifestly those parts of the church and those nations and ages of the world which have believed, and do believe, in these doctrines the most implicitly ought to be the ones which are the most upright and moral, while those which have relaxed from them the farthest ought to show the largest amount of unrighteousness and immorality. Such, however, is notoriously not the case. Who will speak of the Middle Ages, those times of the most rigid and unquestioned dogmatic theology, as being pre-eminently the times when the principles of the Gospel were made the rule of life? What are we to say of the fact that the Roman Catholic Church, the place where the fall, the atonement, the resurrection, the supernatural authority of Jesus Christ, and the damnation of the wicked are taught and believed more faithfully than anywhere else, is the one which furnishes our State prisons and our haunts of vice and ignorance with a large part of all their inmates? Is it among the brigands of Italy, and to those nations of Southern Europe that accept all these doctrines of the old conservative orthodoxy, and scores of others like them, without a question, that the world turns for its shining examples of honesty and morality? What is the bearing of the fact that those five cases of lapse into wrong which of late have startled the community were all members, not of heretical but of standard evangelical churches, having at least some faith in dogmatic Christianity? And, on the other hand, the Unitarians, the Universalists, the free religionists, and the professed infidels—are they indeed the ones, though doubtless making some offerings at the shrines of vice, that have nourished an undue proportion of cheats and villains?

Without trying to estimate all the causes why religion does not act more powerfully as a rule of conduct, is not a very conspicuous one the very stress which the church has laid on dogmatic Christianity, and especially the wide separation it has made between morality and piety, practical goodness and the salvation of the soul, religion as a rule of conduct and religion as a system of belief and trust?

There can be no question as to the reality of this separation. It is notorious that with the great majority of teachers, alike in the Protestant and Roman Catholic churches, the emphasis of preaching is laid now, and has been for ages, on the dogmatic and pietistic elements of religion rather than on the moral and practical—on faith and feeling and not on deeds and principles. What is the grand object of all those "plans of salvation" which constitute so large a part of the popular theology, what especially of this very doctrine of the atonement on which such enormous emphasis is laid, but to find out some other way in which a person can escape from the penalty of his sins than by that of his own life and conduct? Nine-tenths of the pulpits of Christendom have been occupied for ages, are occupied to-day, in showing that personal merit has nothing to do with salvation, but that it was all wrought out for the believer eighteen hundred years ago through the merits of Jesus Christ. Even with those preachers who recognize in some degree the importance of the moral element of Christianity, and make it a prominent part of their preaching—as, of course, thousands do—it is not as an equal factor of religion, good in its own nature, not as a quality which of itself and independent of faith in Christ will ever help in the salvation of the soul, but only as an offshoot of piety, and dependent for all its value on its being done out of love to God. To be a good citizen and an upright and honest man, never to have sold a vote, or watered the stock of a railroad, or cheated the fatherless and the widow through a savings-bank or an insurance company, and never to have put one's hand wrongfully into the United States Treasury, all these are represented as utterly worthless, from the religious point of view, as compared with one drop of the atoning blood of Jesus Christ. The highest virtues of the natural heart, honesty, fidelity, and personal goodness, all those of which we have to-day so much need in society, in trade, in government, in the church itself, have been stigmatized over and over again as only "the filthy rags of our own righteousness." Get a new heart, plant within you a new principle of life, fill your soul with love to Christ and faith in his blood—this the church has said is the true way of getting good morality, this the thing, and the only thing, which is needed to control and perfect the conduct. And while the traitor, the cheat, and the murderer, spending their whole lives in sin and then using some word of faith at the last gasp, have been represented as going directly to the peace and joy of Heaven, the man who for seventy years has been a good neighbor and upright citizen, but has had no such technical religious experience, is spoken of as eternally damned, or, at the best, as having in his death no hope!

How could it be otherwise than that such teaching should result sooner or later in breaking down the power of religion as a rule of life, and bringing into the church and into the world a great flood of immorality? If good morals and good works are of no more value in salvation than good muscles and good health, as the world has been repeatedly told; if the soul is to be saved wholly by the merits of Christ and not at all by its own, as the pulpit for ages has been proclaiming; if piety will produce everything, including honesty, and honesty nothing at all, not even itself, then it is almost inevitable that the moral element of religion should be neglected. Men will always raise that in spiritual, the same as in material things, which will gain them the most good in the markets to which it is to be sent, whether of heaven or earth, leaving that which is uncalled for, no matter how precious it may be in itself, unsought and undone.

It is this very thing which has happened in the church. It has planted to the spirit alone, planted only one kind of seed, and now it wonders that it does not get two kinds of fruit, morality and piety; wonders that its religion does not act more powerfully on the conduct and the life; has to turn aside, like the Episcopal Convention the other day in Boston, from its work of stopping sin in the world—what a satire on its methods!—and ask anxiously how it can stop it among its own members. It is a repetition of the very thing that was charged of old against the Pharisees—making the law of God of none effect by their traditions, rendering the everlasting principles of righteousness powerless by the deliverances of a dogmatic theology. There are some errors, the same as some truths, whose seed it takes the ages to ripen. And the slurs that holy men for centuries have been uttering against morality and our own personal righteousness—how can we help putting the two things to-

gether? are they not in the strictest manner cause and effect?—are now producing, not only in the world but in the church, their legitimate fruit of dishonesty, fraud, and corruption.

And the remedy, the means by which the church can make religion act more powerfully as a rule of conduct: it is simply to begin where it left off ages ago and bring up the moral element of religion side by side with the spiritual. Not one single word is to be said against piety itself. There is no possible danger of the world's having too much of it. The emphasis laid upon it never for one moment has been too great. The only trouble is its having been emphasized at the expense of morality and in men's trying to make it do the work of two separate things. It is contrary to the Bible, contrary to reason, contrary to the whole analogy of nature, to suppose that one can plant to the spiritual faculties and reap a moral fruit. God has given to every seed its own body; whatsoever a man soweth that also shall he reap. These are the two great untrespassable laws alike of the world and the soul. The church might as well expect grapes to grow off of thistles, or corn and wheat off of rose-bushes, as that honesty and uprightness will come of piety and love. Both are good in their places, both helpful to each other, when they once are started. But if the church wants both, then the only sensible way is to plant both kinds of seed—plant to the moral nature, honor and respect it, just the same as it has to that of the spirit. It is time we got rid of the old slur about "preaching mere morality"; time that we were done with sacrificing the grandest interests of society and humanity on the altar of an artificial dogma; time that we were done with hearing men like Froude testify that all their lives in a Christian land they have never heard one sermon on the simple duty of honesty. The inculcation of honesty, goodness, truth, sobriety, and personal righteousness—that is the only God-ordained way in which we can have honest, good, true, sober, and righteous men. And when the church does this with the same enthusiasm and earnestness that it has used so long in preaching piety, then, and not till then, will it make religion act powerfully as a rule of conduct. K.

Ithaca, N. Y., Nov. 30, 1877.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. announce a series of short books, under the general title of 'Men of Letters,' to be edited by Mr. John Morley, and to contain what is most worth knowing about the life, character, works, and literary rank of the greatest writers in English. Several of the biographies have already been assigned—to Prof. Goldwin Smith, Wordsworth; to Principal Shairp, Burns; to the Dean of St. Paul's, Spenser; to Mr. Mark Pattison, Milton; to Mr. J. A. Symonds, Shelley; to Mr. R. H. Hutton, Scott; to Mr. Leslie Stephen, Johnson; to Mr. J. C. Morison, Gibbon; and to Mr. Morley himself, Swift.——*Nature* for October 25 is a double number, embellished with the eleventh portrait in its series of "Scientific Worthies." Sir J. D. Hooker is this time celebrated on steel by the admirable engraver, Jeens, and in an appreciative biographical sketch by Dr. Asa Gray. The Director of the Kew Gardens himself furnishes some notes of the general result of his late botanizing tour with Dr. Gray and Dr. Hayden across the Continent.—— Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett, author of 'That Lass o' Lowrie's,' protests in a printed circular against the conduct of the Messrs. Peterson, of Philadelphia, in republishing her early magazine writings against her wish, and without warning the public, as they had promised they would do, that the writings were not new. The fact that a bonus was offered her does not alter the character of such proceedings, which ought to be resented by the public as keenly as by the author herself. Mrs. Burnett's regular publishers are Scribner, Armstrong & Co.——J. W. Bouton's list of illustrated art works for the season of 1877-78 embraces 'Examples of Contemporary Art,' being seventeen etchings from representative works of living English and foreign artists; 'William Blake,' etchings from his works, by W. Bell Scott; 'Xviiime Siècle—Lettres, Industrie, Sciences, et Arts: France (1790–1798)'; and the five concluding parts of 'William Unger's Works,' seventy etchings after the Old Masters.——Some time ago we suggested the advisability of a loan exhibition of fans and kindred objects, similar to that of which South Kensington had furnished the example. It is now announced that the New York Society of Decorative Art will hold such an exhibition next month at the Academy of Design. Fans, antique laces, tapestries, and embroideries have been solicited.

—Without departing from its customary lines, *Lippincott's Magazine* for December is more than commonly varied and readable. Mr. Alfred T. Bacon's papers describing a month spent in Sicily promise, from the first instalment, to be interesting and fresher than most tourists' tales about Italy. Palermo and Segesta form the subject of the present paper. Extracts from the letters of Lieut. Joseph Diss Debar, a French officer under Marshal Davoust, give a lively account of the fate of three brothers who had the misfortune to be among the invaders of northern Germany in the year '13. "Captured by Cossacks" is their history in brief. These gentry were found not so black as they were painted; it was not easy "to discover in their outward features the proverbial elements of popular terror." They allowed Debar to make more or less exaggerated sketches of them, with which he adorned his letters home, and which are reproduced in the magazine. He reserves his harsher epithets for the Germans, though he admits that it is not strange that the French "have made few friends in this country," and proves by his adventures from first to last, as a prisoner and as a fugitive, how much he owed to German humanity and loyalty. A lady, a cousin of the late J. P. Kennedy, and an intimate visitor at the home of Madison and at the White House under Jackson, gives some very entertaining reminiscences in "Days of my Youth," a youth spent chiefly in Virginia before the Rebellion. Besides her anecdotes of the two presidents, this writer has much to tell of her kinsman, the author of 'Swallow Barn' and 'Horse-Shoe Robinson,' and her partial account of him is quite in accord with Mr. Kennedy's public reputation during his lifetime and good memory since. Another Southern contributor, Mr. William Owens, treating of negro folk-lore, rehearses some old and some, to us, wholly new animal fables, and the old are varied sufficiently to make them worth repeating. Br. Wolf, Br. Rabbit and the Tar Baby, for instance; Br. Rabbit and Br. Frog (for Br. Coutah) running a race; Br. Wolf feigning dead; and Br. Rabbit riding Br. Wolf, all show slight differences from the form in which they were first published in the *Riverside Magazine*, and, we must add, a marked inferiority on the narrator's part. On the other hand, the stories of Br. Rabbit's escape from Br. Wolf's toils at the pear-tree and on the way home from the fair; the excellent fable of Br. Elephant and Br. Lion, and the less striking one of the rooster who had not learned to scratch, together with the insipid nursery tale of the Tiny Pig, have never, so far as we are aware, seen the light before.

—The December number of *Harper's Magazine* begins and closes with Milton, whose "Hymn on the Nativity" is printed partly in commemoration of Christmas, and partly for the sake of illustrations, apparently by Mr. Fredericks; and whose cosmogony in his "Paradise Lost" is briefly explained by Mr. E. S. Nadal. Among original contributions, however, the real *pièces de résistance* are Mr. Longfellow's long poem entitled "Kéramos" and the second instalment of Mrs. Fremont's "Year of American Travel." In the case of a younger poet, "Kéramos" might be-thought an ambitious effort. It begins with the song of a potter at his wheel, which recurs at intervals, always with the opening refrain, "Turn, turn, my wheel." The poet fancies himself flying on his "enchanter's magic cloak" over the lands famous in the history of the ceramic art, beginning with Delft, in Holland, and ending in Japan with

> "The villages of Imari,
> Whose thronged and flaming workshops lift
> Their twisted columns of smoke on high,
> Cloud-cloisters that in ruins lie,
> With sunshine streaming through each rift,
> And broken arches of blue sky."

As felicitous as any portion is the description of "blue china":

> "Nor less the coarser household wares—
> The willow pattern, that we knew
> In childhood, with its bridge of blue
> Leading to unknown thoroughfares;
> The solitary man who stares
> At the white river flowing through
> Its arches, the fantastic trees
> And wild perspective of the view."

Mrs. Fremont's pen is no longer vagrant. She describes forcibly the condition of herself and thousands of her fellow-travellers cooped up on the Isthmus in April, 1849, waiting day after day for the arrival of a steamer from San Francisco or one doubling the Cape, and tantalized by the knowledge that mails containing news from their friends at home and indispensable remittances had overtaken them, and were technically inviolable till they had reached their destination, San Francisco. In this emergency the Americans got together and, as Mrs. Fremont says, "made their laws as they went," appointing a committee of twelve distinguished personages to open and distribute the mails. Her portion was a letter from her husband, dated January-February, at Taos, New Mexico, relating his terrible experience among the Rocky Mountains, and informing her that he should now proceed to California by the Southern route.

Congestion of the brain did not prevent Mrs. Fremont from going forward by the first steamer, nor did the bursting of a blood-vessel prevent her reaching San Francisco. "John Phœnix" was of the company on shipboard; at Monterey she enjoyed the kindly friendship of General and Mrs. Canby, to whom she pays a fitting tribute; and in the course of the narrative we have glimpses of the future Admiral Porter and General Sherman. The Chinaman was already on the scene.

—The *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) never disappoints the applicant who approaches it for close art-study; there is always at least one article of a solid value that takes the periodical out of the category of merely decorative and popular picture magazines. Thus, Professor Colvin's patient study of the engravers who taught or followed Dürer, after exhausting the list of those who formed, is now expanding happily among those who continued, his style. The contribution for October is devoted to the Behams, the most jeweller-like and charming of the Little Masters; the admirable engravings of Barthel Beham, little cartouches filled with laborious beauty, are copied in photogravure by Durand with a perfection that quite saves the student the costly necessity of buying his original works; and eight reproductions in the course of this number give a satisfactory taste of the style of the brothers—for such they were, and not cousins, nor nephew and uncle, as the followers of the historian Sandrart have believed. The Behams were expelled for their Protestantism from Nuremberg in 1524, and Sebald afterwards got into trouble for loose living and the theft of Dürer's material. A better résumé of the career and works of a pair of Northern mediævalists, obstinately continuing their course in the broad daylight of the Renaissance, need not be desired than Prof. Colvin's. The perfect illustration of this paper must condone a little laxity in other instances. The photographic copy of a small picture of G. H. Boughton's (now at Knoedler's Gallery—the "Divided Attention") is somewhat muddy and poor, and M. Mongin is decidedly inept in trying to etch "The Age of Innocence" of Reynolds.

—In the October number of the *Nineteenth Century*, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe has a paper entitled "International Relations," which contains many valuable political suggestions, but also the following remarkable philological passage. We quote from page 477:

"There is a tone of grandeur in its sound which makes the term 'ambassador' a natural object of curiosity as to its origin and derivation. If the Spaniards had claimed it as of their invention, the likelihood would have been greatly on their side. Grandiloquence is one of their national attributes, and their substitution of an *x*, pronounced gutturally, for the double *s* in the French and English forms of the word, augments its effect on the ear. But this conjecture is not borne out by the opinion of enquirers. The languages of Greece and Rome have been rummaged in vain for some root from which the title may have sprung. The lexicographers have been reduced to the necessity of making guesses which do more honor to their ingenuity than to their judgment. But to pursue the enquiry further would be a mere waste of time. It is enough to know that we have the word, and are not ignorant of its meaning."

We were not aware that any of the great lexicographers, including Webster, Worcester, Grimm, Diez, Vigfusson, Littré, etc., entertained any serious doubts about the true etymology of the word "ambassador." How thoroughly the languages of Greece and Rome have been "rummaged for some root from which the title may have sprung" we do not know, but it certainly has been done "in vain," for the word is not of Greek or Latin but of Teutonic origin. In the Gothic of Ulfilas we find *ambaths* for the Greek διάκονος, servant. In Anglo-Saxon we have *ambeht, ambiht, ambýht, embeht*, meaning servant, messenger, legate. In the 'Heliand' we find *ambaht*, and in old High German *ampaht*, and, finally, in Old Norse we have *ambátt*, the latter meaning bond-woman, bond-maid. From these old forms of the word we derive the modern German *Amt* (office), Danish *Embede* (office), and modern Icelandic *embætti* (office), and from them we also get the modern Roman form "embassy," "ambassador," Italian *ambasciadore*, etc. From Gothic *ambaths* to Roman *ambassador* (ambathsador) is certainly an easy transition. It is true "ambassador" recalls the word *ambactus*, which is found in Cæsar's 'Gallic War,' where we read: "Circum se ambactos clientesque habent," and this word is also found in the poet Ennius; but the Roman grammarian Festus, who lived in the fourth century after Christ distinctly tells us that *ambactus* is a word of Gallic, that is to say, Transalpine origin ("Ambactus apud Ennium lingua Gallica servus appellatur"). This statement of Festus has led linguists to search the Celtic languages for the origin of *ambactus*. Zeuss suggests the Kymric *amaeth* (for *ambaeth*, the *b* having been dropped), meaning laborer. The near relation between *ambactus* and "ambassador" is obvious; and if Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe had stated that both Celts and Teutons have a word closely related in form and meaning, and that there may be some doubt whether Cæsar and Ennius got their *ambactus* and modern Roman its ambassador from the Celtic or Teutonic form of the same root, but that nearly all lexicographers are in favor of the Teutonic origin, he would not have been wide of the mark.

—The local support of the *Harvard Lampoon* having proved inadequate, those who were loath to see this clever enterprise go down resolved to try what could be done by enlarging its scope, and, in a word, to appeal to the same class to which the *Lantern, Vanity Fair, Mrs. Grundy*, and the rest appealed—and failed. Four numbers have already appeared during the present term. They exhibit no abrupt change from the *Lampoon* of yore, and may still be enjoyed by college-men everywhere, though there is certainly no endeavor to conciliate Yale. The last number is perhaps the best sample of what the *Lampoon* aims to be, unless it has political caricatures in reserve. The large drawing, "De gustibus non," not only shows *chic* in the designer, but a near approach to mastery of the style best suited to the process employed by the *Lampoon*. The artist to whom we owe the cartoons of the "Manners and Customs of ye Bostonians," continues to show himself a worthy disciple of Richard Doyle, and he has the merit, rare in social caricaturists, of catching the national type and not putting us off with the ideals either of a Leech or a Du Maurier. His scene on the arrival of a train, mountebanks on the Tremont Street mall of Boston Common, and Boston baby-show, unite humor and insight into character with a realistic fidelity. More than one of the initial pieces will bear comparison with those which distinguish the best English comic journals. But the *Lampoon* was always strong on the side of its art. Time only can show whether the letterpress will attract support for its own sake. Here again the last number surpasses the first three, but the proportion of comic verse to comic and satirical prose is striking, and indicates that the old difficulty in obtaining contributors has not been wholly overcome. The poetry, however, is bright and ingenious.

—We are sorry to have detected the *Evening Post* in another act of "journalism" very like in its main features one of that paper's previous attempts at deception in the case of Rochefort. During the Presidential canvass of last year it published, for electioneering purposes, a story which we believe it got from a letter written by a clerk in London to somebody in Washington, that if Tilden were elected no more of the new four per cent. bonds could be sold abroad. This was ridiculous on its face and Mexican besides, and was promptly exposed, for on the first false news of Tilden's election reaching London there was a slight advance in American securities. The *Post* was ashamed of the affair at the time, owing to the rapidity with which it was found out. On Tuesday last, however, evidently supposing that people had forgotten its offence, it came forward and, with true "journalistic" brass, "recalled its prediction" and declared that what it said was "that the success of the Democratic party would have" (at some time not named) "an injurious effect on the public credit," and it adds that the passage of the Silver Bill is the fulfilment of its prophecy. The likeness of this to the Rochefort case is very amusing, and seems to indicate some permanent lesion in the moral faculty. We now warn the foolish and wicked little prophet that though other people may forget his "journalisms" we do not, and that whenever we catch him "pointing with pride" we shall firmly "fix the brand of fraud" on him.

BRYCE'S 'TRANSCAUCASIA AND ARARAT.'*

IT has been said of Voltaire that he cast a keen glance over the surface of all things. This is not the highest praise which can be given to a philosopher, but it contains nearly the best description of the qualities which distinguish a model traveller. That acuteness of observation is a primary requisite for the composition of a good work of travels is obvious, and that Mr. Bryce possesses this characteristic in a high degree will be apparent to any one who reads even a few pages of his Transcaucasia, and especially the admirable geographical descriptions which form one of the most striking features of the book. What is, however, more likely to escape recognition, and therefore better worth pointing out, is the care with which Mr. Bryce devotes himself to noting and bringing out facts which lie upon the surface—matters, that is to say, which he has observed with his own eyes, and which are worth observation. It sounds a paradox to assert that the merit of a book lies in its superficiality; but if the

* 'Transcaucasia and Ararat. Being notes of a vacation tour in the autumn of 1876. By James Bryce, author of 'The Holy Roman Empire.'' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.

term "superficial" be used in its strict sense, there is nothing more certain than that an account of travel composed by a person who sees a country for the first time, is valuable exactly in proportion as it is superficial and does not attempt to be profound. For the merit of such a traveller is to note what he sees and what is obvious in the countries which he visits, and to call attention to exactly those facts which the inhabitants never notice just because they see them every day. If the jocose traveller who does the result of his journey into puns is the most wearisome of his species, by far the most useless and even noxious is the solemn charlatan who, seeing a country for the first time, unfolds mysteries unknown to persons who have inhabited it for years. Such a man, if he visits the United States, brings back from it tales of strange sects and astounding religions, and even if the particular facts which he narrates be true (which may well be doubted) conveys an impression of the country which is just as false as if one were to describe England from a careful study of Bedlam and Hanwell. If such a gentleman travels in France we may be sure that he will see nothing but communistic or priestly conspirators, and not only bring back no information as to the appearance of the country or condition of the people, but absolutely circulate a mass of what is in effect carefully collected misinformation.

Russia, unless we are mistaken, has at least once fallen a prey to a traveller of this stamp, and it is an infinite relief to find Mr. Bryce's book filled, not with dark hints and mysteries social and political, but with lucid descriptions of the country he saw and the things he observed. Truth, no doubt, sometimes lies at the bottom of a well, but such truth will never be fished out by a stranger hurrying through a strange country. On the other hand, a number of truths lie on the surface ready to be seized by any one who has the clearness of eye to perceive them and the freshness of mind to appreciate their value. For things which are superficial are not, therefore, trivial. The very contrary is the case. The most important work of travels which has ever been produced is the history of Herodotus, and what is important in his book is not the information collected with trouble from Egyptian priests and others, who probably often lied and whom he certainly often misunderstood, but the infinite amount of personal observation on the habits of nations, peoples, and tribes which his insatiate curiosity led him to collect. No book, again, has in modern times so profoundly influenced history as the travels of Arthur Young. It would be absurd, indeed, to describe works obviously the result of much thought and observation as superficial; it is nevertheless true that his travels derive their special value from observations as to obvious matters which met his eyes. The tables in which he calculates the respective produce of England and France have not attracted and do not deserve to attract half as much attention as his notice of the fact that the nobles, on the very eve of the Revolution, galloped about Paris without caring whether they rode down the foot-passengers or not; that, while the road between Versailles and Paris was crammed with coaches and riders, you might travel for miles over the country without meeting so much as a gentleman's carriage; or that a French nobleman would never dream of inviting to his table tenants who, in England, might be asked to the house of a duke. These and observations of a like sort might have been made by any traveller with sufficient shrewdness to see that they were worth recording. Yet of all the travellers who visited France towards the end of the last century Young is nearly the only traveller who put them on record. Superficial as they may be termed, they are the salt which has kept his book alive. To expect the same degree of merit from a person in Mr. Bryce's position would, of course, be ridiculous. His travels in Russia and the East were, as he is careful to point out, necessarily short. He suffered under the great disadvantage of not understanding the languages of the people among whom he journeyed. He certainly, however, belongs to the class of which Arthur Young may be taken as the great modern type. He possesses the genuine genius for noting down what is worth noting, and recognizing the leading and remarkable features of the country through which he passes. Nothing gives a better example of his merits as a traveller, and at the same time of the great importance of what may be termed obvious observations, than Mr. Bryce's comparison between Russia and the United States. Both, as he points out, are big countries, both are new countries, both are countries whose interest lies in the future rather than in the past. No nations are so fond of speculating, writing, and talking about themselves:

"Being new, and feeling themselves new, both are extremely sensitive to the opinion of older countries, and anxious sometimes to compel, more often to conciliate, the admiration of their neighbors. In Russia, as in America, the first question put to the stranger is, 'What do you think of our country?' and an appreciative answer is received with a thrill of pleasure which a German or an English breast would never experience on the like occasion. With all their patriotic self-confidence, they have a consciousness of having but just entered the circle of civilization, and are pleased to be reassured. They are, therefore, like the Americans, eager to learn what foreigners think of them; they do everything they can to set off the good points of the country, both physical and social; and they are apt to be unduly annoyed at hostile criticism."

This ingenious comparison, which spreads over several pages, deserves to be read from beginning to end. Mr. Bryce is himself not "insensible to the many striking contrasts between the two nations, the most striking of which is that in Russia there is, speaking broadly, no middle class, but only an upper and a lower, and that lower almost entirely uneducated and politically powerless. In America there is nothing but middle class—a middle class which is well taught, intelligent, political to the marrow of its bones." We ourselves are inclined, even on Mr. Bryce's own showing, to hold that the points of contrast are of more permanent importance than the points of resemblance. The saying about scratching Russians and finding Tartars is something more than merely "smart," for it expresses in a terse form the fact which every writer on Russia, from Mr. Mackenzie Wallace downwards, brings out, that the Russians, with all their external polish, are in some respects still in a condition of comparative barbarism; but even though we may not agree with all Mr. Bryce's conclusions, this disagreement does not detract from the merit of the comparison between Russia and America. The facts which Mr. Bryce notes are, after all, facts, though other points of view may also be of equal importance, and it is an immense service to readers who have never seen Russia to have it forced on their attention that if Russia exhibits sides of resemblance to the East, it also exhibits points of resemblance to the United States. Half the erroneous judgments which one nation forms in reference to another arise either from ignorance of the most patent facts, or from the habit of attributing to countries, as they at present exist, characteristics which once perhaps really distinguished them, but which now, at any rate, are merely matters of history or tradition. We may suspect that more than half our young ladies who visit Scotland experience a slight feeling of disappointment when they find that claymores are as little used in Edinburgh as in New York. We are certain that a host of respectable Englishmen derive such ideas of American society as they may possess from a set of incongruous notions impressed upon their imagination by Fenimore Cooper and Charles Dickens; and if they do not fall into the delusion of thinking that Indians and wigwams may be seen not ten miles from New York, are certain that revolvers and bowie-knives are pretty freely used along Broadway. No example of the errors arising from practical ignorance of patent facts is more remarkable than the miscalculation formed by Englishmen of all parties as to the probable result of the war of secession. What is worth notice is that of Englishmen who had not seen the United States, not one in a thousand expected the North to succeed; of Englishmen who had travelled through the Union, at least nine out of ten were well assured that the South would fail. This difference of judgment was the simple result of ignorance or knowledge about the elementary facts of the case.

To save foreigners from such elementary ignorance of Russia is the service rendered by the keen-sighted observation of Mr. Bryce. Every page of his book affords illustrations of the important inferences which may be suggested by small and obvious facts. Thus, the description of Tiflis, a city consisting of three towns, inhabited by three distinct nations, who dwell side by side, but never mingle, suggests forcibly one of the strangest peculiarities of the Russian empire. The different races which dwell under the rule of the Czar seem, from some cause which it is not very easy to assign, incapable of amalgamation. The Germans who crowd some of our cities form in one sense German communities; but the son of German emigrants is, for all purposes, an American citizen. The Germans who have been settled for more than half a century at Tiflis are Germans still, and, if they have kept their own civilization, have not imparted it to their Russian or Eastern neighbors. Let any reader, again, who wants to realize some of the most marked distinctions between Eastern and Western life read Mr. Bryce's admirable description of the voyage from Poti to Constantinople on board a steamer where, "reckoning in all the tongues, there were at least eight constantly and regularly spoken on board." We shall scarcely fail to see how this mixture of races and tongues fundamentally distinguishes the East from Western countries, in each of which we are accustomed to expect some one language or race to be predominant. The picture, again, of the impression of melancholy which the coast of Asia Minor makes upon the

traveller, of lands which are blessed with every gift of nature, but where, to use Mr. Bryce's words, "all is silence, poverty, despair," brushes away at once all the artificial apologies for Turkey by which writers who have perhaps never seen a Turk, and have certainly never suffered from his misrule, try to prove that a race which is still brave in battle cannot be incompetent to perform the most ordinary duties of government.

Mr. Bryce, it must be admitted, does not appear to possess quite that absolute impartiality which he assumes to himself in his preface. For this we do not blame him. Absolute impartiality is constantly only a name for indifference to the results of a momentous struggle. We can hardly conceive that any humane man can see Turkey as it is without wishing that the Turks could be removed, bag and baggage, from the land which they have destroyed; and a traveller impressed with the atrocious evils of Turkish misrule may be pardoned if he shows a tendency to overrate the benefits of Russian government. It is, at any rate, one of the great merits of a book of observation such as that which Mr. Bryce has composed, that his own statements often suggest corrections to what are, after all, only speculative inferences. He argues, for example, with great force, that conquest is obviously against Russia's interest, and appears to infer, or at least to suggest, the conclusion that therefore the fear of a Russian conquest is chimerical. Now, a little consideration will show that any argument of this kind is fallacious. It is not always that nations pursue even their apparent interest; it is constantly the case that they do not pursue their real interest. It may well be maintained that the conquest of India scarcely promoted the permanent interests of England; but any Indian prince who thought that this fact secured his throne against attack would have found himself the victim of an absurd error. Austria gained little but trouble from retaining possession of Venice, but the Austrians would have been still at Venice if they had not been forced out of it by the arms of Prussia. France certainly gained nothing from the occupation of Rome, but the French army did not withdraw till the Germans were approaching Paris. Russia herself pursues (in this as in other respects resembling the United States) a protective policy which all enlightened economists know to be opposed to her best interests. Why, therefore, should not Russia, like other nations, make conquests which may injure others without benefiting herself? On Mr. Bryce's own showing, nothing appears more probable. "The Russians, with all their versatility and quickness, are not yet, and will not for many years to come be thoroughly civilized"; and uncivilized states have always confounded success in war and extension of territory with real increase of greatness and power. But, urges Mr. Bryce, "either Russia will abstain" from conquest, "or, if she does not, she will suffer for it, and be all the more likely to break up, all the less formidable in future to her neighbors." In other words, don't hinder a burglar from breaking into your house; when he sees your money, either his good feeling will prevent him from taking it, or if he does take it, riotous living and drunkenness will the sooner bring him to his grave and render him less formidable in future to his neighbors. For our part, we prefer the timely use of the police.

Disagreement with some of the arguments used by Mr. Bryce does not imply dissent from much of the doctrine which his arguments are meant to support. Still less will it blind any candid critic to the great skill with which Mr. Bryce has used a short journey, out of which most persons would get nothing better than temporary amusement, for making a vivid and instructive sketch of the countries and races which he has seen. For mountain-climbers his spirited account of his very spirited ascent of Mount Ararat will form the main charm of his book. Those who prefer valuable information to the knowledge that the Alpine Club may now add to its boasts the glory of possessing a member who has ascertained that when you stand where the ark rested you find there is very little to see there, will heartily rejoice that the very daring ascent of a mountain which the natives hardly dared even to approach did not end in a calamity which would, among greater evils, have deprived the world of one of the best books of travel that has been produced in recent times, by a traveller who knew both how to observe and how to record his observations.

The Odes of Horace in English Verse. By Caskie Harrison, Professor of Ancient Languages in the University of the South. [Book I.] (Boston: Ginn & Heath. 1877.)—There is more reason than a plain Englishman would suppose for the multiplication of bad translations of the classic poets by men of learning. To one who sincerely enjoys a Greek or Latin author of genius in his native tongue no translation seems adequate—indeed, all translations are a superfluity, if not a weariness. Successful versions from one modern language into another are rare; but it is practically impossible to reproduce the literary form of the masterpieces of the ancient languages. We may get a conserve of the grapes; but the shape, the odor, the bloom have vanished, and the finer the original quality the greater is our disappointment.

The poets easily feel this, and are loath to undertake the drudgeries and uncertainties of translation. Now and then one of them will condescend to harness his Pegasus to this dull work, and the plain Englishman has cause to be grateful. But men of learning are not necessarily men of taste. They are not necessarily the best judges of the limits and possibilities of poetic translation. They see the failures of the poets; they see that Chapman and Pope and Cowper and Bryant have missed Homer, more or less; they can definitely point out this or that series of shortcomings and mistakes; and they too often conclude, "I can do better myself." The result is a long list of respectable failures, or of ludicrous failures. The result is that a really able scholar like Professor Newman thinks he has done a service to his countrymen when he has rendered the 'Iliad' into the metre of "Yankee Doodle," and that his diction is pleasingly and truthfully archaic when he calls a direful thing "gramsome" and a young man a "callant." In England, we are sure, the 'Gradus ad Parnassum' is at the bottom of some of these surprising performances. It is natural that a man who has all his life written Greek and Latin verses, with a feeling that the ancient Greeks and Romans have really lost something by not being his contemporaries, should imagine that he can "do" English verse as well as elegiacs and iambics. In America we cannot generally plead the bent of early training in this direction, so that the little volume before us is not easily accounted for. If the author of these versions had tried the experiment of reading them to some sensible person who was well acquainted with the English language, he would have made a remarkable discovery: he would have found that much of them is neither sense nor good English. It appears by the preface, indeed, that he has consulted friends; but his friends have not criticised him wisely.

In his preface Professor Harrison remarks: "In the choice of measures I have allowed the odes themselves to decide their English form, as being most likely to maintain for the eye and for the ear some resemblance to the Latin; and I have perhaps erred in my efforts by compression and inversion to imitate, at long intervals, the inimitable charm of the Horatian stanza." Perhaps the latter sentence describes the chief snare into which Professor Harrison has fallen. He has forgotten that it is impossible for him to supply in English the system of inflections which renders the original, notwithstanding its inversions, perfectly transparent. The consequence is that in Ode X., for example, we find this labyrinth, which no one can thread without the commentary of the Latin:

> "Yea, Ilion left behind, did Priam rich,
> Thou leading, Atrids in their haughty pitch,
> And fires of Thessaly and camp deceive
> That made the Trojans grieve."

Stanzas equally bewildering might be quoted by the dozen, and even whole odes are pervaded by a similar obscurity. Apart from this, however, the English is often faulty, with such makeshifts as "did seal," "did roll," "not flavors"; and such improprieties as "Massic's cups" for cups of Massic. The definite article is omitted ten times in the first ode where idiom or sense requires its insertion. The height of this absurdity is reached in the second ode, where the Tiber is said to undermine the monuments "Of King (!), and Vesta's shrine." Many lapses in taste and accuracy proceed from a want of skill in versifying. The moon is made weakly "bland," without warrant of the original, for the sake of a coming "band." The mariner who has escaped the fickle sea of Pyrrha's love pointlessly hangs up a "dripping *shroud*," constrained by some necessity of rhyme. Meriones is black with "*dirt* of Troy" (*pulvere Troico*), on account of a misleading "shirt" in the preceding verse; and, strangest of all, we read of the "timbrel's *blast*," in the eighteenth ode, evidently because something else "doth follow fast."

Mistakes of interpretation occur. "Hell's *cramped* hall" is probably the one shade of meaning which "exilis" in this passage will not bear. "Enjoys thy *golden hue*" clearly misses the sense of "fruitur credulus aurea." The "campus apricus" is not the "*garish* field"; and "Tearful *funerals* of Troy" by no means raise the same image in the mind as the "funera" of the original. In the concluding stanza of the thirty-first ode, the prayer of Horace that he may enjoy what he has with a sound mind and body, etc., is completely obscured. The exigencies of the rhyme, perhaps, transform "integra cum mente" into "with *soul* intact," and weaken "turpem" into "dire." Proper names are clipped licentiously. Such forms as "Favon," "Merion," "Tarent," "Atrids," and "Mitylene" (in three syllables) might be pardoned to Chapman, but

are not tolerable now. "Arbūtus" is a quantity which should be left to the ladies; "Herculēan" has no excuse; a more extraordinary mistake is "Eryx" for Erycina.

The ode to Leuconoë would bear quotation entire, but in default of space the following is a fair specimen of our author's best performance:

> "O ship, who Virgil to thy lease
> Entrusted, owest back,—to shore of Greece
> I pray thee to restore him whole,
> And careful guard the half of my own soul!"

A large number of stanzas like this, however, could hardly justify the publication of a new translation. In his preface Professor Harrison declares: "I freely confess my gratification at the points of contact between my version and Conington's." The points of contact are not very numerous. Professor Conington was an admirable scholar, a skilful versifier, and had something of the true poetic touch and inspiration. The more intelligently Professor Harrison admires Professor Conington's version, the more clearly, in our opinion, he will see that his own experiment is superfluous, and the less likely he will be to continue it.

Narrative of the North Polar Expedition, U. S. S. *Polaris*, Captain Charles Francis Hall, commanding. Edited under the direction of the Hon. George M. Robeson, Secretary of the Navy, by Rear-Admiral C. H. Davis, U.S.N. (Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1876.)—The work before us records the achievements of one who now sleeps in his solitary grave, and its author himself paid his last debt to nature when his literary task was scarcely completed. It gives the long-looked-for narrative of the *Polaris* expedition, and also a brief history of the cruises made by the U. S. steamers *Tigress* and *Juniata*, sent out by Government to the rescue of the explorers.

To a scientific character the book makes no pretensions. From an artistic point of view it is eminently defective; it is by no means written even in faultless English; the sentences are mostly short and jerky, bearing the scent of the log-book, but at the same time they lack the freshness of the sea, and are mostly destitute of euphony. It cannot be denied that it is a difficult task to write about a country one has never seen, and for his shortcomings in this respect the author of the 'Narrative' should scarcely be blamed. But the book shows a surprising lack of ideas; it does not even contain a chapter of conclusions, which might reasonably have been expected. Its sole merit is that it gives the history of the expedition. Yet here again the editor has filled page after page with unimportant and utterly uninteresting itinerary narrative, printed in the largest double-leaded type. We quote a specimen or two:

"It appears as if Nature herself would join us in the celebration of Christmas-day. The full moon changes night into day, and illuminates the straits as a chandelier does a ball-room" (p. 264).

"On the 5th, as Herman Siemens was making the tidal observations, his attention was attracted by the cries of a dog, apparently coming from the starboard bow. He found, on going there, one of the little puppies fast in the ice. It had been caught in the ice, when it closed by a change in the tide, and was unable to free himself; it was liberated by a hatchet, and restored by being placed near the stove" (p. 280).

"On the 6th Captain Hall said that he had heard one of the men cursing another. Severely condemning the expressions, he issued an order forbidding all profane or vulgar language" (p. 137).

Such is the gentle stuff that goes to make up the contents of a volume of 696 pages, published at great expense by the Government, and the gist of which, with all due embellishment of language, might much better have been given in 64 pages. The illustrations are somewhat profuse, but besides the two frontispieces on steel, a portrait of Hall and a picture of the *Polaris*, they are extremely bad.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*
Andrews (Jane), Each and All	(Lee & Shepard) $2 00
Bryant (W. C.), The Flood of Years	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 3 00
Clark (Rev. S. D.), Memoir of John Woodbridge, D.D.	(Lee & Shepard) 2 00
Elliott (C. W.), Pottery and Porcelain	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Farrar (Rev. F. W.), Life of Christ, Parts 13-16, swd	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 25
Fell (A.), Gold and Gilt	(Henry Hoyt)
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 29, 1877.

The Week.

THE passing of the Senate from the control of the Republicans has been the absorbing topic of the week. This event has taken place sooner than any one had expected, and through unforeseen contingencies; but so far as it is a misfortune to the Republican party (and time alone can show whether it is not rather a great good fortune), the party itself is manifestly wholly to blame. Had the Republicans of the House honestly and steadfastly refused to entertain and discuss measures which were foreign to the objects of the special session, and withheld their support at the outset from the Silver and Anti-Resumption Bills, and had the Republican Senators forborne to fritter away their time in useless displays of their hostility to the President, and attempts to hold over him *in terrorem* their power to reject his civil-service nominations, there can be little doubt that before Senator Morton's death and Mr. Voorhees's appointment both Houses could have satisfied the call which brought them together, and the Committee on Privileges and Elections could have reported favorably to Mr. Kellogg in advance of the other contested cases. Judge Davis would not then have had the balance of power, and the Republicans might have begun the regular session with a majority, however small and precarious.

The catastrophe began on Tuesday week when Senator Thurman, as had been foreshadowed, submitted a resolution to discharge the Committee on Privileges and Elections from any further consideration of the credentials of General M. C. Butler, of South Carolina. On objection, the resolution went over till the following day, when Mr. Hoar, after defending the committee from a charge of want of diligence, moved to lay it upon the table. Had the Democrats been quite sure of the majority they were counting on, they might have allowed a direct vote to be taken upon this motion, but the absence, at his own case in court, of Patterson, of South Carolina, made it seem safer to move to go into executive session, which was carried by 30 to 29, Judge Davis voting with the Democrats, as did also Conover, of Florida. This was the handwriting on the wall to the Republicans, to whom anti-Hayes caucuses had lately seemed of so much more consequence than the discharge of plain Congressional duties. Mr. Hoar's motion was formally defeated on Thursday, by 32 to 30, the defection of Patterson being then for the first time openly revealed. The main question recurring, Mr. Edmunds endeavored to substitute Kellogg's name for Butler's in the resolution, which was voted down by 31 to 30—Conover having on this occasion conveniently retired to the cloak-room, with reference to which he had carefully selected his seat. Mr. Conkling sought to have his committee instructed to report on Kellogg, with a postponement meantime of Butler's case. The reappearance of Conover swelled the negative to 32 again. Finally, Mr. Edmunds moved to discharge the committee from consideration of the credentials of Kellogg and Butler, with the same result, but he succeeded in tieing the Senate on a motion to adjourn till Monday, which the Vice-President decided affirmatively.

Hopes were entertained that the interval would enure to the benefit of the Republicans, by the return of Mr. Blaine, who was ill at home and had "paired" with Mr. Grover, of Oregon, as well as by that of Mr. Sharon, of Nevada. While the latter's colleague, Mr. Jones, has been looking after Bonanza interests by pushing the House Silver Bill in the Senate, Mr. Sharon has deemed it necessary to his own financial standing to follow the rise and fall of silver stocks in San Francisco. Pressed and entreated by telegraph to return, he has positively declined, and at most has offered to resign, which is considered adding insult to injury, inasmuch as his successor would be a Democrat. On Monday, too, Senator Blaine had not arrived, and the struggle recommenced. Judge Davis first explained his reasons for voting on the side he did, and we predict that when the heat of the moment is over they will appear honorable to him and dictated by a true sense of duty. He said he felt there was no longer any excuse for not reporting on a case so simple as that of Butler's, but that, if the committee had reported Kellogg's first, he would have given that the precedence. Mr. Edmunds in vain attacked this reasoning, and with a fine sincerity besought Judge Davis not to compel Republicans to vote on Butler according to party predilection, instead of with the impartiality of judges. He then charged Butler with having a corrupt understanding with Patterson by which the latter had bargained away his vote, and ended by moving to go into executive session, but without success. Patterson and Conover improved the occasion to clear themselves from the charge of treachery and corruption, in a manner more or less edifying, according to the bias of "our special Washington correspondent." Mr. Edmunds next moved that the Committee on Privileges and Elections investigate the alleged influence exerted by Butler in his own behalf, and have power to send for persons and papers, and to report forthwith. Mr. Thurman easily showed, not the injustice of such a course, but its want of precedent, particularly in Republican practice, and even Mr. Matthews sided with him in the vote which ensued, and which stood 30 to 27. An executive session was reached late in the afternoon, after which an all-night session began, and lasted till three o'clock on Tuesday afternoon. Then the discharge of the Committee was ordered by 29 to 27, and Mr. Thurman entered a motion to admit Butler to a seat. As we go to press, the struggle to give precedence over this motion to one by Mr. Edmunds, taking up the Committee's report in favor of Kellogg, is in progress.

The conduct of Patterson and Conover in "betraying the party" has caused an awakening of the conscience on the general subject of carpet-baggers among the Republican newspapers, which is as entertaining reading as anything we have come across of late. The *Times*, the *Tribune*, the Boston *Advertiser*, and many others of the smaller fry, have lifted up their voices and asked the party solemnly why it had ever supported or allied itself with carpet-baggers, and whether it did not see or ought not to have seen all along that the carpet-bagger was a bad man, who could best serve both country and party in the penitentiary. The beauty of all this is that the only one of the lot who ever uttered one note of warning against the carpet-bagger during his twelve years of villany is the *Tribune*, and the *Tribune* only did it during the short period when it was frolicking among "the Liberals." Last year, during the canvass, when the carpet-bagger was at his very worst, and was bringing all his arts into play to secure the Presidency, and when the whole Cabinet was in league with the scoundrel and the army was at his beck and call, and when Messrs. Sherman and Stoughton and others went down to conceal him from public view while he was doctoring the returns in New Orleans, not one of these journals had a word to say against him. Nay, they talked as if the keeping of this evil beast in power by any means, fair or foul, was necessary to the salvation of the American Union. They whitewashed him, apologized for him, circulated his lies, pretended to be moved by his groans and to be amazed by his fortitude, and even blackguarded the courts which refused to lend him their writs. Now, however, when, in order to escape the police, he serves the great party as he has served everybody else, and deserts it on the death-bed to which his frauds and thefts and forgeries and debauchery have largely helped to bring it, they are amazed that anybody should ever have trusted him or seen any good in him. This pious perspicacity displayed even five years ago might have done much to save the Republican party. It looks now as if it would simply give an air of decency to its funeral.

All the other proceedings of Congress appear insignificant compared with the agony in the Senate. On Thursday Mr. Ewing closed the argument for anti-resumption in the House, and on Friday the bill was passed by a vote of 133 to 120. It repeals all that portion of the Act of 1875 which provides for contracting the greenbacks to $300,000,000, for redemption in coin on January 1, 1879, and for the use of the surplus revenue and the sale of bonds under the Funding Act to meet the demands of redemption. The bill was read in the Senate, and referred, on Monday. On Wednesday week the Senate Committee on Finance, profiting by its interview with the leading merchants and bankers of the great seaboard cities, as well as by the distinguished counsel of Mr. Bland, reported "an Act to authorize free coinage of a standard silver dollar, and to restore its legal character." The dollar in question is to consist of 412½ grains of silver, of the weight and fineness directed by the Act of January 18, 1837, and is to be legal tender, at its "nominal value, for all debts and dues, public and private, except where otherwise provided by contract." The Secretary of the Treasury is directed to purchase silver bullion at the market price to the amount of not less than $2,000,000 a month, nor more than $4,000,000, and coin it into dollars, but without at any time having more than $5,000,000 invested in bullion; the profits of such coinage to accrue not to the Bonanza speculators but to the Treasury.

The highly businesslike and financial state of mind in which the House discussed the Anti-Resumption Bill was illustrated in the reception which Mr. Ewing's poetical quotation received. He had a great deal to say against resumption, most of it that prolonged begging of the question with which the public is now so familiar, and which consists in ascribing all the prevalent business depression to the preparation to resume, but nothing seems to have produced such a profound impression as the lines

> "Alas! that bread should be so dear
> And flesh and blood so cheap."

The deep "sensation" caused by this among the assembled financiers found vent in great applause, and it seemed to leave no doubt in many minds that we ought not to redeem in gold in January, 1879. If, however, the lines contain a business statement it is totally untrue. "Bread" was never, or at least never since 1860, cheaper than it is now, and "flesh and blood" bring as much in gold and more in silver than they have done any time within the present century. If, on the other hand, these sloppy verses were introduced into the debate as poetry simply, why should financial discussions not be aided by the kindred art of music? Why, for instance, should not some member support the remonetization of silver by playing "Auld Lang Syne" on his sainted father's old fiddle?

The Commission sitting at Halifax under the Treaty of Washington to decide how much, if anything, the United States should pay for the inshore-fishing in Colonial waters, besides granting the Canadians the privilege of fishing in American waters and importing fish and fish-oil free of duty, has closed its labors by awarding $5,500,000 to the Canadians. The Commissioners were Sir A. T. Galt, for Great Britain; Ensign H. Kellogg, of Massachusetts, for the United States; and Mr. Delfosse, the Belgian Minister, named by the Emperor of Austria. This is the last of the disputes the settlement of which was provided for by the Treaty of Washington. In the first, about the "*Alabama* claims," the decision was adverse to Great Britain; in the second, about damage done to British subjects during the war, a commission awarded about $2,000,000 to British subjects; the third, about the navigation of the St. Lawrence and other waters, was settled by treaty; in the fourth, about the San Juan boundary, the Emperor of Germany, to whom it was referred, decided against Great Britain.

According to the American case in this last, the utmost value of the American inshore catch does not exceed over $75,000 a year, or thereabouts, while the duties remitted at American ports on Canadian fish amount to fully double that sum, so that the Canadians positively gain heavily by the arrangement, and are entitled to nothing. What the British case was we do not at this writing know, nor have we seen the judgment of the Commission. But Judge Foster, one of the American counsel, has protested against it, and pronounced it invalid, both because the award is too large and because the decision was not unanimous, there being in the Treaty no express mention of a majority vote. We sincerely trust, however, that there will be no refusal to pay on these grounds. If there was to be an appeal from the commission to the American counsel and press, the case should never have been submitted to it, and to take advantage of the omission of the Treaty to provide for decision by a majority, when its composition and the steady practice of tribunals of all kinds except juries distinctly point to decision by majority, would savor very unpleasantly of sharp practice. The "principle of arbitration" received a serious blow from the performances of Congress over the indemnity; we trust it will not receive another from the fishery affair. If the American Commission had agreed with M. Delfosse to award nothing or $10,000, and the Canadians had refused to submit because their man did not concur and they expected more money, we should all have laughed heartily.

There appears to be no longer any doubt, though we have been very loath to believe it, that the peculiar method of reforming the civil service resorted to in placing the English mission at the disposal of the Pennsylvania delegation, was again used in trying to fill the German mission, *i.e.*, it was placed at the disposal of the Illinois delegation, which we are glad to say promptly nominated Colonel "Bob" Ingersoll, who was, of course, unsuitable. All this is bad enough coming from an Administration which is pledged to a "thorough, radical and complete reform of the civil service," but it becomes almost ludicrous when coming from an Administration which has undertaken to restore to the Executive the power and responsibility of nomination, and is now fighting with the Senate in defence of its prerogative. In what way it would be worse to let the Senators recommend candidates than to let the whole delegations of particular States recommend them it would be hard to say. Of course, there is not the slightest use in calling on "the people" to support the President in "an arduous task" of this kind. One good sign of the times is that *Harper's Weekly* and other Republican papers are not acting as they did when General Grant began to go astray, shouting out that it is all right, that "he has made mistakes, as who has not?" but that he is doing the best he can under the circumstances, and that anybody who complains is a bad man.

The General Assembly of Tennessee meets next Wednesday in extraordinary session "to consider recommendations made by the arbiters at the conference held at New York in March, 1877, to adjust the State debt by the issuance of new six per cent. bonds at the rate of sixty per cent. of the total amount of principal and past-due interest, and to levy a tax sufficient to meet the interest on the new bonds." A special despatch to the *Times* asserts that public feeling in Tennessee is in favor of repudiation rather than accept these favorable terms, and this is no doubt the case. Postmaster-General Key is so convinced of it that he has done himself the honor to write an earnest letter of protest to Governor Porter. "I lay this down as an incontrovertible maxim," he says, "that there is more of honesty and honor in paying a debt not justly incurred than in repudiating and refusing to pay one justly due." He proceeds to show that the debt of Tennessee is justly due; that in its capitol and railroad system the State has got value received for its bonds, all of which, even those considered wrongfully issued, "were issued under laws providing for their issuance, by public officers selected by the people of the State, to whose fidelity, judgment, and determination the execution of the laws were entrusted." The impoverishment caused by the war furnishes no excuse for repudiation, because Tennessee voluntarily made the effort to secede. A forced "adjustment" of the debt would be worse than outright repudiation—would be highway robbery; whereas a voluntary offer on the creditor's part to reduce his claim

should be accepted with thankfulness. Judge Key warns the governor that the arguments justifying repudiation by the State would justify citizens in refusing to pay taxes and revenue. "If a State refuse to discharge its solemn obligations, it dare not coerce its people to do what it will not do." "History shows that without exception"—this reads like a special message to Congress at this juncture—"liberty, life, and property have less security in those countries or states which repudiate their obligations than in those which regard their honor as pledged to redeem their promises, and therefore do redeem them. If a State may violate its plighted faith in one thing, it may disregard it in anything." He concludes by pointing out the richness of Tennessee and its ability to pay a debt of twice fifteen millions, and declares that the "capital of enterprising immigrants will never go to a State which advertises the character of her resources by such methods."

During the week the price of silver fell to 54½d. per oz. in London, which would make "the dollar of the fathers" worth 90½ cents, gold. The promise of the United States to pay one dollar (understood to mean payment of the gold dollar) was worth in gold at the close about 97 cents. The President's intentions with regard to the Silver Bill are still a subject for discussion, the prevailing belief, as reflected in the New York and London markets for United States bonds, being that he will veto the bill. United States bonds continue to return to this country, because they are higher here than in London. If Congress should declare them to be payable in silver, the return movement would in all probability become large enough to draw gold from us. Money in London first advanced to four per cent. and then fell to three per cent. In this market the rate remained five to six per cent. There has been less than the expected mercantile demand for money, and, accordingly, rates have ruled lower during the whole season than they would have done if business had been good. During the last three weeks the heavy rains in the West have made the dirt roads almost impassable, which explains the smallness of the railroad earnings and is one reason why general trade has been so dull. There is a continued good export demand for breadstuffs. The cotton movement is late and disappointing in immediate results, although no one estimates the crop below 4,500,000 bales.

In France the situation does not improve. The Marshal has, after two or three abortive attempts, succeeded in forming a new ministry, with the Minister of War, General Grimaudet de Rochbouet, as President of the Council. The members are all unknown in politics. Of the eight, four are Legitimists and pious Catholics; the others Bonapartists of various degrees of intensity. The Republicans have not a shadow of representation in the Cabinet. The Marshal, as General de Rochebouet explained in the Senate, apparently proposes by forming a ministry outside politics to avoid further trouble with the Left; and they are to confine themselves to executing the laws and preparing for the Exposition, and will transmit the constitution intact to their successors whenever the Marshal thinks proper to appoint a parliamentary ministry. The same statement was read in the Assembly, whereupon Jules Ferry moved that such a ministry was a denial of parliamentary rights, and that the Chamber could not enter into relations with it, and the resolution was carried by 323 to 208. This is said to have greatly exasperated the Marshal, who talked of it at a state dinner as an act of defiance and an "insult" which he was bound to resent. Like our "Old Man," the thought of his own dignity seems constantly uppermost in his mind, and the whole affair now looks to him like a personal quarrel. There appears to be no doubt, however, that a set of pious men, partly Bonapartists and partly Legitimists, are "poisoning his mind" for ends of their own. What these ends are is, of course, matter of conjecture, as they cannot be working together for the restoration of the Empire; but the theory held by those who are best informed is that they are bent on having a good Catholic ministry in power, who will exert French influence in the right way when the Pope dies, or, in other words, that religion is at the bottom of the whole turmoil.

Plevna may now be said to be surrounded by a double circle of Russo-Rumanian forces, the inner consisting of the investing army intrenched in front of Osman Pasha's works, from Grivitza to Dubnik, and the outer formed by moving detachments, whose task it is to prevent the approach or the gathering of troops for the relief of the besieged. From the inner circle the week has brought no news whatever, and we are left in total ignorance concerning the issue of the late contests around Brestovetz, in which Skobeleff again figured so conspicuously. The activity of the war correspondents around Plevna has evidently been reduced to naught, and those stationed at places more remote from the field of war generally indulge in communications of a speculative and sensational character, containing but scanty grains of real information. At some points of the wider periphery there has been much warlike movement, and some fighting. On November 21, Rahova, on the Danube, midway between Plevna and Widdin, was captured by the Rumanians, "after a three days' engagement," as they announce it. The Turkish garrison, about one thousand men, fled toward Widdin. The Rumanians lost 224 killed and wounded, according to a bulletin. Some days later, advancing westward along the Danube, they occupied Lom Palanka. On November 21 or 22, a Russian regiment of infantry and one of cavalry, sent from Vratza against Novatchin, in the direction of Orhanie, were "overwhelmed" by the Turks, as Mehemet Ali Pasha reports it, the cavalry being totally destroyed and two guns and many prisoners captured. On November 23, Pravetz, east of Orhanie, on the road from Plevna, was captured by the invaders —the despatch says "by the Rumanians," whom we should hardly expect to see operating so far south—"after two days' fighting." On the 24th the Russians took Etropol, southeast of Pravetz, "with trifling loss." On the same day, according to some special despatches, which, perhaps, need confirmation, Mehemet Ali evacuated Orhanie. He had arrived there a few days before. The Russians have thus pushed forward to various positions on the northern slopes of the Balkans, and it remains to be seen whether there is any truth in the repeated assertions that they intend crossing the mountains before the fall of Plevna, and at the very opening of winter. The "special" report of their having done it in great strength was, of course, a fabrication.

Suleiman Pasha, on November 19, successfully executed a dash at the important Russian position at Pirgos on the Danube, above Rustchuk. The Turks, as they relate the affair, carried the Metchka heights between Pirgos and the main Russian camps, and repulsed a counter-movement against Kadiköi, inflicting on the enemy a loss of fourteen hundred men, and destroying at Pirgos seventy casemates of ammunition and provisions. The Russians admit the surprise and the burning of Pirgos, but claim a final repulse of the Turks. That the latter withdrew to their positions east of the Lom is probable, since no further collision is reported. The news from all other quarters is very meagre, excepting northwestern Albania, where the Montenegrins, after many desultory attacks and a severe repulse on the road between Antivari and Scutari, have been actively reducing the forts covering the town and port of Spitza, adjoining the south extremity of their country, the acquisition of which has for a long time been a great object of their ambition. The trite announcements concerning Servia's impending movements are repeated with the usual change of date. From Armenia, immediately after the fall of Kars, we received a flood of reports in regard to prospective operations by the Russians, embracing some very wild speculations. But from all we have learned since that memorable capture we consider as positive only that Loris-Melikoff, without any loss of time, started for Erzerum, and as probable that a part of his troops followed him soon after, and that Mukhtar Pasha, summoned to surrender the capital of Armenia, has refused to do so. The absence of all direct news from that city seems to indicate an interruption of telegraphic communication. From Tiflis the news comes, in an unofficial form, that the rising in the Caucasus is increasing, and that the insurgents, on November 12, stormed a fortified town (the "Kussar" of the telegram probably denotes Kunsak in Daghestan), capturing the garrison.

HOW THE SILVER BILL SHOULD BE VETOED.

THE Silver Bill, as it has emerged from the Senate, is shorn of some of its absurdity and harmfulness. The silver-miners are not to be allowed, as proposed by the sagacious Bland, to carry their silver to the mint and get one legal-tender dollar for every ninety-two cents they deposit, and the amount the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to coin is not to exceed $48,000,000 or fall below $24,000,000 in any one year, nor are his investments in silver bullion to exceed $5,000,000 at any one time. As a matter of fact, it appears that the Mint cannot turn out more than $24,000,000 in a year, and that the annual coinage would probably never exceed $20,000,000, which would be very little for "the poor man," or for "the debtor class"; so that, as regards the home market, it is probably only those who receive weekly wages in cash who would suffer, as they would be all paid in a currency of less value than the greenbacks. The principal mischief of the bill would consist in its effect upon the public creditors, who would consider themselves cheated, and there would probably be a heavy return of Government bonds from Europe and a peremptory refusal to take any more. It is now announced that the President intends to veto the bill if it reaches him in its present shape, on the ground that it would injure the national credit by denying the bondholders that payment of their principal and interest in gold which was intended, and which they were led to expect.

It will, of course, be well to secure the veto of the bill on any ground whatever, but we make bold to say that if the President refuses to sign it simply out of consideration for the bondholders he will make a mistake, and lose a great opportunity of helping to clear the public mind on the whole of this currency question. The cry which the repudiators and inflationists have used ever since the beginning of this controversy, that "there ought not to be one money for the bondholders and another for the people," is really unanswerable. If he vetoes this bill for the sake of the bondholders he will give it fresh force by making the inequality the more conspicuous. The only good reason for promising the bondholders payment in gold, while the rest of the community had to put up with greenbacks, was that in no other way could the bonds have been sold—or, in other words, the necessity of the case. But the fault lay not in promising the bondholders gold, but in imposing irredeemable paper on the people; and the remedy consists not in denying the bondholders what we promised them, but in giving the rest of the community what ought never to have been taken away from them—a stable standard of value, or, in other words, in making the greenbacks as good as gold. It was this the Cincinnati platform promised, and this the President undertook, as far as in him lay, to bring about when he accepted the nomination. From this the monetization of silver is "a step backwards," and it is because it is a step backwards—that is, because it would carry us further away from a stable measure of value than we are now, and not simply because it would do a great wrong to the public creditor—that the remonetization of silver is objectionable.

All the arguments which the public creditor uses against it cannot, it is true, be used by other creditors, but most of them can. Every one who has deposited money in the savings-banks, for instance, during the past seven years, although he has had no express promise of repayment in coin, has been led by all the authorized declarations of the ruling party, and of the Government in all its branches, to expect a steady appreciation in the value of his deposit. Every creditor who has lent money within the past seven years has expected, and been led to expect in like manner, that his loan would be repaid to him, if not in better money, in as good money as he gave. Moreover, every man engaged, or about to engage, in business has expected, and been led to expect, a steady approximation of our legal tender to the most stable standard of value, and that now in use by the majority of civilized nations. In short, there is no class of the community engaged in an honest calling, and needing security for their possessions and their contracts, which is not just as much entitled as the bondholders to such protection against the silver and anti-resumption legislation as the President can give. It is true that when the bondholders are cheated the cheating is done directly by the Government, and the shame of this may be greater than the shame of permitting by legislation mutual cheating among the various classes of citizens; but the difference in moral guilt is but very trifling, if there be any at all. It is very certain, too, that a veto uttered simply for the protection of the bondholders would intensify instead of allaying the prevailing madness about money, and furnish demagogues with a fresh illustration of their favorite theory that the public creditors are a small class of "Shylocks," who have made a good deal out of the "toiling millions," and take care to save themselves by exceptional legislation from bearing their proper share of the public difficulties and misfortunes.

It may be said, however, that if the President vetoes the bill, and thus saves all the interests which it threatens with injury, what difference does it make what reason he gives for it? It makes a good deal of difference. The silver craze has owed its rise and progress to the silence or connivance of the Republican leaders, who were led in their short-sighted desire for endorsements at the Western State elections, either to favor the silver movement or shut their eyes to it and refrain from coming to any conclusion about it. They apparently thought it would not be much of a fire, after all, and that it might safely be allowed to rage until November, by which time it was hoped the Administration would have got its feet warmed and be feeling comfortable, and then that it would die out and no more be said or thought about it. These expectations were deservedly disappointed. The reticence of the Administration encouraged the demagogues who had the delusion in charge, and who were skilful enough to use for its propagation some of the very weapons by which the greenback movement had been stayed, and in the course of six months of almost unopposed agitation they have filled the popular mind with an enormous amount of sophistry and falsehood and hallucination. All of the leading newspapers in the West, and notably the Chicago *Tribune* and the Cincinnati *Commercial*, which kept their heads clear during the greenback excitement and rendered valuable service in exposing that particular folly, have taken up the silver movement with what looks like frenzy, and we hope is true frenzy. The Chicago *Tribune*, the leading paper of a great commercial city, denounces capitalists, bankers, and bondholders in rant worthy of citizen Schwab, and with an ignorance of the laws of trade which we fear must be feigned, and, if feigned, is horrible; for no real ignorance of the ignorant, however brutal, is as alarming and hopeless a thing as the sham ignorance of the knowing. The one can be reached and removed by the schoolmaster, but the other can only be effectively dealt with by a Higher Power. One example only of this shamming—for such we must pronounce it—the complaint that silver was demonetized secretly and suddenly, and by means of a conspiracy of "Shylocks," or Eastern and foreign bankers, may fairly be called startling, considering the quarter from which it comes. The bill was three years before Congress and the country, was examined in committee and reported on and debated with elaboration and minuteness. The chairman of the committee was that now rabid double-standard and silver-man, Mr. W. D. Kelley, who reported "that the bill had received as careful attention as he had ever known a committee to give in his life," and said it had been "gone over section by section, line by line, word by word," and delivered his valuable opinion very emphatically, "that it was impossible to retain the double standard." Why, then, did the measure excite so little attention? it will be asked. Simply because there was nothing to be made out of it, because there was three per cent. to be made by exporting it, and it was, therefore, unknown in circulation, and as a legal tender offered nobody an opportunity or appearance of opportunity of unexpected advantage over anybody else.

Now, if the President will in his veto message take up the *whole* subject, give the history of the demonetization of silver and the reasons for it, and all of the reasons against remonetization, in so far as it affects all contracts and all classes of debtors and creditors, and affects the standard of value to be used in buying or selling, he will

do nothing more than the subject calls for, and will do a great deal to steady and enlighten public opinion. For one reason or another not only is a President's message more widely read than any other public document, but it produces, if there is, as in the present case, confidence in the President's character, more impression than any other on that great body of "plain people" whose opinion forms so large a part of what is called public opinion. A great deal of public opinion on questions of this sort is acquiescence in what is strongly urged and seems likely to be accomplished; but this acquiescence is often readily arrested or even developed into active opposition by a few well-chosen words of explanation or encouragement from a trusted source. The way in which the inflation fever was killed in the Republican party by Grant's veto is still in everybody's recollection; and we have no doubt that if President Hayes is sufficiently master of the subject to be roused by it, he can in a short message so dispose of the silver movement that it will trouble honest men no more. More than this; we have little doubt that such a message would give great relief to scores of Congressmen who have come up to Washington charged with delusions current in their district, but who know they are delusions, and feel ashamed of themselves when supporting them in Congress.

THE CITY AND THE COUNTRY.

THE distress and anxiety existing among the working classes at the East, and indeed in all the cities and industrial centres East and West, are producing a natural turn in the tide in people's judgment about the comparative social merits of agriculture and manufactures, and praises of farming as the best basis of a sound society begin to assume their old prominence in periodical literature. The flow of Eastern capital which has been frightened out of city property, and out of transportation and manufactures, by recent events, into agriculture, in the shape of loans to small farmers at the West, to the great extent of which we called attention in a recent article on Western investments, is a striking illustration of the manner in which, under the ordinary operation of the laws of trade, any "over-doing" in any one field of industry is remedied. That this is a healthy and useful movement, if carried on carefully, there is no question. It will prove an enormous advantage to the West, and to that invaluable body of men who aim at securing farms of their own by persistent industry and economy, if conducted, as we have no doubt it is for the most part as yet, with care and discrimination. It will do great mischief, both moral and economical, if the competition of lenders leads to any disregard of proper guarantees as to the character of the borrowers and the value of the farms; if, in short, it in any way becomes easy for the shiftless, or dishonest, or fickle to procure money, or easy for any class to procure it on insufficient security. The transportation business of the country has been utterly demoralized by the ease in borrowing of the past twelve years, and this ease in borrowing would soon demoralize any business, and the agricultural business sooner than most others; for the farmer has not had commercial training and is apt to grow restive under the creditor's love of promptness and fidelity. The Granger movement against the railroads ought to be a warning to all investors against setting men up in business too easily, or setting any men up who have not already made a reputation for honesty and frugality and prudence. In other words, they cannot be too careful in the selection of the agents who place their loans and appraise the security, and we say this without meaning to cast any imputation on any one. We simply say that when "a rush" of any kind into any new field in pursuit of high rates of interest begins, people are apt to lose their heads. The recent attempt to "develop the resources of the West" through new railroads is full of instruction on this point. It is no answer to all this to say, as some do, that they have been lending on Western farms for twenty or thirty years and have never lost a cent. During the last twenty or thirty years there has been no eagerness for Western agricultural loans—money seemed to pay better in other fields; the danger has come, or is coming, with the competition among lenders for farm-mortgages.

Another proof of the healthiness of this movement of capital into agriculture is to be found in the wonderful support to the national credit and prosperity which agriculture has supplied since 1873. With the collapse of the home demand and the absence of foreign markets for our manufactures, we should have been in a sorry plight during the last four years if it were not for the enormous quantity of farm produce we have been able to export; and the probabilities are that, with the steadily improving means of transportation and increasing skill in preparing products for transportation—of which the cheese and fresh-meat trade with Europe are remarkable illustrations—farming will continue to play a larger and larger part both in settling foreign claims against us and procuring us foreign commodities, after feeding our own population.

It would seem as if, under these circumstances, the return to the country of the surplus (and now ill-fed, ill-lodged, and discontented surplus) population of the towns, which philanthropists have begun to advocate and sigh for, ought not to be difficult to bring about. The cities being plainly overcrowded by the drift into them of country people attracted by the prodigious activity of manufacturing industry and of exchange and speculation, the idle, the unhappy, and the destitute ought, it is said, to sally out promptly and resume the pure and healthy life of tillers of the soil. Every now and then one reads in the newspapers one of those articles of advice in which the late Horace Greeley was such a proficient, calling on the impoverished city laborer and artisan and clerk to start out on the country roads with the full assurance that they will find work and welcome at almost any farm-house they come to. There is one thing, however, that well-meaning promoters of the exodus from the city to the country are apt to forget, and that is, that it is much easier to drift from the farm to the workshop or a store than from the workshop or store to the farm. Capital, in fact, flows from the city to the country far more easily than labor. Work on a farm is more or less repulsive to all men, from its severity and exposure to the weather. There is hardly anybody engaged in it who would not like to exchange it, if he could, for occupation needing less muscle, and capable of being pursued under cover, and with greater neatness and cleanliness, and with more company, and greater opportunities for amusement. The young farmer, therefore, generally longs to "clerk it" in the nearest town, and having "clerked it" awhile, and become used to clean hands, warm rooms, the theatre, and the concert-room, he will submit to almost any privation sooner than go back to the hoe and the plough and the windy field. Even the day-laborer is apt to prefer working even in city drains, with the prospect of a sociable evening and sociable Sundays, to lighter but more solitary and monotonous labor on the farm. In fact, a man who has even for a year led a city life in any calling is apt to be spoilt for agriculture, and will try all sorts of dodges rather than go back to it. On the other hand, the passage from the farm to the city is easy, and it is the dream of most farm youths to make it. They hear of the fortunes won in the cities by "poor boys" like themselves from their own neighborhood, and they are impressed by the well-cut clothes, and white hands, and wonderful stories of city gaiety of their friends who sell dry goods or hardware in the nearest great town. Our system of popular education, too, and our popular literature, have much to do with creating a distaste for farm-life and small gains. They sharpen the wits just enough to make solitude very irksome and fill the head with vague ambition.

What with these influences and the facility for travel afforded by the railroads, the drain of "smart" youngsters from the country would probably have been very great, even if the high tariff of the last seventeen years had not put a high premium on city pursuits, a premium so great as to outbalance the inducements on the other side offered by cheap land and greater security. In the early colonial days, and for thirty years after the Revolution, the proportions between agriculture and other pursuits were healthy because they were natural. Agriculture was then, as it is now, the great industry of the country, but the more active-minded, ingenious, and restless spirits overflowed from it naturally to the degree that was

desirable into fisheries, commerce, mining, spinning, and weaving. All these things flourished marvellously (witness Burke's description of New England enterprise) in spite of the exactions and discouragements of the mother country, and there was not one of them that could not or did not hold its own without protection. The recent fiscal policy has been a powerful political and social disorganizer. It offered inducements to people to quit agriculture and engage in manufactures so powerful as to fit them rather for dull, unenterprising, and tradition-bound peasants like the Russians, than an active, eager, and easily-moved population like Americans, and while thus stripping the farms of their most energetic and intelligent men, it with curious fatuity shut them out from foreign commerce and the carrying trade, so that when the collapse came—and it *had* to come—they were absolutely cooped up in the cities, and unfitted to become tillers of the soil.

The effect of this policy on the growth of the cities, too, has been most unhealthy, and has made the problem of municipal government a very serious one for American society, by stopping the tide of foreign immigration on its way to the West. So long as the growth of American cities was natural, their population was increased by men who had learned the art of local self-government, and acquired their political conscience in the country. Under the forcing system they have been built up by vast accretions of ignorant foreigners, whose first experience of politics is acquired in ward primaries, and who learn to look on the suffrage as simply a means of getting jobs out of the public, and taxation as another name for the forced contributions of the rich to a fund for the poor man's relief.

The process of restoring the balance between town and country will therefore probably be a much slower one than could be wished, and will have to be promoted by a variety of agencies. A rational tariff which will recognize the fact that the average American is a shrewd business man and can generally be relied on to find out occupations that have money in them, without being paid for it by the Treasury, is one of them. Another is a thorough reform in city government, which will restrict the taxing, or rather confiscating power, of numerical majorities, and put the charities on a sensible footing, and thus make city life less attractive to the idle, the ignorant, and the vicious. Another still is the safe investment of the capital now being so freely lent to farmers at the West. We may add, though it is less capable of definition, and perhaps of execution, than the others, the reorganization of country life in some way that will make it less solitary and give it more harmless distraction. The magazine and piano farmer of our day cannot stand the silent drudgery of the fields as the German or French peasant can.

LEGAL *BOUFFE* IN IOWA.

THE Committee of the Bar of the Iowa Circuit appointed last August to investigate the charges against Judge Dillon has completed its labors, the results of which are published in the Iowa *State Register*. The report states, 1st, that the Committee notified Mr. Isaac M. Cate, of Boston, of its appointment, and requested him to "communicate with the chairman of the Committee in relation to the alleged grievances of himself and those he represented"; that certain communications were received from Mr. Cate; that certain evidence, including "to some extent" the record and files of the court in the case, was examined; that Mr. Cate did not appear; and that, after having thus used all the means in their power to get at the truth, the Committee finds: *First*, that the evidence wholly fails to sustain the charge that Judge Dillon delayed or attempted to delay the execution of the decree in the Iowa Central foreclosure case, and that his rulings were influenced by no other motive than a desire to secure all parties their rights. *Second*, That the insinuation that the judge was in his action "influenced by any desire or intention of Mr. Price to buy the road" is wholly unsupported. *Third*, That the removal of Pickering and appointment of Grinnell as receiver was without the previous knowledge or request of Grinnell, and was not procured by the personal influence of any one in his behalf; and that the appointment was made from the best motives. *Fourth*, That the fact that Judge Dillon has for years occupied the rooms and library of Judge Grant (counsel for the trustee in the case) as his court chambers is only evidence that "both the parties implicated are gentlemen"; and that "such courtesies are not only not unusual but are uniform and universal." *Fifth*, That it is immaterial whether or not Judge Grant or Mr. Grinnell ever boasted of their relations or influence with the Court, as such a boast "would only prove vanity on the part of the person" making it, but "could not possibly be considered evidence of any wrong on the part of the judge." *Sixth*, That the Committee is satisfied that neither Judge Grant nor Mr. Grinnell ever attempted to use any personal influence with either Judge Dillon or Judge Love in the case. The Committee also say that they find no evidence tending to show that the charges were prompted by any honest conviction, and wind up their report with the recommendation of the passage of a series of resolutions setting forth that the charges against Judge Dillon have been found "wholly devoid of any evidence to sustain them," and completely exonerating him. These resolutions were unanimously adopted at a meeting of the Bar held on the 20th of last month.

There are several facts in connection with this matter which the findings of the Committee do not dwell upon. An investigation against anybody presupposes a complainant as well as a defendant. In this case Mr. Cate is apparently the complainant. He was accordingly notified on August 31 of the appointment of the Committee, and was told by the clerk of the meeting that he might "submit to them anything he desired." He was again more urgently notified by the chairman on September 21. At the end of August, it appears from the record in the Iowa Central case, a master was appointed to ascertain the wishes of a majority of the bondholders with regard to the organization of a new company, which necessitated constant travelling on the part of Mr. Cate as the representative of the proposed plan of reorganization. From the correspondence referred to in the report it appears that, calling the attention of the Committee to this fact, he professed a readiness to go out to Iowa and make his complaint in person, but requested first to know whether Judge Dillon would also go before the Committee. To this Mr. Nourse, the chairman, returned an evasive answer, saying: "Of course we would not refuse to hear Judge Dillon or any one else." To this Mr. Cate replied, asking for a direct answer, but again professing his entire readiness to appear, provided he had counsel to assist him. It may be mentioned, also, that without an examination of Judge Dillon the whole investigation would necessarily be a farce, inasmuch as many facts bearing on the receivership could not be elicited without a cross-examination of him under oath. Now, the matter being in this state—*i.e.*, the complainant being in correspondence with the court with regard to the appearance of the defendant, and professing his entire readiness not merely to submit charges but to appear in person—the court convenes, tries the case, and renders a verdict of not guilty. The chairman of the Committee, we may add, has been the attorney of one of the parties interested in the controversy. This vindication of the judge only needed one thing to perfect it, and that was a finding that some particularly doubtful act on his part is to be taken as a proof of his innocence and nice feeling. This is furnished by the finding that his practice of holding chambers in the library and rooms of a lawyer who is repeatedly, year in year out, retained in cases before him, is praiseworthy and in obedience to "universal" custom. It is this custom which has got Judge Dillon into the whole trouble, and deservedly. It is a custom which necessarily gives rise to a suspicion of corruption, no matter how pure a judge may be. We can assure Mr. Nourse that in this part of the country it is quite unknown, and that if it were discovered that any leading firm of lawyers in this city had "chambers" held in their "rooms and library" by any judge, there would be trouble of a very grave character. Judges cannot do such things with impunity anywhere except in the courts of Gerolstein, where also *bouffe* committees of enquiry, gravely presided over by chairmen interested in the case, formally exonerate them from charges in advance of the appearance of the complainant. We observe that the *Law Review*, which has the reputation of being the most conservative and sensible legal magazine in the country, joins with us in insisting upon an investigation of the scandal relating to Judge Dillon.

THANKSGIVING IN THE SCOTTISH HIGHLANDS.

LONDON, November 4, 1877.

TO-DAY, in many of the churches of these islands, and especially in the Episcopalian churches of Scotland, special services have been ordained for the purpose of expressing gratitude for what, in unconscious irony, is called an abundant harvest. There is something ludicrous, if it were not cruel, in selecting this particular season for a harvest-home thanksgiving. Bad as the harvest has been in England, in the north of Scotland and

throughout the Highlands it has been disastrous. The crops have been absolutely destroyed by the weather which has prevailed since the beginning of October. What in the middle of September promised to be rich crops of wheat have been lying, still green, beaten down by the wind with a load of several inches of snow upon them. The barley crop has fared no better, and though some of the oats have been harvested and rendered worthy of a thanksgiving, any gratitude that may have arisen in the pious farmer's breast on that account has been extinguished by the total failure of his turnips and potatoes and the wholesale depreciation in the value of all kinds of stock. The worst winter for more than a quarter of a century is the dismal prospect which the Scotch farmer is called upon to face to-day, and this is the occasion which the authorities of the Scotch Episcopal Church have selected to call upon their congregations to return thanks for "an abundant harvest." The proceeding reminds me of a very old story of a Presbyterian divine, who praying, extemporaneously as is their wont, for fine weather, was interrupted by a violent hail-storm pattering against the windows of his church. He stopped for a moment to take in the situation, and then changing his tone of humble but patronizing entreaty to one of indifference and sarcasm, addressed the Supreme Being in the following terms : "Weel, weel, then—rain awa, Lord, and spile all the puir folks' corn, as ye did the ither year, and see what ye'll mak o' your handiwork!" In some such spirit as this it may be that the devout Episcopalians of Scotland have gathered together to give thanks for the abundant harvest.

Be this as it may, there is a bad winter in store for agriculturists and farmers, large and small, throughout the whole of Scotland, but especially for the class of small holders known by the name of "crofters" in the Highlands. The derivation of the word "croft" I do not know ; but it implies the small holding which you see surrounding the hovels in some parts of the North country, extending, it may be, to a quarter of an acre or half an acre, and sometimes embracing as much as four or five acres. This "croft" is generally badly cultivated, growing, where it can, a small, scanty crop of oats or of potatoes, and supporting, so far as it is able to do, so a crofter and his wife, and five, six, or, it may be, a dozen of half-starved children. Two centuries ago, or even later, the Highlands of Scotland were as far removed from civilization as any part of Europe. The state of society which prevailed was similar to what now prevails among the Bedouin Arabs. Each great family or clan yielded obedience to an hereditary chief. The chief was metaphorically, and to a large extent practically, the father of his people. The mountains and glens over which he exercised chieftainship were looked upon in a sense as common property of the clan under the rule of the chief, and the individual families raised their hovels and rudely cultivated their crofts very much wherever they liked within the clan territory, on the tenure of a small fine in kind to the chief and personal military service. The crofts produced the poorest crops. Herds of black cattle and black-faced sheep, as wild as their owners, supplied some milk, some wool and flesh. In addition, there were red deer on the mountains, grouse on the heather hills, and fish in the sea and in the lakes and rivers. And there always was excitement, and sometimes profit, to be got—as all readers of 'Rob Roy' know well—by armed raids and forays upon the Lowlanders of Stirlingshire and the Carse of Gowrie, and other rich corn and pasture lands of the South. Until the rising of 1745 the chieftain's sole desire was to increase the number of his retainers. Armed men were the chief natural products of the country, and the chief source of power and importance. There was no danger of over-population. Perpetual warfare and periodical famines kept the population within limits, and the people wanted nothing but the rough hill-side and what they could secure by force.

After the battle of Culloden and the disarming of the Highlands, civilization began to find its way into those wild parts. The chiefs began to understand that hordes of half-fed and half-clothed savages were not such valuable possessions as they had been. Herds of well-fed sheep and fields of well-tilled land were more productive of wealth—the chief source of civilization—than wild acres tenanted by wilder men and women. A new policy with regard to Highland properties—if the chief's territories can be called properties—was instituted. Instead of encouraging the increase of population in those districts, wholesale measures were taken to diminish it. Then began what have been called the Highland clearances, or wholesale removals of the crofters from many districts in the Highlands. Various means were taken to bring these about. Highland regiments were raised in some localities ; families were removed from the interior to fishing stations on the sea-coast in other localities ; and means of emigration were furnished for all who chose to avail themselves of them. So the Highlands were cleared. About the time when these events occurred Sir Walter Scott was writing his poetry and his novels, filled with all the charms of chivalry and romance. The Highlands and the Highlanders were depicted to the life, and the imagination of the youth, not of this country only but of all Europe, was filled with ideal visions of the beauty of the Highlands and their romantic and interesting inhabitants. The clearances were denounced as atrocities done in the interest of individual proprietors. Party politics ran high in those days, and party machinations were introduced to vilify those who really were moving onwards in the paths of civilization. For some time the battle raged furiously on both sides ; but now, for upwards of half a century, we have heard very little of the matter.

It looks, however, as if the controversy were about to begin anew. A good deal of interest has been aroused of late in the Celtic population of these Highlands. The Irish Land Act gave the first stimulus to the movement. People in search of grievances began to think that in principle there was not much to chose between the tenure of the Highland crofter and that of the Irish small tenant. A Scotch professor of some eminence took up the Celtic cause, and by dint of the most persevering efforts has succeeded in collecting a large sum of money to endow a Celtic chair in one of the universities. Celtic magazines and newspapers have been founded to write up the Highlander, and within the last few weeks the leading newspaper in Scotland, the *Scotsman*, has opened its columns to correspondents who are writing vigorously on the crofter question. The failure of the harvest, the prospect of something like famine, or at least of great privation, during the ensuing winter, has given point to this epistolary controversy. But it comes to very little. The men of feeling and sentiment are all in favor of the crofter ; the men of practical experience and judgment are against him ; and the upshot seems to be that in many cases and localities the Highlands are still over-populated, and the people growing up in squalor and uselessness, while in other cases and localities the depopulation has been overdone. What the old clearances have left, steamboats and railways have swept away into the towns, and in certain places in the Highlands where enlightened and wealthy landowners are desirous of improving their estates they cannot find the men to do it. The able-bodied have all left the country, and only the decrepit and feeble have remained. Lodgings, coal, perquisites, and twenty, or even twenty-three, shillings a week will not buy labor. In some places work which has been commenced has come to a standstill for want of men to carry it on, and vast districts are given over to red deer and black cattle, as in the wild days two centuries back, for want of any more profitable means of utilizing the districts. Money cannot change the climate of the Highlands, and in a bad climate it cannot convert sterile soil into rich. It seems as if we must come back to Nature in these districts, and Nature never intended the Highlands of Scotland to support a redundant and excessive population.

FATHER CURCI * AND THE CURIA.

FLORENCE, November 9.

FATHER CURCI'S "separation" from the Society of Jesus forms still the principal topic of conversation throughout the political circles of Italy, and not without good cause. To close observers of things in this country that event must, in fact, appear infinitely more important than the petty squabbles and quarrels between the different parliamentary factions which fill the newspapers, and give to the political life of Italy that peculiarly tedious monotony of which foreigners, as well as Italians not concerned in them, have so pronounced a nausea. And it must never be forgotten that, after all, the *dramatis personæ* of the political farce in this country are anything but numerous, and that so-called public life is, what with senators and deputies, officials and journalists, limited to a very few thousands of actors. This circumstance also it is which gives so much importance to the movement of which Father Curci is the promoter, and which differs widely from the attempts of Cardinal Andrea, M. Liverani, or Abbe Passaglia to react against the Jesuits in the name and for the cause of the Italian clergy.

To begin with, Father Curci is himself a Jesuit, and a zealous Jesuit ; nay, the glory and ornament of the society, which counts but few distinguished Italian members since the French and Belgian elements in it have become more and more predominant. Father Curci, indeed, was and is considered the first writer, as well as the first preacher, of the Italian clergy since the days of Rosmini and Gioberti, and from the beginning made a stand against these two lights of the Italian Church. It was Father Curci

* This name suffered a misprint in our last issue.

who founded the *Civiltà Cattolica*, especially directed against the liberal theories of Abbe Gioberti, and the *Civiltà* has ever remained, not only faithful to the Holy See, but its most considered organ in Italy. As for the editor himself, he was known to be the personal favorite of Pio Nono, who was very proud of the *rara avis* of an Italian priest learned, zealous, and clever, when his brethren and countrymen are almost without exception ignorant, indifferent, and easy-going. How, then—

"Comment en un plomb vil l'or pur s'est-il changé?"

F. Curci is, after all, an Italian, and, as he himself eloquently says in his letter to the Pope, the strongest feeling in every Italian breast is patriotism, and there is no Italian priest placed between his country and the Church represented by foreigners, who would not abide by his country. Even Pio Nono himself, so entirely in the hands of the foreign Jesuits since Gaeta, and particularly since the Vatican Council, has still from time to time his *quarantottate*—patriotic and liberal inspirations as in 1848—which are carefully watched and not a little dreaded by his French and Belgian guardians. On the other hand, the Italian priest can never forget, nor even the Italian layman and freethinker, that the Roman Church is the work of his people, the greatest, nay, I was about to say, the *only* durable creation of Italy's political genius, and the mainspring of this marvellous machine is actually in the hands of the *oltramontani*. Finally, F. Curci is essentially Italian in his shrewdness and in his practical sense. The modern Church with its consistency *usque ad absurdum* is the work of French logic, not of Italian politics; J. de Maistre and Bonald, Lammenais and Montalembert conceived the idea of it, little awake to what length it would lead them under the lead of the Society of Jesus, so quick and clever at appropriating the currents of the times and turning them to the profit of their ideal—the rule of Catholicism and its infallible authority over states and consciences. It was this shrewdness and practical sense which told F. Curci that this time the temporal power of the Pope was abolished for good, and that no miracle could restore it. So was it not better to give it up at once, and to try whether the domain of the Church might not fare better by making use of the weapons of the modern state, as it is doing with so much success in France and Belgium? I am convinced that at the bottom of their hearts his brethren of the Society of Jesus share his opinion, but there is a personal question in all this which complicates matters. The foreign Jesuits have got hold of the government of the Church by getting hold of the Pope, and the Pope, as everybody knows, has no weaker side than vanity. He is not content to have been proclaimed God Almighty and infallible, he wants also to remain a prince, to have his functionaries and his soldiers, his vessels and his ambassadors. It is this foible which the foreign Jesuits flatter by maintaining in their papers and sermons the necessity of the temporal power; and besides, the Italian priests of the higher order, anxious to retain an influence over the Pope which they feel to be on the wane, vie with them in this flattery, whilst the main body of the Italian clergy have long since given up all thoughts of the temporal power and would be glad to see the present state of Italy recognized and accepted by the Church.

This F. Curci is well aware of, and it is his knowledge of it which makes him so bold. He does not advocate any reform of the Catholic religion—not he. There is no stancher adherent to all the dogmas of Catholicism, infallibility included, than he. Neither does he attempt any reform of the clergy. He knows too well that that would be useless—*sint ut sunt, aut non sint*. But he wishes to procure for the clergy as it is the government of Italy, as the Belgian Catholics have procured for their clergy the government of Belgium. Now, by what means did they succeed in their campaign? Was it not by recognizing modern legislation, even that most odious piece of it—civil marriage? Liberty of the press, liberty of religion, liberty of instruction, liberty of association, liberty of meeting, judiciously used, would give back to Catholicism all the ground it has lost within the last hundred years or more. F. Curci set to work at once. As early as 1871 he spoke to the Pope of his intentions and views, and Pio Nono then approved them, as they seemed not yet to imply a renunciation of the temporal power. But F. Curci's first attempt to found a Catholic university at Florence failed, on account of the clamorous protestations of the Liberals, who still keep all the positions. This failure did not, however, discourage the zealous priest. He continued preaching everywhere, in Florence and in Milan, in Rome and in Naples; and everywhere the churches were crammed when his voice was to be heard. At the same time he pursued his work in the *Civiltà Cattolica*, and published his commentary on the four Gospels, with an introduction (*la Ragione dell' Opera*) in which he already clearly hinted at the necessity of recognizing the kingdom and of the clergy taking part in the elections. Pio Nono was not quite satisfied. Still, he partly acquiesced, and made an important concession. The principle of *nè elettori nè eletti* (neither electors nor elected) should no longer be applied to the communal and provincial (or administrative) elections. As was easy to foresee, great success attended this experiment, and a man of the importance, both in society and church, of the late Cardinal Riario Sforza, Archbishop of Naples, openly advocated the participation of the clergy in the political elections. F. Curci went still further. In private interviews and loudly in a clerical drawing-room at Milan, where he was preaching during Lent with great success, he spoke of a formal reconciliation with the kingdom, and the head of the clerical party in Milan thought this important enough to go to Rome and ask the Holy Father's opinion. This was too much for Pio Nono. When his favorite appeared the next time at the Vatican, he found the doors shut. Vainly did he endeavor to penetrate to the Holy Father. Pio Nono—or his counsellors—remained inexorable.

So F. Curci took to writing down a justification, and at the same time a whole plan of conduct for the Curia, consisting in a formal renunciation of the temporal power, a reconciliation with Victor Emanuel, a species of 16th May, together with the dismissal of the House of Deputies, the proclamation of universal suffrage, the appointment of pious prefects and sub-prefects, and general elections. The Pope was indignant, wrote with his own pencil on the margin, "È un' impertinenza," and sent the piece to the general of the Jesuits, F. Beckx, then, as now, at Fiesole, near Florence, where he possesses a beautiful and celebrated villa. F. Curci, when summoned by his superior to retract what he had written, refused the haughty Belgian point blank, as he had even refused his beloved Pio Nono. Nay, the letter addressed by him to the Pope, and which contained his plan of reconciliation, found its way, nobody knew how, to the *Rivista Europea*, a liberal review in possession of Signor Pancrazj, the editor of the *Gazzetta d'Italia*. The thing, however, strange to say, passed unnoticed, at least by the public (engrossed as ever in its sterile party quarrels), if not by the clergy, in whose centre it became matter of very lively discussion. This was last March. In July this discussion became so animated that something of it penetrated at last to the public abroad. The general of the Jesuits then insisted upon a formal retractation, which F. Curci would not consent to give. All he would do was to write a final chapter to a book of his just in course of print—a commentary upon the book of Tobias—in which chapter he expressed his regret at having offended the Holy Father and appeared disobedient, declaring at the same time that he would never touch upon the subject again without special permission, but maintaining that his opinions were not heretical, nor in a general way hostile to the Church, and invoking as a testimony the judgment of the Dominicans, his secret allies and the well-known rivals of the Jesuits. Thereupon nothing remained but to ask the intrepid old man, who had been a member of the Society of Jesus for more than half a century, to tender his resignation, which he did, leaving Rome at once for Florence, where he is now, more than ever determined to continue the struggle, and more convinced than ever that his view is the right one.

To all unprejudiced minds, and in the Liberal party even more than among the Catholics, there is no doubt—and this accounts for the curious terror of the Liberals—that even without recurring to universal suffrage, which would give a certain victory to the Catholics in the kingdom if only the actual Catholic electors consented to descend into the electoral arena, they would have a fair chance of success. Nor must it be forgotten that half of the electors always keep aloof; that the aristocracy as well as the peasantry, and part of the wealthier bourgeoisie, are Catholics at bottom, and if their religion were no longer in conflict with their patriotism, which is stronger, would send Catholic Deputies to the House. Already now even the stanchest Liberals send their sons to ecclesiastical instead of governmental schools, even where Government has sent its choicest teachers, as, for instance, here in Florence. The Catholic papers, such as the *Unità Cattolica*, the *Osservatore*, the *Voce della Verità*, the *Armonia* (which has always favored the ideas now urged by F. Curci), count double the number of readers of the Liberal papers. The Catholic Congresses are always well frequented. Above all, the Liberal party, united for a moment in 1859 and 1860, is now more than ever divided into factions, sects, and coteries without number. There is in reality no difference, either in political theories or in the way of looking at general interests, between the Right and Left, the Liberals and the Progressists; all is personal, and unfortunately for a good while provincial animosity. Up to this time the Parliament has not represented the nation.

The appearance of fifty clericals in Monte Citorio would suffice, perhaps, to silence all these intestine quarrels, and make one strong party again of all the friends of intellectual liberty. It is, therefore, highly desirable, even at the risk of a transitory victory of the clerical party, that the Catholics should come out of their corner and take part in the political life of the country, as Father Curci advises, and I have no doubt it will be the case as soon as Pio Nono closes his eyes. And with it truth will again come into the political state of Italy, in which all is artificial; the present moral stagnation and indolence will cease, and sound life circulate again in the body politic; a real conservative party will serve as a cement to the Liberal party, and a struggle will begin worth fighting, instead of the miserable squabbles we have witnessed for so long. It would be a struggle, not for the independence and existence of the kingdom of Italy, for which the Liberals are so unnecessarily afraid, and which, in my eyes, is as secure as that of any nation in Europe, but for progress *versus* stagnation, for liberty against authority, for intellectual freedom against intellectual slavery; a struggle in which there is no doubt the Liberals would have the best of it if they proved worthy of victory.

Correspondence.

DOLLARS AND DOLLARS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A subscriber for a number of years past, I heartily approve of the course adopted by the *Nation* in reference to the restoration of an honest currency. While I have no doubt that many of the advocates of a cheap currency are dishonest, others are undoubtedly honest fools, believing that a piece of paper or silver stamped in certain ways makes a *dollar*, irrespective of its real value.

In illustration, I desire to bring to your notice the following case, which I heard of from the counsel engaged. Just before the breaking out of the war he was employed by an Irishman who had accumulated $2,000 (in gold), and had it hidden in the house, to purchase said house from the owner (the owner was a man I well know, and who is highly distinguished for his professional attainments). The price asked was $2,200. Nothing less would be taken; the tenant would give no more than his $2,000, and the matter fell through. The war came, paper was issued, gold went up, or paper dollars went down, and a few years after the offer to purchase was renewed. The owner said: "My price is still $2,200." The tenant sold $1,000 of his gold at $2 20, bought the house, and had half of his gold left.

This, which is a true story, illustrates the muddle that even wise men (in other things) can get into on the question of what constitutes a dollar.—Truly yours, C. D. Ritchie.

241 North Twelfth Street, Philadelphia, Nov. 23, 1877.

WESTERN INVESTMENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We have read with much interest the article in your issue of 8th inst. on "Western Investments," and do not doubt but that you are doing investors a timely service in calling attention to the manner in which the business of lending Eastern money is conducted in the West.

We are engaged in that business in this State, and are, we think, familiar with the manner in which it is transacted by all the principal loan agencies here, and our knowledge of the business and the manner in which it is done warrants us, we think, in taking exceptions to your statement that no business interest in the country is so recklessly managed at present as that of lending Eastern money in the West.

This statement does great injustice to the majority of Western loan agents, and should be modified and made to apply only in exceptional cases, and perhaps in certain localities.

A large part of the money loaned in this State is loaned by insurance and investment companies that have had an extended experience, and have learned from their experience the best and safest way of investing their money. Such companies do not, however, at long intervals send out an examiner to view their loans, but require the personal inspection of each piece of property offered as security, by their agents or some competent, reliable, or disinterested person, before the loan is made.

Those companies that do not insist upon a careful examination of the land do well to have their loans inspected by an examiner, but they certainly do not deserve to be characterized as the most cautious companies doing the business.

No exception can be taken to the conclusion you reach that the business should be done by men of established character and skill whose interest is identical with that of the lender. This is the case, we think, with most of the principal agencies in this State. The reputation and success of the loan-agent depends upon the fidelity and ability with which he serves investors, and if he does not fully realize this fact and act upon it, he will not to any extent be able to secure funds for investment.

The manner in which the agent should receive his compensation is simply a matter of business detail, and if the companies that invest largely do not pay their agents salaries, but instead allow them to charge the borrowers a commission, it is because they can obtain, or think they can, at least, the same services at less expense to them. The commissions paid agents in this State are not excessive, and will not more than fairly compensate them for their services, and we believe that the business could not be done at less expense than it now is if done by salaried officers or employees.

The business has become one of such magnitude that too much light cannot be thrown upon the way in which it is conducted, and any just criticism that will lead to the adoption of better methods of doing the business will at the present time serve a good purpose. The interests of the parties most concerned, and the active competition for business that you speak of, may be relied upon to correct most of the abuses that have prevailed and may now to some extent prevail.

Very truly yours, Underwood & Clark.

Muscatine, Iowa, November 17, 1877.

PAUPERS AND VOTERS IN CAMBRIDGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your paper of last week there was a statement made in reference to the conduct of municipal affairs in Cambridge which, with your approval, I should be glad to amplify and explain, for the sake of presenting to your readers an example of the progress made in Massachusetts in attempting to bring about an honest execution of one of the leading provisions of her Constitution and law concerning citizenship—namely, that "every male citizen of twenty-one years of age and upwards (*excepting paupers* and persons under guardianship . . .) shall have a right to vote."

Speaking of Mr. Gamaliel Bradford, after an allusion to Boston, you say:

"But something has just occurred in his own city, Cambridge, which may fairly be considered the utmost limit which the degradation of municipal government has yet reached anywhere." "The system of outdoor relief, which is lodged, in the New England fashion, in the discretion of the Overseer of the Poor, has there been pushed to an extraordinary length during the past year or two, and made the more demoralizing by being given in the form of orders on provision-dealers. At the revision of the voting-lists in the present year the question came up before the city Board of Aldermen whether the names of 588 persons who had received this relief during the past year should be retained or struck off. Only 34 were so struck off, and these on the ground that they had been relieved a good deal; the other 554 were retained as being only slight paupers, and will this year vote away in taxes the property of those who have lived on their own earnings and savings. *The principle seems, therefore, likely to be established that a man is not a pauper for political purposes if he does not draw on the public purse too often.*"

The above statement is correct in its conclusions, although some of its sentences are inaccurate in unimportant particulars.

The present Board of Overseers of the Poor of Cambridge was chosen this year by the City Council instead of by popular vote as heretofore—this in accordance with the provisions of a statute passed by the last legislature. It was organized in May last, and by adopting the system of sending visiting-agents to the applicants for aid, and thus investigating cases before aid was given, it has made Cambridge more just in almsgiving, and has for the last five months reduced the sums of money expended each month for outdoor relief to 85 per cent. at least less than in the corresponding months of last year, besides sending away from the city almshouse more than a hundred inmates who had lived at the expense of Cambridge, instead of the Commonwealth or some other city or town where they had settlements. This is one of many examples of the efficiency of the system of visiting which is so often discussed, and which is adopted every day in place of the old and reckless way of giving. The public authorities, with their clumsy machinery, need and ask for united action with all almsgivers, public and private, associated and individual, in order to reduce outdoor relief to a minimum, and, by concentrating the work, to ensure impartiality and economy, encourage thrift, and keep accurate

biography of the pauper, so far as he is known as an almstaker, for various useful purposes.

One purpose of the record kept by the poor-boards should be to give to the officers who qualify voters (as boards of aldermen, boards of selectmen, etc.) conclusive evidence—subject, of course, to proper rights of appeal in exceptional cases—of the disqualification of the pauper, which they should be compelled to recognize ; and at this point I can best describe the controversy which I wish to emphasize.

Last winter in the Massachusetts legislature an attempt was made to compel these officers to obey the Constitution and law of the commonwealth by providing by statute that the qualifier of voters should take cognizance of this record, and disqualify any one who had *received aid at any time during a definite period prior to the day of qualification.* The lawyers of the legislature, even those who were not demagogues, objected because the Supreme Court had not decided the question, "Once a pauper, how long a pauper?" when the question of suffrage is to be considered, but had only defined the word "pauper" in cases raised to determine which of two towns or cities should pay for the support of a pauper, although in these cases very slight pauperism made a person a ward of the public so as to break up a partially-acquired settlement and destroy the effect of living a year or more without asking alms.

When the question before us was treated by the legislature no one persistently took ground advanced enough to say that for the protection of the suffrage, as a question of public policy, in order to support the Constitution and the law, it is necessary to make a definite limitation of time for disqualification, just as in cases of removal from place to place, or in cases where the preliminaries have not been fulfilled, such as assessment and payment of tax within two years, etc. The lawyers maintained that the Supreme Court must decide whether a man who has not been aided for a fortnight or four months, but may be the day after voting, is a pauper or a voter. With them, in opposition to the proposition above stated, were the "poor man's friends," the believers in "age-of-puberty suffrage," stating cases, *e.g.:* Suppose A. asks $1 worth of public assistance on Monday, and Tuesday he inherits $100,000 ; is he a pauper the next month? But no one of them stated a case of hardship for the Commonwealth, or gross violation of law, although such cases perhaps were considered "too numerous to mention." When these unjustly kind-hearted legislators had arisen in their strength, the projectors of our cause, to compromise the matter, presented a bill which provided that the qualifying officers should take notice of the record of the poor-boards, and that this record should be *primâ-facie* evidence of pauperism ; but even this feeble measure (which would allow a man to borrow $2 when on the way to qualify, and swear that the *primâ-facie* case against him was false, and had been since yesterday) was bandied about and pocketed.

Hence the attempt to make Cambridge aldermen act manfully when considering a new and accurate record of a progressive and intelligent poor-board failed, and they actually disqualified but two men; the names of paupers already remaining on the voting-lists being allowed to remain. Your statement was inaccurate in stating that 554 names were RETAINED as slight paupers. 588 was the number of names of males *reported as paupers,* as the laws of Massachusetts respecting pauperism require; but a considerable number of these had been dropped from voting-lists for non-payment of taxes before the aldermen took up the matter.

Of course, the desire of men of my thinking who discuss this question is (besides aiding in the honest execution of the existing law) to protect the suffrage from the corrupt practice which prevails in Massachusetts of paying the pauper's poll-tax ($2), and thus allowing him to qualify, although the poor-board records may show that he is under the guardianship of the city or town where he votes.

In order to show how deep and earnest our legislature of last year was about paupers and reform in charities administration, I would refer you to the Resolves of 1877, chapter lx., which provides that three men, *without compensation* (that is, in their stray moments), shall, between May 4, 1877, and Dec. 20, 1877, enquire into the expediency of revising the system of administration of the public charities and reformatory institutions of the Commonwealth, and all the existing statutes in regard to *pauperism, crime, insanity* (why they did not add international treaties of peace, bimetallic unions, and other simple topics of general interest, I know not), with a view to secure greater simplicity, economy, and efficiency in said administration." At last accounts, the clerk appointed to write for these three omniscient men had, in a preliminary investigation, found 1,000 statutes on some of the above subjects, and the sanitarians, philanthropists, reformers, codifiers, and others are all ready to fire away for months. Though young, I think I am older than a legislature that expects to find in less than eight months a plan for the radical reform of a commonwealth.

Yours, respectfully,

ARCHIBALD M. HOWE.

CAMBRIDGE, Nov. 12, 1877.

Notes.

PORTER & COATES, publishers of 'Dolly,' a story by the author of 'That Lass o' Lowrie's,' explain in a card to the reading public the circumstances by which they acquired the copyright of this work, which first appeared in Deacon & Peterson's magazine. Their right seems incontestable. 'Dolly' was written in 1872.——A. A. Smith & Co., Salem, Mass., announce for immediate publication 'Old Naumkeag,' by C. H. Webber and W. S. Nevins.——Mr. Charles Henry Hart, 204 South Fifth Street, Philadelphia, has in course of preparation a 'Life of Robert Morris, with a History of the Finances of the American Revolution,' in two volumes octavo. He solicits the loan of documents pertaining to the subject of his work, and especially of letters written to and by Robert Morris during the Revolution and the subsequent decades.——A new monthly magazine, *Sunday Afternoon,* will be published in January by Edward F. Merriam, Springfield, Mass., under the editorial charge of the Rev. Washington Gladden.——A capital likeness of Miss Alcott, finely engraved, is given in the December number of *St. Nicholas,* with a sketch of her life by Mr. F. B. Sanborn. Noticeable also in this number is its new cover, designed by Walter Crane, and worthy of that artist's pretty fancy, though the boy and girl at St. Nicholas's knees and the young cricketer who typifies "Sport" betray their transatlantic origin. ——In No. 44 of the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes,* we observe a very just complaint on the part of the editor that the translators of Mr. Henry James, jr.'s 'The American' for the Auerbach (Stuttgart) series took the liberty of altering the conclusion to suit themselves. Grunow's Leipzig edition, on the other hand, translated by Moritz Busch, is faithful to the original.——Paul Akers's heroic bust of Milton, after many years' neglect, has been purchased by alumni of Colby University, Waterville, Maine, and now adorns the college library. It is this bust that Hawthorne praises so highly in his 'Marble Faun,' where Akers figures as Kenyon.——The November number of the *Geographical Magazine* contains a striking shaded map, showing the distribution of persons relieved in the famine districts of Southern India.——The London *Athenæum* states that the new buildings at Girton College are filled, and that more than sixty young women are also pursuing their work under the care of the Cambridge Association at Newnham Hall, which has been enlarged, and at a new house called Norwich House.——B. Westermann & Co. send us the first *livraison* (out of 40 contemplated) of a 'Dictionnaire Numismatique' by a devoted collector, Alexander Boutkowski. This work confines itself to Imperial Roman and Greek Colonial medals, and will surpass in completeness anything that has ever appeared. It is intended to be a practical guide to collectors, and will give the estimated value of each piece according to the latest sales and best judges. From the same house we have also received the second edition of Dr. J. Stilling's 'Examination of the Sense of Color of Railway Employés and Pilots.' This brochure furnishes a simple and apparently infallible test for red-green blindness, and deserves the attention of all railway and naval officials. Eight colored plates, containing letters composed of red squares on a complementary ground, accompany the text, which is in German and English (or rather German-English, for it is unnecessarily obscure, even to the length of letting the letter *S* stand for *sharpsightedness*). This test might usefully be employed in domestic circles, as the early knowledge of color-blindness may be of great importance to the individual.——The eighth and concluding volume of the 'Lettres, Instructions Diplomatiques, et Papiers d'État du Cardinal de Richelieu,' published by the French Government, has just appeared. The first volume was ready for the press in 1848, but in consequence of the Revolution the publication was delayed till 1853. The editor, the late M. Avenel, librarian of the Bibliothèque Sainte Geneviève, has accompanied the text with numerous historical and biographical notes. To the student of the political history of the first half of the seventeenth century it will prove a work of the very highest value. It forms a part of the historical series of 'Collection de Documents Inédits sur l'Histoire de France,' now in course of publication.

—A posthumous paper of the late Robert Dale Owen appears in *Scribner's* for December. It describes "Western People and Politicians Forty Years Ago," at which time (1834) Mr. Owen was first chosen a

member of the Indiana legislature. His account of his constituents is highly flattering, and for convenience' sake he reproduces an estimate of them which he delivered in Congress in 1846, and in which he finds nothing to change. "I have heard," he then said, "in many a backwoods cabin, lighted only by the blazing log-heap, arguments on government, views of national policy, judgments of men and things, that for sound sense and practical shrewdness would not disgrace any legislative body upon earth." Mr. Owen does not add that "the lowliest cabin of our frontier West" had the same opinion of its arguments that he had, and that it has ever held in great contempt any light on the leading questions of the day that was not derived from a blazing log-heap. Mr. Owen thinks he "perceived among the larger and better portion of these people conservative elements which are wont to be overlooked by eminent statesmen in transatlantic monarchies." Chief among these he mentions "the law-abiding spirit which I found prevailing among the agricultural masses, resting on a solid foundation too. They had the pride of ownership in their country's institutions; it was *our* laws, *our* Constitution. The legal provisions which protect property and order were felt to have been freely adopted, not forced upon them. . . . Then, too, most of them, if only in a small way, were land-owners—a situation tending greatly to allay the dangerous jealousy between labor and capital. . . . Such a class of men, unlettered and not given to suspicion, may, for the time, be stirred by demagogical sophistry, or misled by falsehood as to facts, but they can be steadied and guided in the end by a logical appeal to reason and common sense." These sentences, penned early this year, when the log-cabin doctrines of greenback and silver inflation and repudiation, and the Granger assaults on railroad capital, had fully shown the conservative nature of the agricultural masses, have the sound of caricature; while the rampant Communism of Ohio, with Ewing and Matthews and West at its head, furnishes its own comment on Mr. Owen's conclusion that "we may securely fall back on the inhabitants of our rural districts as far more efficient antagonists of anarchy than any military force which despots ever brought together."

—The last number of the *North American* has probably attracted more public attention then any that has appeared since the number which contained Mr. C. F. Adams, jr.'s "Chapter of Erie." This is to be explained chiefly by the *symposium* on Resumption, in which arguments by Messrs. D. A. Wells, Kelley, Ewing, and others are reviewed by Secretary Sherman, who also gives an opinion of his own on the subject. Mr. Wells's argument is on a legal point which he is hardly qualified to do thorough justice to. He contends that, inasmuch as Congress by the Act of 1875 promised resumption in 1879, the promise runs with the legal-tender notes, and makes them payable on a day certain, after which he thinks they will carry interest. In other words, he believes the act to be to all intents and purposes a funding act, converting the greenback currency into an interest-bearing negotiable debt. This would undoubtedly be the case if the legal-tender notes were the issue of a private firm; but, to judge by their past decisions, the courts would find no difficulty in holding a repeal of the Resumption Act valid. It is not easy either to see how the question could get into court in such a way as to compel the Government to construe the law on the subject in the manner proposed. There could not be a better illustration of the way in which a feeble or partisan administration of justice reacts upon the morality of a people than is offered by the history of the legal-tender controversy since the war. The bulwark which protected the national faith was the Supreme Court, and it is not too much to say that since the reversal of its decision in the legal-tender cases by what the public will always regard as a packed court, popular confidence in the judicial protection of the standard of values has almost disappeared, and it is taken for granted that no interference with values, however arbitrary, and no breach of faith with the national creditor, however outrageous, can be prevented in the judicial forum. The papers of the other symposiasts do not contain much that is new, though to the jaded student of economic truth, whose eyesight has been blinded over the miserable books of Adam Smith, Ricardo, and Mill, there is always something fresh and interesting in the economical speculations of Messrs. Ewing and Kelley. To the educated public, it should be remembered, a paper-money economist is as much a curiosity as a plesiosaurus disporting himself on the public highway would be to the average citizen. In Europe no specimens of this genus are extant, and the public certainly owes a debt of gratitude to the *North American* for the two remarkably fine specimens exhibited in the present number.

—Mr. Charles Gayarré, of Louisiana, has an article on the Southern question, which, more from its tone than from its matter, has exasperated a good many people at the North. The question which Mr. Gayarré discusses is not what was called the Southern question last year—*i.e.*, the necessity of "troops"—but the question of the future: the relations of the two races, black and white. The article points to virtual though not legal disfranchisement as the solution, and has a good deal to say about the true "aristocracy" produced in the South under the old régime, and the aristocracy of the spurious sort produced in the commercial North. Mr. Gayarré admits that a plantation aristocracy based on negro slavery, but recognizing perfect equality socially among all whites high and low, ignorant and educated, rich and poor, and compelled to recognize it politically, is not exactly what is ordinarily meant by an aristocracy, though he is unquestionably right in the belief that the old Southern life tended to produce many more of the characteristics of an aristocracy than Northern life ever did. But, we are tempted to ask, when we have finished his article, What does all this talk about democrat and aristocrat and South and North result in? Are we a whit nearer a forecast of the future of the late slave States than we were? Nothing save time and the gradual development of a condition of society adapted to the new relations of the two races can accomplish anything, and all attempts at prediction on the subject seem idle. Who could have possibly predicted at the close of the war that the result of reconstruction would be the enfranchisement of the negro, followed by the complete establishment of the Democratic party throughout the South? Yet we see now that it was the most natural and inevitable thing in the world. The development of commerce and manufactures at the South, now beginning, must have an important effect in diminishing the importance of the old agricultural interest, while the opening of the vast region of Texas to settlement under conditions absolutely novel in character should not be lost sight of. But neither do we wish to lift up our voices in prophecy. General McClellan goes on with his papers on the Eastern war, which are carefully written, and are valuable to students of the Eastern campaigns. His prediction of the possibilities of the fall of Kars has been already verified. Mr. D. A. Wells, too, has a valuable article on the navigation laws, which contains a great deal of information on the subject of a sort likely to be useful to Congressmen engaged in the performance of that most painful political duty, "reading up" with a view to the publication and distribution of a "speech." We must, by the way, enter our respectful protest against the appearance in the *Review* of any more articles by Mr. Gilbert Haven on what he calls "America in Africa," or in fact on any subject. Mr. Haven's interest in the African is praiseworthy, but he betrays such a lamentable deficiency of humor in the suggestion that Liberia ought to be annexed to the United States that we cannot maintain silence under it. A sense of humor is an absolute necessity to any one who undertakes the discussion of such serious themes as those which Mr. Haven usually treats. The number, as a whole, is a very good one. The editor has, we are confident, made a wise move in bringing the *Review* to New York. Admirable as the mental and moral atmosphere of New England is in many respects, Boston as a literary centre is not in its heyday.

—The *Evening Post* has aggravated its last "journalism" in a manner which makes its moral condition more and more puzzling. The *Nation* has called attention to the fact that it predicted in 1876, for electioneering purposes, that if Tilden was elected no more of the four per cent. bonds could be sold abroad. It now calls on us "to produce from its files these words which we pretend to quote." Here the sinfulness of its nature is curiously brought out. The *Nation* did not "pretend to quote." It simply produced the substance of the prediction, which the wicked little prophet does not deny having made, but tries to distract attention from. We will now show from its files that in 1876, when prophesying about the Democratic party and the public credit, it had not, as it now pretends, the Bland Silver Bill in its eye at all, but the four and a half per cent. bonds—not the four per cent., as we carelessly said. In its issue of October 19, 1876, a fortnight before election, it printed a leaded telegram from its Washington correspondent alleging that "private letters from London announced that the Syndicate will not make any further subscription to the four and a half per centum loan, or authorize another call of five-twenty bonds, until it is definitely known whether Hayes or Tilden is to be the next President," and that "no more bonds would be taken" till it was seen whether the Democrats would issue more paper, pay disloyal claims, or wipe out the Resumption Act; and that "Treasury officers did not believe the Syndicate would subscribe another dollar of the four and a half per centum bonds if the Democratic party carried the election in November." To all of this Mr. Bel-

mont, a leading member of the Syndicate, gave, on the 20th, an emphatic denial. He even went so far as to say, and we believe truly, that "the letter" spoken of by the little prophet had no existence whatever. The prophet on the same day declared, however, that if his correspondent's assertions turned out to be "incorrect" he "would at once correct them," but warned Mr. Belmont that "he ought not to be too sensitive if the fact that the Democratic party includes most of the soft-money men should cause European capitalists to wait a little before they risked their money in an uncertain venture." On the 21st he returned to the subject, but far from "correcting" the story about the Syndicate and the bonds, wrote an article on Mr. Belmont, in which he affirmed that he (Belmont) *knew* that "if the schemes of the faction which controls the Democratic party should be carried out, the credit of the country would be *immediately*, if not irreparably, injured," and then pointed out that in view of the Democratic party platform touching the Resumption Act, and the nomination of a President and Vice-President pledged to carry it out, European bond-buyers might "well hesitate to invest their money in American securities." On this the wicked little fellow went into the election, and now when it has been proved that American securities were not affected by the belief that Tilden was elected, and when both parties have gone into the anti-resumption movement, and the Republican West has gone crazy over silver, he says that what he had in his mind when acting as "predictor" in 1876 was the Democratic Bland Silver Bill. "Correction" of any kind he never made, and probably will never make—his heart is too hard. But "our duty increases with the peril," as Marshal MacMahon says. We will see that he does no mischief.

—The First Report of the Record Commissioners of Boston, which appeared in print early this year, was so well received that in April a second report was authorized, and has now been published uniform with the preceding. It is a transcript of the two earliest volumes of the records of the town of Boston, viz., vol. i. of the Records proper, containing for the period 1634–1660 not only the acts of the town at each "Generall Meeting upon Publique notice," but also the doings of the Selectmen or "chosen men"; and the Book of Possessions, the compilation of which Mr. Whitmore assigns, on grounds that seem unassailable, to the summer of 1652, and which shows the distribution of lands in fee simple in Boston at that date—the foundation of many titles where deeds were wanting. As the Commissioners point out, the political interest of this volume lies in the light which it sheds upon town government in the early days of the colony, and the extent of the powers exercised by the authorities. The index of subjects reveals this at a glance. The fear of a charge to the town from "sojourners, inmates, hyred servants, journeymen, or other persons that come for help in physick or chyrurgery," was early manifested. The selling of houses to "straingers" "without the consent of the appointed Allotters"; the "Letting a Forriner have a shop and entertainment in his house without the Consent of the Selectmen"; the "intertaining two Irish women contrary to an order of the towne," were so many occasions of fine or warning "to quitt his house of them forthwith att his perill." In 1640 we find a neglected axiom of municipal government in the entry: "John Palmer, Carpenter, now dwelling here, is to be allowed an Inhabitant, if he can gett an house, or land to sett an house upon (it being not proper to allowe a man an Inhabitant Without habitation)." As early as 1636 a regulation was made "for the avoyding of disorderly building to the inconvenience of streets and laynes." In 1638, "by experience itt is found that the liberty of making cellar-doores into the streetes (though acomodable to the owners) proove very disadvantagious to passengers in their travell to and fro," and the nuisance is ordered abated. The slaughter-house nuisance was first denounced in 1642, in the case of Robt. Nash, Butcher, who was ordered with all speed to "remoove the Stinking garbage out of his yard, nere the street, and provide some other remote place for slaughter of Beasts"; and he was again ordered in 1647 to "remove that anoyance on penaltye of 19*s.* 6*d.* for evry defect iustly complayned of"—a fine subsequently incurred in 1649 "for his leavynge his slaughter house with noyesome smells, to the offence of the Towne." The town treasury profited to the extent of 10*s.* (1651), of 5*s.* after 1654, by any chimney "fired soe as to Flame out att the topp." In 1653 "every howseholder" had to provide himself with a ladder reaching to the ridge of the house, and "a pole of about 12 foot long, with a good large swob at the end of it, to rech the rofe of his house to quench fire in case of such danger." "Ingins to Carry water in Case of fire" are first proposed in 1654. The carrying of fire from one house to another "in open fire-pans or brands ends" is prohibited in 1653.

—Vital statistics began to be cared for in 1642, when it was ordered "that parents shall give in a note of the names of their children, and the time of their birth, unto the Clarke of the writs," and "he that hath the care of the burying place shall give notice unto the sayd Clark of the names of such as are buryed." In 1656, "if any young person or others bee found without either meeting house, idling or playing during the time of publick exercise on the Lord's day, itt is ordered that the constables or others appointed for that end shall take hold of them and bring them before authority." The practice of putting forth "Apprentices to severall manufactures and sciences but for 3 or 4 yeares time, contrary to the Customs of all well governed places, whence they are uncapable of being Artists in their trades," is denounced in 1660, and seven years made the regular term of service, and twenty-one the least age for opening a shop or "occupying any manufacture or science." An attempt in 1657 to suppress foot-ball altogether "in any of the streets, Lanes, or Inclosures of this town," had to be modified in 1660 so as to permit the game in enclosures with the owners' consent. Subsidies to native industry began in 1643 with granting "unto Mr. John Winthrop, junr., and his partners, and their heyres and assignes for ever, three thousand acres of the common land at Braintry, for the encouragement of an iron worke, to be set up about Monotocot River." Usury at 8 per cent. occurs (in connection with a characteristic instance of public spirit) in 1655, when "itt is ordered that the ten pounds left by legacy to the use of the schoole of Boston by mis. Hudson, deceased, shall bee lett to Capt. James Olliver for sixteen shillings per annum, so long as hee pleases to improve itt, the which he is to pay in wheate, pease and Indian to the Townes Treasurer every first of the 1 mo., beginning in March 54–55, and upon his delivery of the principall to the townes Treasurer, itt shall bee paid in corne as aforementioned." Already in 1652 "att a towne meetting one publik notice, Mr. Jno. Coggan, Mr. Jno. Newget, and Mr. Samll. Cole wear Chosen for to receive the severall Sums of money which any in this Towne will underwrit towards the mayntenance of the president and fellowes or pore Scollers of Hervert Colledge." But we must refrain from further extracts, and conclude with pointing out an error on pp. 166, 198, where *Edward* Jacklin is misprinted for *Edmund*, as is manifest from page 79 of the Book of Possessions itself.

—It was an evil day for the peace of English savants when Dr. William B. Carpenter turned physicist from physiologist. His modesty, sweet temper, tolerance, fairness to opponents, and distaste for appearing in print have produced an effect the very opposite of what might have been expected. About his name have clustered some of the most violent personalities of the past ten years of British science, and one unfamiliar with his real character might have supposed him the cause of all this discomfort, and an arrogant and acrid kind of pope. To begin with, the natural affection of a scientist for his pet theory was not allowed Dr. Carpenter in regard to the circulation of ocean currents, but he must be plunged into a controversy from which we do not know that he has even yet emerged. Again, for a long time Mr. William Crookes, the inventor of certain mechanical tests of the spiritualistic phenomena, and more recently of the little machine rotating *in vacuo* under sunlight called the radiometer, has been an impediment in Dr. Carpenter's path, and would appear to be at this moment engaged with Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace and Prof. G. Carey Foster in an unworthy effort to trip the good doctor up. The occasion of this last conspiracy was an innocent endeavor on the latter's part to celebrate Mr. Crookes's own invention in an article in the April number of the *Nineteenth Century*, called "The Radiometer and its Lessons." Mr. Crookes, so far from being grateful for this service, declared in the July number that the so-called lessons were nothing less than gratuitous misrepresentations of himself and his investigations; and Prof. Foster, as president of Section A, at the Plymouth meeting of the British Association, publicly reproached Dr. Carpenter with an "unmistakable tendency, either intentionally or unintentionally, to depreciate Mr. Crookes's merits"—a remark subsequently reported in *Nature* as having "elicited great applause." The innocent object of this persecution naturally resorted in his own justification to the columns of that paper, and shows a calm front in the number for October 25; but inadvertently, in another communication in the same issue, he treads on Mr. Wallace's toes, and in the succeeding issue has the malevolent trio of Foster, Crookes, and Wallace (let alone an anonymous postal-card defamer, who impudently signs himself "One who was at Plymouth," and presumably joined in the hearty applause, and whom Dr. Carpenter cannot refrain from pillorying) all down upon him. They accuse him, in effect, of disparaging the scientific work of men like Messrs. Crookes and Wallace from his hatred of them for differing with him on the subject of spiritualism, and not, like him, denying the reality of the phenomena and denouncing them as hallucinations or frauds. Not to catch them in un-

scientific acts or attitudes would be fatal to his *à priori* belief that they cannot escape the consequences of their views on spiritualism; but *à priori* beliefs are themselves unscientific, and still more so is the invention of facts by which to justify them. Is it possible that excessive zeal against Spiritualists has begotten in Dr. Carpenter the duality he is fond of seeing in Mr. Crookes; and that as he has invested him, in chemical language, with "two allotropic personalities, Ortho-Crookes and Pseudo-Crookes," so the public discerns in him an Ortho-Carpenter and a Pseudo-Carpenter? Such a discovery would, we fear, sour his meek spirit.

BOWEN'S MODERN PHILOSOPHY.*

HISTORIES of philosophy may be roughly divided into two classes—histories of Opinion, in which the chief aim is to present philosophical doctrines in their chronological sequence, with all the apparatus of dates, biographical and bibliographical facts, etc., needful in approaching the study of them; and histories of Philosophy in the stricter sense, in which the attempt is made to embrace the sequence as a continuous movement, a genetic development whose later stages are implied, present already in the germ, in the earlier. The virtues of a history of the first kind are impartiality, accuracy, and fulness; it presents the facts, and need not attempt to reconcile them with each other. A history of the other kind, on the contrary, must do this—that is, it must endeavor to show how each of the successive doctrines was a contribution towards a better solution of the problem. On the other hand, it need take no account of those which make no advance towards a solution.

The work before us does not seem to fall very readily into either of these classes. It cites but few names, and those not always the most important; and the author does not seem to feel it incumbent upon him to show that those which he does cite mark the steps in a natural or necessary sequence of thought. He has said little, he tells us, about Hobbes or Locke, Hume, Reid, or Hamilton, because their writings are accessible to all. But we find that he has devoted about a fifth of his book to Schopenhauer and Hartmann. This is like writing the history of the steam-engine, with the omission of Watt and Stephenson, but enlarging upon the experiments of ingenious amateurs who have proved to their own satisfaction that steam-power is a delusion and had better be given up.

What is the history of Modern Philosophy without Hume? Or is it true that Hume's doctrines need no discussion for readers such as Mr. Bowen addresses, to whom, as he tells us, Kant is little more than a name? Perhaps he would say that Hume was fully refuted by Kant, and that he himself has given a sufficient account of Kant's argument. But, in the first place, is it certain that Hume was refuted by Kant? Schwegler, who is good authority, thinks not; and it seems clear that Kant did not answer Hume's doubt as Hume stated it—viz., as confined to our knowledge of matters of fact. Mr. Bowen himself finally arrives at this conclusion. And in the next place there is a great deal more in Hume than the mere occasion for Kant's Critique. Indeed, as it seems to us, a chief cause (rather, perhaps, a chief sign) of the stagnation in English philosophy since Hume is to be found in the notion that he has been disposed of, by Kant or by somebody else, or by the mere operation of common sense, and that we can go on cheerfully with the postulates which he demolished.

The proper origin and starting-point of all modern philosophy Mr. Bowen finds in Descartes and his *Cogito ergo sum*. "The reality of the thought necessarily involves the existence of the thinker. . . . On this subject the philosophy of the last two centuries and a half has not advanced an inch beyond Descartes. . . . On these two most certain of all propositions depends the certainty of all other affirmations that can be made." It is important, however, to note here that to Descartes these two propositions are in truth one, or differ only as different aspects of one fact. Hence they support each other. He does not argue from the fact that we think to the independent fact that we exist, but declares them to be inseparable. My thinking *is* existence, and my existence thinking. I am a substance whose entire essence or nature is to think. How do I know this to be true? I know it by seeing it. I see clearly and distinctly that my thinking involves my existence, and conversely. But this is not an empirical fact—it is a necessary conclusion. By parity of reasoning *all* my clear and distinct ideas are true, or involve the reality of their objects. My idea of God, *e.g.*, as the Perfect Being, involves his existence, because existence is included in this perfection, just as equidistance of all parts from the centre is included in the definition of the circle.

This, however, Mr. Bowen thinks is going too far. Ideas are not necessarily realities; indeed, real existence is the very opposite of ideal existence. "It is perfectly correct to say that the *idea* of necessary existence enters into our complex notion of a God. But the reality does not follow from the idea, any more than the reality of a winged horse follows from my conception of such an animal." What becomes, then, of the *Cogito ergo sum?* How can we be sure of the reality of *that* idea. Mr. Bowen does not, upon second thought, seem to be so sure of it as one could wish. He still believes, indeed, that, in point of fact, the soul always does think; but this is not saying that it always *must* think. Nor, on the other hand, will it do to say that my thinking *is* myself, for then it would follow that I am not the same self at any two successive moments. In short, my thinking and my existence are two "innate ideas"—*i.e.*, ultimate and incomprehensible facts of consciousness—which cannot be argued about but only felt, and which exist side by side in our minds.

Mr. Bowen's criticism of Descartes' method of proof is very instructive as to his own. The supposed analogy with mathematical reasoning is, he thinks, a very lame one. The existence of God does not follow from my idea of God, any more than the actual presence of a circle follows from the mathematical conception of it, which exists in my mind and nowhere else. But that is just the reason why the analogy is *not* a lame one. In either case all follows that ought to follow. God cannot be conceived as not existing; the geometer's circle is conceived as having nothing corresponding to it in the outward universe. In each case it is the logical *implication* that we are sure of—not the bare fact apart from its implications. If God, or if the circle, were an ultimate fact of consciousness, then the analogy would be a lame one: one would be a fact which seems to exist; the other a fact which seems not to exist; and there would be no parity between them. The only parity is in the reasoning by which we arrive at them.

It is not, then, on the whole surprising to find, when we come to Spinoza, that, in Mr. Bowen's opinion, Spinoza maims and defaces the doctrine of Descartes by striking out the two separate substances, mind and matter, and putting in their place the inconceivable abstraction Universal Substance, or God, which he defines as *causa sui*, thereby denying at the outset the separate reality of all *entia causata—i.e.*, of all individual and real objects. But this is just what Descartes does, as Mr. Bowen himself partly points out, only Descartes did not perceive the full consequences of his doctrine. Substance, he says, we conceive as something which so exists as to need nothing else than itself in order to exist. Properly speaking, he continues, only God is such a substance, and there is no created thing that can exist for a single moment without being sustained and preserved by his power. Other things we call substances, not in this sense, but only to distinguish them from their attributes, which in like manner depend upon them.

If we take the conception of a Perfect Being as an "innate idea," in Mr. Bowen's sense—*i.e.*, as an ultimate and incomprehensible fact—we shall be safe from Pantheism and from all other unwelcome conclusions, because, as there are no logical consequences to be drawn from such a fact, we are not bound to draw any. But to Descartes it was more than this; it was the *explanation* of the fact of Existence, and, of course, had to be stated generally, or as a principle. "*Causa sui*," says Mr. Bowen, "is merely First Cause—*i.e.*, First Cause of everything else, but not of itself, for that is absurd." But is it less absurd, in a philosophical point of view, to assume two *kinds* of existence? Or shall we say that God does not exist, that he is *absolute* in the sense of being absolved from the necessity of existing? The absurdity by which Mr. Bowen feels himself repelled lies in the attempt to reduce such relations to terms of cause and effect. But it is not to be escaped by merely fencing off one portion of the problem. At any rate the absurdity, if it is one, belongs to Descartes—makes, indeed, the essence of his philosophy,—and what Spinoza and Malebranche did was nothing arbitrary, but only giving to Cartesianism a consistent expression.

Passing from Spinoza and Malebranche to Leibnitz, we should look to encounter Locke, seeing that it is the attempt to reconcile his Individualism with the Monism of Spinoza that makes the philosophical importance of Leibnitz. Mr. Bowen, however, passes over Locke, so that the doctrine of Monads appears, not as an attempt to combine the speculative results of the age, but as an individual protest against the disagreeable consequences of Pantheism.

* 'Modern Philosophy, from Descartes to Schopenhauer and Hartmann. By Francis Bowen, A.M., Alford Professor of Natural Religion and Moral Philosophy in Harvard College.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. vii. and 484.

Next, immediately preceding the account of the Kantian school, comes Berkeley. Here again, if it was resolved to omit Locke and Hume, it might be possible, taking Berkeley simply as what he was, a consistent empiricist, the logical outcome of Locke, to show the necessity of the step which Kant took. But in Mr. Bowen's account he appears principally as the discoverer of "perhaps the only fruitful and important truth in Psychology which we may fairly claim to have been first *discovered* in these modern times, . . . and to be now established beyond all doubt or question." This truth is that there is no real connection between the perceptions of our different senses; that, *e.g.*, the heat and the light of the fire are not really associated in a body outside of our minds, but only associated in our experience. Mr. Bowen interprets this to mean that the outward world is not *seen* by us, but "constructed or put together there by the intellect, out of materials furnished to the memory by the sense of touch and by experience of resistance to muscular motion." If this was really Berkeley's position, he had evidently gone beyond Kant in Kant's own direction, and their relation to each other becomes simply incomprehensible. But the good bishop would have repelled and abhorred such an interpretation. To him the outward world is the creation of God; who is, indeed, *also* mind, but distinctly not that mind of whose operations we are conscious. The philosophy of Berkeley, as Mr. Bowen tells us, differs from the "monstrous Egoistic Idealism" of Fichte and others, inasmuch as it does not attempt to *comprehend* the outward universe, but simply assumes it as "an immediate *datum* of consciousness," which *datum* Hume at once disposed of by pointing out that it is indeed immediate—*i.e.*, destitute of proof—and, moreover, self-contradictory, since it assumes that we are conscious of something which is out of consciousness.

To present the proof and to solve the contradiction was the undertaking of Kant and his successors—an undertaking in which, according to Mr. Bowen, their success has been very moderate. Kant's theory, he considers, preserves and even demonstrates the existence of innate truths; but he preserves them only in the interests of scepticism, and makes them the foundation, in fact, of a system which resolves all our beliefs into mere illusions and dreams. Then comes Fichte, whose endeavor is to sweep away even this poor ghost of actual being, and to refashion Kant's survey of the limitations of human knowledge into a system of absolute Egoism. Schelling carries the process still further, and resolves the world, both of matter and of mind, "into an inconceivable background of real being, called the Absolute." Finally, Hegel blows up this background into a "Titanic soap-bubble," which Mr. Bowen finds it to be his duty to prick.

But if the Absolutists delight him not, neither do their adversaries, Schopenhauer and Hartmann, seem altogether to content him. Schopenhauer has more speculative ability than any of his German contemporaries, but his ultimate conclusions are often untrue and even diabolical; and as for Hartmann, though there is much to be said in his favor, yet his system is one that can hardly be seriously entertained by any sane student, or even by its author himself.

We have perhaps said enough to explain our conclusion that Mr. Bowen's work cannot be considered a satisfactory History of Modern Philosophy. His method is essentially unhistorical. He does not attempt to trace the progress of thought as a whole, and he does not seek to place himself at the point of view of those writers whom he decides to include in his account; he only looks about for illustrations, confirmations, or contradictions of those theories and beliefs which commend themselves to his mind. This mode of proceeding has, no doubt, conducted Mr. Bowen to rational and well-founded convictions, but it seems a dangerous one for the majority of mankind; at any rate, it is, in our judgment, extremely undesirable that the class of persons for whom the book appears to be especially intended—viz., young men in colleges—should be led to occupy themselves with retracing vagaries of speculation which are amenable to no standard except their own private impressions or those of their teacher. If the history of philosophy is nothing better than this, the study of it must make a very bad employment of their time; if it is something better, such a treatment must create a formidable obstacle to their ever arriving at a just apprehension of it.

Village Improvements and Farm Villages. By George E. Waring, jr., Consulting Engineer for Sanitary and Agricultural Works. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1877.)—By the same author: *The Sanitary Condition in City and Country Dwelling-Houses.* (New York: D. Van Nostrand. 1877.)—The first of these little books consists of four articles reprinted from *Scribner's* and the *Atlantic Monthly* in relation to the adornment and improvement of villages. The second consists of papers upon the drainage of houses, to which is added a correspondence, from the *American Architect*, between the author and Messrs. Towne and Bayles, upon the relative advantages of cesspools and irrigation-drains for the drainage of country houses, Mr. Bayles favoring the tight cesspool, and Mr. Waring a system of subterranean pipes to utilize the drainage matter; this system, he says, works perfectly well in his own experience.

The essays upon village improvements are of great interest. The first starts from an association for this purpose, which exists at Stockbridge, Mass., and describes in detail the various objects to which such an association can turn its energies. This is followed by a paper upon village sanitary work, which really belongs to the same head. The third paper is, in a general point of view, the most important, proposing the concentration of farming communities into villages for the sake of social and economical advantages. The fourth, "The Eastern Farmer," is a further development of the same idea.

Mr. Waring's notion is that the hardness and monotony of the farmer's life can be largely remedied by ridding it of its isolation—an idea which, if we are not mistaken, was at the bottom of the "Granger" movement, as long as it was a purely social organization, with no political ambitions. He illustrates his theme by taking an actual tract of two miles square in Rhode Island, which contains about sixty scattered houses, and showing a practicable method by which, retaining the present roads and main dividing lines, this population can be gathered into a village. It is adequately illustrated by plans. Mr. Waring does full justice to the practical difficulties arising from the subdivision of the land and the wide distribution of the residences. Another obstacle, which would be met in the new States, is the absolute want of materials to make villages out of. Where, as in some of our Western States, the leading lines of railroad have hardly one station in ten miles, and then often nothing but a shed or a platform, farm-houses must necessarily be scattered: and this, we suppose, is the historical origin of the scattered farm-houses of New England. Nevertheless, even here the plan will be of benefit if farmers can once adopt it as something to be held in mind to be worked up to as rapidly as possible. The Western communities may perhaps in this way adopt in theory the European village type instead of the isolated New England type; and all the more easily because of the large proportion of German and Scandinavian settlers in these States.

This book deserves a very wide distribution.

Womankind. By C. M. Yonge. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.)—A book by Miss Yonge is sure of readers and admirers—so sure that the apparently chief duty of its critic is to put up a few notices here and there, such as "Private grounds," "No thoroughfare," "Not open to the public," in order to save the general reader from running against an intellectual dead-wall. This book is full of detailed instruction on many most important subjects, and almost as full of an unconscious and priggish exclusiveness. Certain types of character are *right*—all others are disallowed; and Miss Yonge's world consists, like some of her novels, of clergymen and their families, the poor, and persons of the highest rank—a limited view of the English nation, not to speak of the world at large. "It is only as a daughter of the church that woman can have her place or be satisfied as to her vocation," is a statement in the first chapter, which gives the keynote to the book. Miss Yonge "has no hesitation in declaring her belief in the inferiority of woman, nor that she brought it upon herself"—*i. e.*, by eating the fatal apple. These theories are fully carried out. Girls are to study this and that, not because it will enrich or strengthen their minds, but because accuracy in historical knowledge enables a girl to teach the younger children. A competent knowledge of accounts is desirable, because it fits her to take charge of clothing clubs, and she must love "fun" and not be a sneak, in order that her brothers may think well of her. The book, in short, shows in every line the deeply Anglican character of the writer's mind, and though some of Miss Yonge's problems have been solved in the practice of this country, that fact in nowise concerns her. She asks whether "it would not be possible to establish good day-schools, conducted by really superior teachers, to which the girls of each town might resort from their homes?"

Let the reader, however, accept Miss Yonge's standpoint, and he or she will find a great deal of good sense and good taste in the careful details as to all that concerns young women. She accompanies them from childhood to maturity, teaches them how to choose their gowns and their husbands, and reminds us a little of that famous lady who could talk on any subject, from predestination to slea silk. The two closing chapters

are, to our mind, the best in the book, having a certain unhackneyed freshness in their treatment and style.

Every nation has its own feminine ideal, but we can quite believe that the English type as presented by Miss Yonge—a woman who knows her place, and uses what she is pleased to call her mind in deferential subordination to the nobler sex—should be infinitely attractive to the much-tried American man.

Fifteen-cent Dinners for Workingmen's Families. By Juliet Corson, Superintendent of the New York Cooking School. (New York. 1877.)—In this admirable little pamphlet Miss Corson undertakes to show the laborer's wife how to reduce the living expenses of her household to a minimum. The recipes given in it require, as she says in her preface, generally only those articles which are in common use among the working-classes. In estimating the cost of the recipes the family is supposed to consist of four persons, who are allowed a meat dinner every day. A few foreign dishes—lentils, maccaroni, and some of the capital nutritious French broths—are given. Since our former brief mention of Miss Corson's tract (for it is given away), we have tried some of these recipes, and can now vouch for them. They neither cost more than they are said to do nor are they objectionable on any other score. Miss Corson is a public benefactor, and if she can induce our working-classes to substitute some of her excellent dishes for the pernicious, costly, and wasteful messes with which they now ruin their digestions, she will be entitled to lasting public gratitude.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*
Adler (F.), Creed and Deed	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) $1 50
Bigelow (E. B.), Tariff Policy of England and the United States Contrasted	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Brooks (Rev. P.), Lectures on Preaching	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 50
Campbell (Rev. S. M.), The Story of Creation	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 1 75
Clarkson (L.), The Gathering of the Lilies	(J. L. Sibole & Co.) 4 00
Concilio (Rev. J. de), The Knowledge of Mary	(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
Corbin (Mrs. C. F.), Rebecca; or, A Woman's Secret	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 1 50
Farrell (Rev. J.), Lectures of a Certain Professor	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Gray (E.), The Cedars: a Child's Story	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 1 25
Herman (W.), The Dance of Death, 3d ed	(Henry Keller & Co.) 1 25
Hope (A.), Manual of Sorrento and Inlaid Work	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Johnson (R.), Single Famous Poems	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Linton (Mrs. E. L.), The World Well Lost	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Littré (E.), Supplément au Dictionnaire de la Langue Française, Part 7, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Lübke (Prof. W.), Outlines of the History of Art, Vol. I	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 7 00
McKenzie (Christine), In the Meshes: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Mears (Rev. D. O.), Life of Edward Norris Kirk, D.D	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 3 00
Miller (Emily H.), Captain Fritz: a Child's Story	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 50
Mitchell (D. G.), About Old Story-Tellers	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 2 00
Parkman (Alice), Slices of Mother Goose	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 75
Seemann (O.), Mythology of Greece and Rome	(Harper & Bros.)
Shedd (Prof. W. G. T.), Theological Essays	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 2 50
Sullivan (A. M.), New Ireland	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 2 50
Tancock (Rev. O. W.), Elementary English Grammar	(Macmillan & Co.) 75
The Prince of Argolis	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
The Portrait, and Other Poems, swd	(Jesse Haney & Co.) 25
Thomas (L. B.), Genealogical Notes	(Lawrence B. Thomas) 4 00
Two Years behind the Plough	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)
Yonge (Miss C. M.), Womankind	(Macmillan & Co.)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 6, 1877.

The Week.

THE President's message begins with a discussion of "pacification"; shows that since the withdrawal of troops from the South massacres, disturbances, riots, and race hostilities have almost entirely ceased; reiterates his determination to protect the negroes by all available means; and then proceeds to a statement of his views on the finances. On this subject he insists that the policy of resumption should be steadily pursued by every suitable means; that "no legislation would be wise that should disparage the importance or retard the attainment of that result." As to silver, he declares the "readjustment of our coinage system" by "the renewal of the silver dollar as an element in our specie currency," endowed with the legal-tender quality "to a greater or less extent," to be of grave importance, and says that he holds the opinion that, on the one hand, nobody would be benefited by "disparaging silver as one of the two precious metals which furnish the coinage of the world," and, on the other, that legislation which looks to "maintaining the volume of intrinsic money to as full a measure of both metals as their relative commercial values will permit, would be neither unjust nor inexpedient." He then goes on to lay down certain "essential features" of any legislative measure which he should feel at liberty to recommend to Congress. Of these the first grows out of the fact that with our large public debt and the expediency of refunding at a low rate of interest, the question of coinage is really a two-fold question, one branch of it relating to domestic currency, the other to the debt. He points out the fact that all the bonds issued since February 12, 1873, when silver was demonetized, are "justly payable in gold coin or coin of equal value"; and that, as to all those issued before that date, the gold dollar was then "the only coin in circulation or contemplated by either the Government or the holders of the bonds as the coin in which they were to be paid," and adds that "the power of the United States to coin money and to regulate the value thereof ought never to be exercised for the purpose of enabling the Government to pay its obligations in a coin of less value than that contemplated by the parties when the bonds were issued." The second principle is that, in introducing silver into the currency, the ratio between silver and gold should be adjusted with a view to maintaining in circulation both metals, and "keeping up the volume of the two precious metals as our intrinsic money," and he calls attention to the fact that an "absolute equality of commercial value free from disturbing fluctuations is hardly attainable," and that without it bi-metallic legal tender would "irresistibly tend to drive out of circulation the dearer coinage and disappoint the principal object proposed by the legislation in view." He therefore thinks that a near approach of the two metals in commercial value and a limitation in amount are essential to maintaining both in circulation. If these conditions can be successfully observed, he thinks silver coinage may be advantageous; but declares that any expectation of temporary ease from an issue of silver "to pass as a legal tender at a rate materially above its commercial value" is a "delusion." Nor does he admit any substantial distinction between an original issue of silver dollars at a nominal value materially above their commercial value, and "the restoration of the silver dollar at a rate which once was but has ceased to be its commercial value." He also recommends in any silver bill the exemption of both principal and interest of the existing public debt from payment in any coin of less value than the present gold coinage of the country.

He explains his civil-service policy as a return to the system established by fundamental law—*i.e.*, the selection of government employees by the Executive, and their confirmation or rejection by the Senate; and also, as dictated by a desire to establish such a tenure of office in places in which special training is required "as may induce men of proper qualifications to apply themselves industriously to the task of becoming proficient." He offers to co-operate with Congress for the better systematization of rules of admission and promotion, says that the system devised by General Grant's Commission is "now being used to a considerable extent," and asks Congress for a suitable appropriation to be immediately available to enable it to continue its labors. He declares the foreign relations of the country to be in a satisfactory condition, and recommends the extension of the German emigration treaty to all the states of the Empire. As to Mexican affairs, the President does not anticipate any interruption of friendly relations, but looks "with some solicitude" upon the present situation; suggests the improvement of commercial relations with South America; advises a reimposition of the tax on tea and coffee, and invites the attention of Congress to the recommendations of the New York Custom-house Commission with regard to changes in the customs laws; suggests Government bonds for the investment of savings, advises that something be done for American shipping without saying what, calls attention to the various department reports, and finally advises legislation on behalf of education, not merely elementary, but technical and higher education as well, says he shall be glad to sign a bill for the purpose of giving national aid to the local systems of education "in all the States," and further advises a national university at Washington.

Mr. Sherman's Treasury report puts the revenues for the next fiscal year (ending June 30, 1879) at $269,250,000, and the expenses at $280,688,796 38, showing a probable deficiency of $11,000,000, and recommends on this account a reduction in the estimates of $11,000,000, making the appropriations $140,000,000. He reports the result of the funding operations in 4½ and 4 per cent. bonds to be thus far a reduction of $3,775,000 in interest on the public debt, but says that the funding was temporarily stopped by the silver and resumption repeal agitation, and earnestly urges Congress to give its sanction to his letter of June 19 last, in which he assured the Syndicate that the bonds were payable in gold or its equivalent; announces that under the Resumption Act of 1875 he has accumulated coin for resumption, and is confident of being able to resume on the day appointed by law, without further legislation, but recommends that authority be given to fund into four per cent. bonds all United States notes in excess of $300,000,000. He thinks that United States notes redeemed under the act will be reissuable, but advises the settlement of this question, to remove all possibility of dispute, by law. The drift of his argument is in favor of a permanent legal-tender currency of $300,000,000, with a coin reserve of not less than $100,000,000, the National bank-notes being redeemable in legal tenders, and the latter in coin. He proposes a limited coinage of silver dollars, but appears to be entirely in accord with the President as to its free coinage. With regard to the tariff, the Secretary agrees with the President as to the advisability of reimposing a tax on tea and coffee, so as to yield a revenue of $12,000,000; recommends specific as opposed to *ad valorem* duties; thinks the free list may be enlarged and some internal taxes reduced, but is opposed to any change in the tariff involving a reduction of the volume of the customs revenue. He thinks the repeal of the moieties law has not worked well, and advises its re-enactment in a modified form.

Secretary Schurz discusses the Indian problem at some length, and lays down an outline of an Indian policy embracing the following points: the maintenance of absolute good faith with the tribes; the discouragement of hunting as far as possible; the concentration of the tribes still dependent on hunting within reservations; their conversion to agricultural and pastoral life; the admission of Indians

who can furnish evidence of having supported their families for a certain number of years to the benefits of the Homestead Act and (in case they are willing to detach themselves from their tribal relations) to citizenship; the extension throughout the reservations of the authority of the laws of the United States, to be carried into effect with the help of an Indian police; the establishment of schools for Indian children, with, as far as practicable, compulsory attendance; the establishment of agency-farms; the employment on the reservations of Indian rather than white labor as far as possible. Parts of this plan are already being carried into effect. The Postmaster-General's report contains little of interest. He recommends, to avoid disputes with the railroads, that they be compelled to carry the mails in any case, leaving the compensation to be settled by the Post-Office or a board of arbitration. Mr. Thompson's report on the Navy is a colorless document, which does not seem to have caused much feeling anywhere except in Brooklyn, where his suggestion of the repeal of the law transferring the Wallabout lands to the city is in some quarters regarded as an indication that he has passed under the influence of the "old gang," the "Robeson men," or, in other words, the "barnacles." He makes a valuable suggestion as to the importance of having an educated corps of naval constructors. The Secretary of War shows that the army has been mainly occupied in suppressing Indian hostilities, in watching the Mexican border, and in suppressing the riots of last summer. The recommendations in his report, to which the President calls attention in his Message, mostly relate to matters of detail; indeed, now that the question of the reduction of the size of the army is settled, there is hardly any general question connected with it likely to arise, unless, indeed, the concentration of troops on the Mexican frontier should lead to one.

The contest in the Senate took an unexpected turn on Wednesday week, when the question arose whether, under the rules, the Kellogg report or the Butler resolution should take precedence as of high privilege. The Vice-President decided, and perhaps correctly, for it was a knotty question, in favor of the report. An appeal having been taken, he was sustained by a vote of 29 to 28, Judge Davis not voting, and Conover this time returning to the Republican fold. Then followed a hopeless struggle with fate on the part of the Democrats, which lasted for two days and into the early morning of Saturday, when, by an amicable understanding, Kellogg was allowed to be voted in with the aid of Conover and Patterson, and Butler thereupon with the same aid. The Senate paused a moment to pass the House Exposition Bill, confirming the appropriation of $150,000; and also the Deficiency Bill. It spent the last hours of the special session, on Monday, in executive session, approving all nominations not objected to. The New York Custom-house nominations were of course objected to, and will have to be renewed. The appointment of Gen. Harlan to the Supreme Bench, which had been confirmed on Thursday and then held for reconsideration, succeeded through the failure of the Senate to reconsider. Some of the President's Southern appointments, notably that of Fitz Simmons of Georgia, were unopposed except by a call for yeas and nays, to put on record the disapproval of the Republican minority. Conover, Patterson, and Stanley Matthews stood by the Executive. The House did nothing except to pass unanimously a bill for the relief of the survivors of the wrecked U. S. sloop *Huron*. On Tuesday, in regular session, the House passed a bill abolishing the obsolete "iron-clad oath."

Patterson was apparently somewhat mortified by the failure of his first defence of himself in the Senate, owing to its incoherence, so he prepared a written one of considerable violence, which he read on Friday with great vehemence, and which contained much coarse abuse of the President. There were one or two very funny passages in it, besides poetical quotations—one in which he tried to put the carpet-baggers in the category of Northern men "who remove to the South for ill health, or for the laudable purpose of improving their condition by industry and enterprise"; another in which, while admitting that "the Southern Republicans had been guilty of many errors and were responsible for much of the maladministration of the past eight years," he maintained that "they never betrayed their friends." This has been the principal plea of nearly all the political criminals and defaulters of the past seventeen years. They will acknowledge lying, stealing, bribing, forging, and "raising" bills and checks, but they will never admit that they have "gone back on their friends," which they regard as the lowest pit of human depravity. Patterson continues in disgrace with "the party," and so do all the carpet-baggers; but the ludicrousness of the abuse lately heaped on them has attracted the attention of some of the editors, and during the last few days there has been more caution in speaking of their wickedness and uselessness. Patterson announces that he has been invited to "lecture on the South," and will probably do so. This was predicted, we believe, by the Springfield *Republican* a fortnight ago. They almost all turn to lecturing after being found out, if unmolested by the police, and usually begin by an address at an Agricultural Fair.

Mr. Conkling managed to defeat the nominations of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince in the Committee, which is considered by his friends, and probably by himself, a great stroke of statesmanship. They will probably be renewed, however, and carried in the Senate, if we may judge by the vote in the case of Fitz Simmons, the Georgia marshal. The ostensible ground of opposition to them—that the present incumbents have done nothing to warrant their dismissal—is in itself a contribution, however slight, to civil-service reform. No explanation has yet been offered in any quarter of the purposes of the Republican opposition to the President in the Senate, although we think the public has been waiting for something of the kind with considerable anxiety. How it is to benefit the party—taking the lowest view of it; what class of voters whose allegiance is at all doubtful is likely to be cheered or won over by it; who it is in any section of the country that enjoys the spectacle of Senators denouncing their own President, and working secretly to prevent his putting unexceptionable men in important places—are all questions to which an answer ought to be given soon, if it is to obtain credence or even attention.

The President's suggestion as to the establishment of a national university at Washington, though nothing is likely to come of it, is, in the present condition of the civil service and of the public mind about patronage and salaries, rather ill-advised. None of the State universities, so-called, are successful in the highest and best sense of the word. Some of them are the mere playthings of politicians, and, as a general rule, the more ignorant a politician is the more he has to say about the university. In all of them the pay of the professors is scanty, the interference of the incompetent constant, and the humiliations frequent and deep. To start another such institution on a great scale at Washington would be a curse to the Government and a real hindrance to the cause of higher education. Each Senator would want a chair for "his man," and "the man" would be overhauled every session in the House for some defect in his teaching, and the president of the university would have to pass half his time in lobbying either to get the appropriation or prevent his being legislated out of existence. Then there would be an annual "board of visitors," who would recommend each year a total change in the curriculum and discipline, and perhaps the dismissal of a professor of history for secret leanings to monarchy, or of a professor of political economy for unsoundness about the tariff or the double standard. In short, it would be a great and serious addition to existing troubles and responsibilities.

The charge made against Mr. Sumner by General Grant, and supported recently by Mr. Fish, of having kept from eight to eleven treaties before his committee for periods, to use Mr. Fish's words, varying from "several months" to "more than two years," has been disposed of in somewhat summary fashion by Mr. Pierce, Mr. Sumner's biographer, in a letter to the Boston *Transcript*, which has as yet drawn no reply from Mr. Fish. Mr. Fish's charge gave the dates at which the treaties were *referred* to the Committee on Foreign

Affairs, and inferred from the delay in their reaching the Department of State from the Senate that the Committee had not *reported* them. An examination of the Records of the Senate shows this to have been an error. Of the nine treaties spoken of, only one lay one year in the hands of the Committee; two between three and four months; four a little over one month, and one only two days. The subsequent delay occurred in the Senate itself; but for this the responsibility has not been laid at Mr. Sumner's door.

The official declarations of the President and the Secretary of the Treasury on the subject of remonetizing silver were sufficient, although anticipated, to lower the price of gold from 103 to 102⅝, and to advance the price of United States bonds in London from ¼ to 1¼ per cent. Coming as they did late in the week, they were not in time to stop the importation of bonds which was started by the silver-dollar agitation. The demand for sterling bills to pay for these imported bonds was sufficient to keep the exchange market up. Bankers express the opinion that, except for this return of bonds, exchange would by this time have been five to six "points" lower than it is, and we should now have been importing gold in such amounts as would have put at rest all doubts about the ability of the Treasury to resume in 1879. The gold value of the United States legal-tender note for one dollar at the close of the week was $0.9744. The bullion in a 412½-grain dollar would have had a gold value at the same time of $0.9049.

At the Stock Exchange there was one of those periodical declines which invariably follow over-speculation for a rise. The cause of the decline—which ranged from two to eight "points"—was the "unloading" of one or two speculative capitalists who bought vast amounts of railroad stocks last summer, on the calculation of an enormous business this fall. The heavy rains in the West in the last five weeks so reduced railroad tonnage as to upset the calculations about dividends, and the result was free sales. The export trade of the Northern ports continues excellent. The Southern ports, on account of the backwardness of the cotton movement, show less favorable results. Outside of the export trade general business has been dull.

The political situation in France, in spite of much vacillation on the part of the Marshal, remains practically unchanged, though of course a situation of this kind really grows worse as long as it does not grow better. The likeness of his mental and moral condition to that of General Grant during the whiskey trials in 1876, as described by General Boynton in his article in the *North American Review*, continues to be very interesting as well as amusing. There is the same reasonableness one day under the explanations and assurances of the good men, and then the same relapses into grim suspicion and wounded pride the next day under the "mind-poisoning" of the bad men. The last person who has taken the Marshal in hand and tried to soothe him is M. Grévy (Bristow), and he was supposed to have made some impression on him, when Rouher (Babcock), Ornano (Shepherd), and Cassagnac (Murtagh) "got at him" again and made him defiant. The venerable M. Dufaure had him under treatment at the last advices, and it is hoped that his labors may produce some result. But the fear of a *coup de force* is diminishing, as it is evident that the Marshal has not resolution enough for that sort of thing, and General Berthaut, the Minister of War, would not connive at it, and the army cannot be counted on. In the meantime, the Assembly, as an additional measure of pressure, has refused to vote or discuss the budget, or at least any of the direct taxes, until a parliamentary Ministry is formed. This, it must be added, is a dangerous game, as it is likely to inconvenience a large body of persons, and perhaps wound the national pride, and if it lasted long might put the majority in peril in case of another dissolution.

There is apparently a lull in the operations in Armenia. Loris-Melikoff is not yet announced to have arrived in the neighborhood of Erzerum, and Mukhtar Pasha believes, or at least some days ago believed, the Russians to be going into winter quarters, Gen. Tergukassoff's troops having occupied encampments between Zeidekan and Karakilissa. The Pasha in the meanwhile strengthens the fortifications of the city, and is said to be receiving reinforcements. Some have probably come from Batum, the commander of which is contracting his lines. Between the Danube and the Balkans there has been considerable military activity, excepting the Dobrudja, where Zimmermann is left to enjoy his *dolce far niente*. Suleiman Pasha, resuming the offensive west of the Lom, on the morning of November 26 violently attacked the Tzesarevitch's Twelfth Corps at Trstenik and Metchka (names occurring also in the neighborhood of Plevna, which led some of our dailies to consider the affair a sortie of Osman Pasha). After six hours' severe fighting, the Russians report, the aggressors were repulsed with very heavy loss—Suleiman himself estimates it at nearly twelve hundred—and were pursued till nightfall. The bulletin admits the loss of a large number of Russian officers. Simultaneous demonstrations made by the Turks further south, near the banks of the Kara Lom, ceased after trifling fighting. In Constantinople the belief was current that Suleiman was to make a new, strong effort from his southern positions, and a despatch from Vienna announces that he has achieved a great victory near Tirnova; this is apparently confirmed by a telegram from Shumla, but the news decidedly needs further confirmation. That Suleiman is bent on fighting the Tzesarevitch is natural, considering that the latter must be prevented by constant harassing from lending his aid to the besiegers of Plevna; but a serious attempt to break through his lines, either in the direction of Sistova or near Tirnova, is, at this season of the year, an undertaking of great magnitude and no little risk.

Mehemet Ali Pasha's task—to relieve Plevna by an advance from the west—would be incomparably easier had he an army like that which Suleiman commands outside of his fortress; for only detached Russian and Rumanian divisions intervene between him and Osman's besieged force, and not the two main armies of the Czar, which, holding inner lines, bar the approach from the east. But Mehemet Ali—unless his defensive fights and slow retreats aim at drawing out the enemy's lines for strategic purposes—hardly commands an army strong enough for a vigorous and continued offensive even against scattered divisions. After the occupation of Pravetz by the invaders, he abandoned Novatchin and Skrivena, between Vratza and Orhanie, and the latter place itself, withdrawing to a defile between Vretchesh and Liutakovo, southwest of the Novatchin-Orhanie line. The Russians, thereupon, according to concurrent "special" reports, on November 28 and 29, repeatedly attempted to seize the southern junction of the roads from Orhanie and Etropol to the Balkans, but were repulsed with heavy loss. On the 29th, as a Russian bulletin has it, the tenor of which does not agree with the preceding statements, though it does not contradict them, Mehemet Ali's troops evacuated their positions near Vretchesh and Liutakovo, the Russians pursuing them beyond the defile. On December 3 Mehemet Ali reported that the Russians on that day, after violently cannonading his positions at Kamarli—evidently the Komartzi of the maps, southwest of Etropol—furiously attacked his left wing, and after a protracted struggle and considerable loss retreated in the evening; darkness prevented an immediate pursuit, which he expected to begin the next morning. Further north, Russo-Rumanian detachments had previously traversed the country between the Isker and Ogost, and occupied Belibrod and Levtchevo on the latter river. None of the reports of the week, however, mentions any capture of men or materials from the Turks, either east or west of the Yantra, and, excepting a renewal of the bombardment, no conflict with Osman Pasha's command is alluded to. Surmises about its condition and the Pasha's intentions are vague. If Mehemet Ali has drawn off a considerable force of Russians, and is enabled by reinforcements covering his rear to execute a rapid forward movement west of the Isker, Osman Pasha might, perhaps, venture on cutting his way through in a westerly direction. The now more positively-expected Servian intervention is, however, adverse to the former supposition.

THE PRESIDENT'S PRESENT POSITION AS DESCRIBED BY HIMSELF.

THE President's message has been received with unusual interest, partly because it contains the first expression of his opinions on the leading questions of the day with which the public has been favored since his inauguration, and partly because in the interval his relations with the leading politicians of his own party have become exceedingly delicate, not to say somewhat hostile. To read it understandingly, so as to do full justice to his position, it ought to be read in conjunction with his letter of acceptance and his inaugural address. The conclusion drawn by candid and impartial men, we think, will be that he has visibly "weakened," as the politicians say, on civil-service reform, while on finance and on the Southern question he has gained both in clearness and strength. Both the Cincinnati platform and the letter of acceptance were vague, perhaps necessarily vague, about the Southern question, and confined themselves to that seesaw of antitheses with which party platforms have so long treated the labor question—that is, they expressed a strong desire to satisfy both blacks and whites, but prudently refrained from any definition of what ought to be done to satisfy both blacks and whites beyond the use of the somewhat cloudy term "pacification." The matter would really have been of but small importance, as all the States but two had escaped from Federal control, and were therefore no longer the possible objects of a "policy" of any kind, if it had not come to pass that the Republicans found themselves dependent on these two States for a victory at the Presidential election. Had the party found itself strong enough elsewhere to dispense with the aid of these two remaining carpet-bag States, their loss would probably have excited no more attention than the loss of Georgia and Alabama. But the fact that they proved absolutely necessary to the continuance of the Republican hold on power suddenly gave an immense stimulus to the interest of Northern politicians in their politics, and caused the somewhat ludicrous conversion of their affairs into the "Southern question," and gave the small bands of thieves who managed them in Columbia and New Orleans the name for the time being of "the Republican party at the South." So that Mr. Hayes, when he took office, found that the Southern problem had assumed in the minds of the leaders of his own party an importance which there was no reason for anticipating when he was nominated and when he wrote his letter. This, however, in reality in no way changed the necessities of his position. The only way he could interfere at the South was through the army, and at best only in two States; and the army it was quite certain the House would not permit him to use for any such purpose. Accordingly, he rendered his party an inestimable service by giving the inevitable the air of the optional, and making an act of necessity seem to the Southerners what, as far as he was concerned, it no doubt was in reality, an act of wisdom and kindness. He did not withdraw the troops because he was soon likely to have no troops, but because it was neither constitutional nor expedient to keep them there; but his perception of the impossibility of pursuing any other course has doubtless strengthened his faith in the soundness of the one he did pursue, and has made him firmer in defending it.

That the feeling of its necessity, which his Republican opponents doubtless possess as fully as he, should silence their denunciations of it, was not to be expected. His unwillingness or inability to run the party machine in the old way is something which in view of the explicit declarations of the Cincinnati platform cannot be attacked openly, while criticism of the Southern policy readily finds sympathetic hearers among that large class whose perceptions of constitutional distinctions and restrictions have been blunted by the passions and memories of the war and of the anti-slavery struggle. He has accordingly, apparently, allowed himself to suppose that by yielding on the question of civil-service reform, on which there is no strong public feeling, he would do something to disarm the hostility excited among both the designing and unthinking by his Southern policy. On this point, therefore, there is in the message a considerable falling off from the fervor of the letter of acceptance, and he confines himself to a mild adhesion to the principle of responsibility about appointments laid down in the Cincinnati platform. This was what was to have been expected from his practice about appointments since he came into office. He has tried to be conciliatory and compromising in his reforming, not only by refraining from assailing abuses, which might have been justifiable in a certain degree, but by perpetuating them. He has made many appointments under the old system, has bestowed many as rewards for political services, and has allowed it to be supposed that he was still using patronage at the South and elsewhere to break up the Democratic party and build up the Republican party. This, of course, far from appeasing the old managers, has encouraged them in their hostility, inasmuch as they look on it as a sign that the reform fever is passing away, and that they have only to persist in their opposition to effect a perfect cure. That much of it is due to want of proper Cabinet support we suppose there is no question. The only member who is a consistent and steadfast friend of the reform is probably Mr. Schurz. What system of appointments Mr. Evarts believes in, his offer of two important missions to the Pennsylvania and Illinois delegations makes it impossible to say; but it is one hitherto untried by the Aryan race. The worst of the President's unsteadiness on this point is not, however, that it has revived the hopes of the politicians, but that it has disheartened the reform element in both parties, who would undoubtedly have rallied to his support in greater and greater numbers everywhere in support of any policy that was "thorough, radical, and complete." The most serious defect of the policy which has been pursued thus far is that it is incapable of support, though very obnoxious to criticism and opposition. You can condemn a man for queer or erratic behavior, but you can only encourage and stand by him when you know what he is aiming at, and have reasonable confidence as to what he will do next.

On finance, as far as resumption is concerned, there has never been any reason to doubt the President's complete soundness. What has been feared is that he shared the Western craze about silver, and had, from want of familiarity with the subject, fallen a victim to some of the many fallacies which have found acceptance in Ohio on this subject. We believe that there was for this a year, or even six months, ago a certain amount of foundation; but if so, the discussion which has since taken place has served the purpose of clearing his mind, as it has that of so many others, of the prevalent delusions on this subject, and the utterances of the message will bear examination by any test, and are in complete accord with those of the Secretary of the Treasury. A year of Mr. Hayes's Administration is nearly gone, and he has but three in which to satisfy the expectations of those who supported and vouched for him in 1876. It has been a year in which, of course, there was much liability to error, and much public indulgence for error. In the second, people become more exacting and discontented, and he is probably on the verge of the most critical period of his public life. He has learned two things during the past nine months which ought to be invaluable to him in passing through it. One is, that in trying to remove deeply-rooted abuses you cannot compromise with the persons interested in them, or make the change in any degree palatable to them. The other is, that the Republican leaders would never have nominated or supported him if they had supposed that he would take the party platform in earnest or would make his letter of acceptance a veritable programme, and that they look on him now as a treacherous simpleton. Should he pass another year trying to make peace with them, he will increase their contempt for him, without winning the confidence of the better portion of the party, and go out of office with the unfortunate and mortifying reputation of having good intentions and a feeble will. He need but have a little more confidence in the desire of the bulk of the American people for good government, and in the real insignificance to a strong man of the intrigues by which the Republican Senators are trying to harass him, to fulfil the promises his friends made for him, and make his Administration the beginning of a better era.

THE COINAGE ACT OF 1873.

A CORRESPONDENT writing from Chicago says: "It is constantly asserted here in the West that the Act of Congress dropping the silver dollar from the coinage was passed in a surreptitious manner." He requests us to inform the readers of the *Nation* whether the facts warrant such an inference. The question has been so frequently answered that it would be unnecessary to return to it were it not brazenly repeated and reiterated by the Cincinnati *Commercial*, the Chicago *Tribune*, and other journals which know better, that the Act in question was a trick, a cheating device, and an intentional fraud, and that it was passed surreptitiously. Recently some particulars of the fraud have been given—perhaps not in the two journals we have mentioned, but in others and in public debate in Congress. It has been widely asserted and believed that Mr. Ernest Seyd—or "Ernest Lloyd," as several newspapers have printed the name—a designing bullionist and secret agent of foreign bondholders, came to this country from London in 1873, and by corrupt bargains with leading members of Congress and officers of the Government brought about the demonetization of silver. Figures have been given showing the amount of "British gold" brought over by Mr. Seyd to bribe the small number of Congressmen who had, like himself, the foreknowledge that silver, which had been for half a century worth three per cent. more than gold by our standard, would soon be worth less than gold. The truth of the matter is that Mr. Ernest Seyd is an untiring and voluminous advocate of a return to the double standard in England, in this country, and in all countries. He has been writing and publishing works on the silver side of the question more than ten years, making little or no impression at home, and creating the impression in this country, as now appears, that he is an advocate of the single gold standard—which can hardly be flattering to his vanity as a publicist. Mr. Seyd is an expert as to technical questions relating to coinage and the precious metals. His work entitled 'Bullion and the Foreign Exchanges' is a standard authority upon such matters, and was probably referred to in the protracted discussion of the Coinage Bill of 1873—the discussion which the Cincinnati *Commercial* insinuates never took place at all. In the circumstance that Mr. Seyd's book has been often quoted by Senators and Representatives in debate this senseless story undoubtedly had its origin, and the avidity with which it has been seized upon and spread abroad shows both the ignorance of the great majority of the silver advocates, and their desperate need of some accusation against the integrity of those who passed the Act of 1873.

Accounts from Washington represent that this utterly wicked and false charge had very great influence in procuring the passage of the Bland Bill in the House. Not that members of Congress are generally ignorant of the fact that the Act of 1873 was passed without the slightest extraneous influence or sinister motive, but because their constituents have been so filled with suspicion by other sinister transactions—by Crédit Mobilier, Pacific Mail, Custom-house Moiety, District Ring, and other similar jobs—and so crammed with deception respecting the "dollar of the fathers," that they are readier to believe bad things than good things of any Congress, and especially of any Congress which legislates on money matters. This morbid state of public opinion, which is perhaps not wholly without its uses, renders it all the more necessary to keep the truth respecting the Coinage Act of 1873, and the mode and manner of its passage, before the people. It is not easy as a general thing to prove a negative, but in this case it is possible to do so. The evidence in disproof of the infamous charges brought against the Congress which dropped the silver dollar from the list of American coins, consists of public documents and the debates in the *Congressional Globe*, accessible to all readers and editors; and the reason for passing at that time any bill in relation to the coinage is furnished in Dr. Linderman's recent work, entitled 'Money and Legal Tender in the United States.' From the latter it may be learned that the original purpose of the bill was to bring the Mint and the Treasury Department into proper relations to each other. The Director of the Mint was at one time independent of the Secretary of the Treasury, and made all his reports to the President. The law had been changed subsequently, so as to make the Mint a branch of the Treasury, but the various acts relating to the subject were incongruous and in some respects conflicting. It was deemed advisable by the Director and the Secretary (Mr. Boutwell) to frame a new act to eliminate these incongruities, and it was both natural and statesmanlike to attempt at the same time to consolidate all the laws regulating the coinage, omitting what had become obsolete, and reducing the whole to an intelligible, harmonious system.

The preparation of the bill was entrusted to Mr. John Jay Knox, the present Comptroller of the Currency, and two assistants, and he drew up the bill and the elaborate report accompanying it for the Secretary of the Treasury, who transmitted them in due time to the Senate, where they were introduced, referred to the Finance Committee, and ordered to be printed, April 28, 1870, nearly three years before the final passage of the act. The bill consisted of sixty-seven sections. All changes of former laws embodied in it were pointed out in the report, and the reasons given for them. Particular attention was called to the fact that the silver dollar of 412½ grains, an obsolete coin worth three or four cents more than the gold dollar, had been omitted from the list of authorized coins. The five-cent silver piece, the three-cent silver piece, and the two-cent bronze piece were also dropped, and the subsidiary silver coins were slightly increased in weight, so that the silver in two half-dollars or four quarters should be exactly equal to that of the French five-franc piece. Few bills have ever received such careful and protracted consideration in Congress as this one. None, perhaps, have passed with fewer signs of hasty or surreptitious action. Practically, it was passed twice in the Senate and twice in the House, having been under consideration by two Congresses, in the course of which it was printed no less than thirteen times, and all the time, both in committee and in open session, the section dropping the silver dollar of 412½ grains stood unchanged, although frequently the subject of debate.

The bill was before the Senate from April 28, 1870, till January 10, 1871, receiving full discussion and consideration. It passed that body by yeas 36, nays 14. In the House of Representatives it was taken in charge by Mr. W. D. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, who "engineered" it through committee and through the House, and who is now, in his championship of the "dollar of the fathers," a fit subject of laughter for gods and men. In one sense Mr. Kelley may be called the father of the bill, since he reintroduced it at the beginning of the Forty-second Congress, rescuing it from the rubbish heap into which it had fallen at the expiration of the Forty-first. On Mr. Kelley's motion it was referred to the Committee on Coinage, and by him reported back from that committee January 9, 1872. Mr. Kelley stated to the House that the bill had been very carefully considered by the committee of the former Congress, and had been re-examined in all its parts by the new committee, who approved it and recommended its passage. The bill was then recommitted. On the 9th of February it was reported back with an amendment, and again recommitted. On the 13th of February it was reported back with further amendments and made the special order for March 12. The task of explaining the bill by sections was assigned to Mr. Hooper, of Massachusetts, who made a speech on it filling eleven columns of the *Globe*. A protracted debate ensued upon the various subjects embraced in it, and attention was called to the fact that the silver dollar had been dropped from the list of coins, this being, in Mr. Kelley's opinion, one of the most meritorious clauses of the bill. The old silver dollars, he said, would be worth 3½ cents more than gold dollars, if any of them could be found; but they were not to be found, they existed only in collections of curiosities. As for the double standard, he added that such a thing was impossible. We quote his exact words from the debate on this bill April 9, 1872:

"The silver coin of England is ten per cent. below the value of gold coin; and, acting under the advice of the experts of this country and of England and France, Japan has made her silver coinage within the last year twelve per cent. below the value of gold coin, and for this

reason: *it is impossible to retain the double standard.* The values of gold and silver continually fluctuate. You cannot determine this year what will be the relative values of gold and silver next year. They were 15½ to 1 a short time ago; they are 16 to 1 now. Hence all experience has shown that *you must have one standard coin which shall be a legal tender for all others,* and then you may promote your domestic convenience by having a subsidiary coinage of silver which shall circulate in all parts of your country as legal tender for a limited amount, and be redeemable at its face value by your government."

Mr. Hooper, speaking for the Committee, said:

"The silver dollar of 412½ grains, by reason of its bullion or intrinsic value being greater than its nominal value, long since ceased to be a coin of circulation, and is melted by manufacturers as silverware. It does not circulate now in commercial transactions with any country, and the convenience of these manufacturers in this respect can better be met by supplying small stamped bars of the same standard, avoiding the useless expense of coining the dollar for that purpose."

This was a sound and philosophical reason for dropping an obsolete and useless coin, but our present purpose is merely to show how utterly reckless and untruthful is the statement that the bill, or this feature of it, was passed in a surreptitious manner. Mr. Potter, of New York, called attention to the fact that the bill made "legal tender coin of only one metal, and not, as heretofore, of two"; but the House seemed to be entirely satisfied with Mr. Kelley's explanation that a double standard was impossible, and finally passed the bill, May 27, 1872, by yeas 110, nays 13.

But this was not the end of the surreptitious action. Coming forward in a new Congress as an original measure, the bill required to go through the Senate again as though it had never been there before. The House, moreover, had adopted certain amendments requiring careful consideration; among others, one making the Government responsible for the loss resulting from the abrasion of gold coin, and another providing for the coinage of a new dollar of 384 grains, proportionate to the value of the subsidiary coinage, and legal tender for only five dollars. These and other amendments sufficed to secure for the bill a second consideration in committee and in the Senate as thorough as the first had been. On the 13th of January, 1873, this measure, which had been surreptitiously shuffling about the Capitol and sneaking in and out of the public printing-office nearly three years, was passed the second time by the Senate—with amendments, however, so that it was necessary to have a committee of conference upon some minor matters, by whose agreement and report, and with the approval of the Executive, it became a law about one month later, viz., Feb. 12, 1873. In the face of these facts, the Chicago *Tribune* of the 1st inst. has the hardihood to say that the bill was passed "stealthily and fraudulently, by withholding the knowledge of the transaction from the people, stifling discussions, and deceiving even the President."

PALACE CARS.

THE palace car is a characteristic product of our national life. Without the traditional ties that bind the European to his hereditary home, with the general belief that change is not to be dreaded either in home or calling, the whole nation is ever in restless motion. The shrewd, industrious, intellectual Yankee farmer of New England is fast disappearing, ill replaced by coarser-fibred imported Hibernian material; the American pioneer blood which brought into rough subjection the fertile West is almost gone, replaced—and here well replaced—by the heavier German stock; and similar movements are going on in Pennsylvania and, on a smaller scale, in other parts of the Union. In fact, a large part of our people is ever turning over in its head the advantages of somewhere else. Besides this, business in a large part of the country is mainly transacted through "travelling men," who are constantly on the road. The palace car is a natural result of all this. It bears some softened traces of the Mississippi steamboat style, which was our first national attempt at democratic splendor. It has its peculiar school of manners, and not a bad one, whose principal feature is the duty of being always ready to chat with your male fellow-travellers.

As a steady place of abode it has many faults, but on the whole it is far more comfortable, in the poorer portion of the country at least, than the average small hotel, or indeed than the home of most of its occupants. The attentive colored servant, and, above all, the cookery of the dining-car, are scarcely found elsewhere in many States. We have been in a town of over a thousand inhabitants where no book or New York paper could be bought except at the cars, and in "cities" where there were no toilet accommodations to compare with them. In localities where half an hour or more is usually spent in slowly frying the thin beefsteak or boiling the muddy coffee, the palace cook is a missionary of health and joy. These advantages, and the great saving of time by night travel, are well recognized, and every year the number of these cars increases; so that their management is a matter of national importance. We notice this year one or two improvements, and especially this: that the dining-cars—almost the only places where one can get a well-cooked meal beyond the Mississippi, or, indeed, a tolerable cup of coffee—have come into use on nearly every through-line. The Pittsburgh & Fort Wayne road is almost the only great road where we have lately been aroused to breakfast before daylight and dinner before noon; but the Eastern roads are in this, as in many other points, still inferior to the Western ones. Another convenience that has come in at the West is that the porter, before reaching the end of a road, takes orders for palace cars beyond, and telegraphs them without trouble or expense to the traveller.

There are still many points, however, in which these cars are imperfect, and it is to some of these that we wish to call attention. Their primary use is for sleeping, yet most persons find their first night or two in them painfully wakeful, and look on their title—"sleepers"—as a whimsical stroke of American irony. The lower berths are much the most convenient; yet, unless the traveller goes to the unusual expense of buying a whole section, he is probably waked in two or three hours by their closeness. This could be easily remedied by a light rod on the edge of each berth, holding the curtains off a couple of inches from it, so as to allow a slight upward draught. We have found by experience that this kept the air tolerable, and it could be introduced with very little expense. There is also a frequent carelessness in providing buttons to secure the curtains and protect the privacy of the sleeper, which can be readily remedied. The upper berths are better ventilated, but the gap is so wide above the curtains that they are full of glare and noisy with snores. This, again, could be easily cured by carrying the curtains to within three inches of the roof. Another trouble is that travellers are driven by the dreary darkness of the car in the early evening to go to bed before their usual hour, and, indeed, directly after supper, and so the difficulty of sleeping is increased. There are usually but three high-hung candles for the main room, with perhaps a score or more of persons in it. This is quite unnecessary. There should be a chandelier or bracket with several candles ready to insert just overhead in each section, so that reading or playing cards could be made possible. The old evil-smelling oil-lamp, with its glaring reflector, has, fortunately, been abolished in all but a few ill-cared-for old Pullmans; but something is needed in its place, and the above arrangement would be simple and convenient. After travellers have gone to bed there should be no lights except those at the ends of the car, for the present way of leaving the middle ones lighted is very disagreeable in the upper berths. Another point is that there should be less heat in the night. The porters too often make up large fires, to last all night, and go to bed untroubled by the nightmare of the guests. They should have thermometers and be forced to keep the temperature in the vicinity of 50°. This would not remedy the whole trouble, for the ventilation openings are too small, but with higher curtains no objection would be made to their being all wide open. This ventilation annoyance is one of the most serious difficulties of the palace-car at all times. In summer the drawing-room car is frequently hotter and closer than the common car, and many avoid it on that account. The openings in the monitor roof are quite too small. The large windows of some of the best drawing-room cars, for some inexplicable reason, only open a few inches, and are frequently not screened from entering cinders; and they are provokingly adjusted, so that when open they have their wide lower bar just against the pleasantest part of the view, and the cindery air-current blows right in your eyes. This trouble in ventilation should be considered in the construction of new cars; and so should some more efficient system of springs, for the palace-cars are frequently no better hung now than the ordinary cars on the road, and the jar is the cause of a great part of the fatigue. The chairs are, of course, the principal feature in the drawing-room car, and their construction is all-important to comfort, but we never sit down in one without asking ourselves whether the persons who order them have any definite ideas about comfort, or are not, like the brakemen, too young, active,

and unused to sitting down, to care anything about chairs. Most of the chairs of recent date are too small in the seats for any journey of over two hours; they are fatally defective, too, in having no support for the head, the neck being the part of the person which grows weariest in prolonged sitting, and which is most difficult to provide for in attempting to take a nap. Whatever railroad managers may think, a nap is, however objectionable in church, a perfectly innocent, and indeed laudable, indulgence in a car. The contortions which unfortunate passengers, and especially invalids, have now to undergo in order to get into a sleeping posture are discreditable to both Wagner and Pullman and their families. The back ought to be six inches higher, and the difficulty about cleanliness is readily met by a small linen cover, which, however, it may be proper to add, should be washed before each trip. The upholstering of the chair also seems to be the conception of a thoughtless young brakeman. Spring-bottomed chairs should never be used in a public vehicle, because the usage they get is too hard, and repairs too expensive. They are very comfortable when new and in good order, but they are so incessantly flopped into by persons of both sexes who weigh two hundred pounds and upwards, that the springs are soon weakened, and the seat becomes a kind of round trough, in which you are jammed down, with a hard wooden bar passing under your legs just above the knee, impeding the circulation and benumbing the great sciatic nerve. The springs should be all torn out, and replaced by a good clean and cool cane bottom, or else a wooden one with a hair cushion, which can be made over at small cost whenever it gets hard. But all these things ought to be looked after not by a mechanical engineer or a prominent financier, but by some one who gives *thought* to personal comfort, which apparently but few persons connected with railroads have ever done. The arrangements for disposing of one's clothing, for instance, in the sleeping-car are evidently devised by brakemen, as they consist of one hook for each person, so high up as to be only accessible, without considerable difficulty and danger, to a practised gymnast under forty-five. There ought to be a rail or small shelf for this purpose let down in each berth, which also would increase the security against theft. Some Scriptural texts and sayings of philosophers, directed against the practice of loud talking and snoring in the car during sleeping hours, ought to be inscribed on the glass of the lamps or other conspicuous place.

As a general thing there is no trouble to be found with the porter, except in the overwarm fire at night, and we have fancied that more carefully watched lately. He well earns his small fee. Perhaps in time the etiquette of the train-peddler may be less rigorous, and he may not be so unfailing in his interruptions, or so certain in his rebuke of persons who are not willing to have his weekly papers thrust on them. But this is anticipating too much, probably. One thing might be more extensively introduced on trains which, like some of the northerly trains from Boston, carry passengers in the excursion season for five or six hours without a break, and that is an arrangement by which the porter could supply passengers with ices or a light lunch in their seats without any bother, as is now done between Philadelphia and New York, and between Philadelphia and Washington, if we remember rightly. Every year we travel more, and to many these little details of good ventilation and food and seating mean great increase of comfort and strength. Let us hope that improvement will go steadily on.

LIBERALISM IN THE SCOTTISH UNIVERSITIES.

LONDON, November 16, 1877.

TWO out of the four Scottish universities have been in a state of unwonted turmoil during the past three weeks owing to the triennial election to the office of Lord Rector in the two universities respectively. These universities, founded principally in the fifteenth century, resemble the type which is found in Germany and the Netherlands rather than the English type. The professors were originally the governors as well as the teachers, and the colleges were, and are, buildings not, as at Oxford and Cambridge, for the accommodation of fellows and students, but of the professors as public lecturers. Twenty years ago the universities fell into disfavor in Scotland. It was thought that they were falling behind the time, and a commission was appointed to examine into their condition and suggest amendments. The principal alterations carried out by the commissioners affected the governing bodies. By an act passed in 1858 a uniform constitution was provided for all the universities, each of which has now three governing bodies—the Senatus Academicus, consisting of the principal and the professors, to superintend the teaching and discipline and administer the property and revenues; the University Court, consisting of the Lord Rector, principal, and assessors appointed by the chancellor, rector, general council, and Senatus Academicus, to review the decisions of the Senatus and regulate the internal arrangements of the university; and the University Council, consisting of the chancellor, the University Court, professors, masters of arts, and doctors of medicine. The duties of the council are not legislative. It may entertain and deliberate upon any question affecting the university, and make representations regarding them to the University Court. The University Court is thus the most important of the new governing bodies. It is under the presidency of the Lord Rector, who has both a deliberative and a casting vote, and who, with the aid of his assessor, appointed by him, may exercise no small influence over the fortunes of the university during his term of office. By a singular anomaly the Lord Rector is elected by the students—a curious illustration of the representative and democratic tendencies of Scottish institutions. The rectorial election is a thing of long standing in Glasgow, and the electors have for the most part exercised a judicious choice. They vote not as individuals, but as members of what is called a "nation." These "nations" are four in number, named in mediæval Latin as follows:

1. Natio Glottiana (apparently a corruption of the old classical name of the Clyde), consisting of all matriculated students born within the county of Lanark.

2. Natio Transforthana, consisting of all matriculated students born within the counties north of the river Forth.

3. Natio Rothseiana, consisting of all matriculated students born in the counties of Bute, Renfrew, and Ayr.

4. Natio Loudoniana, consisting of all matriculated students not included in any of the other nations.

The peculiarity of the method of voting is that it is not a numerical superiority over head that determines the question, but a numerical superiority of the nations. Thus, the candidate may have the whole of two nations, but be in a minority in the other two, and he will not necessarily be elected. The nations are equal, and the casting vote vests with the chancellor. To win on your merits you must have a majority in all four, or at least in three out of the four nations.

Originally, no doubt, the intention was that the Lord Rector should be chosen in respect of some literary or academical distinction, and efforts are made from time to time by the more academically-minded of the students to revive the original character of the election. At each triennial election the name of some person of literary distinction is suggested. Last time it was, I think, Mr. Emerson who was suggested in Glasgow. This time it was Mr. Froude. Mr. Ruskin, Mr. Browning, Mr. Carlyle, Mr. Matthew Arnold, and others have all been nominated, and some elected, at one or other of the universities. In Glasgow and Edinburgh, however, the contest has generally of late years been fought on political rather than on literary or academical lines. The young students early range themselves into two political camps—Liberal and Conservative respectively—and by mere force of numbers and power of lungs swamp any body of high-minded youths who band together under the title of Independents, and who profess to be influenced by considerations which are not political. The Liberal and Conservative bodies have their organizations, their clubs, their committees, their disciplined armies, with detachments told off for different services—canvassing, squib-writing, newspaper-editing, broad-sheet and placard writing, and all the rest of the panoply of an election contest. For months before the contest the two sides are arrayed against each other with their candidates ready, their forces marshalled, and their strategy prepared. They do the whole thing by their own unaided exertions, it being a matter of honor on the part of the professors or university officials not to intermeddle with the students in the matter, and, judging by the reports in the newspapers, it must be readily admitted that the young lions of the universities do the work uncommonly well.

This year the contest at Glasgow lay between Mr. Gladstone as the Liberal and Sir Stafford Northcote as the Conservative candidates respectively. In Edinburgh Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary, was the Conservative champion, and Lord Hartington the Liberal champion. In both universities the strongest politicians were run against each other and awakened the keenest enthusiasm and partisanship among the students. In both universities, however, the Conservatives were beaten hollow. They literally had not a chance. Mr. Gladstone not only had a numerical majority over head, but he had a majority in all the four nations. He polled as nearly as possible twice the number of votes given to his adversary, Mr. Gladstone having 1,153 votes and Sir Stafford Northcote 609. At Edinburgh, where hitherto the Conservatives have generally carried

everything before them, Lord Hartington defeated Mr. Cross by a majority of 248 votes, he having polled 932 votes and Mr. Cross 684. The Liberal success has thus been complete, and the Liberal students have testified to their delight by torchlight processions and other demonstrations of an exciting though not of an academical character.

In the absence of more stirring political incidents just at present, these university elections have aroused an unwonted interest in the country, and both their moral and their political significance have been freely discussed. I have heard it asked, on the one hand, whether these political excitements are beneficial to the students, and whether it is well that the ingenuous Scotchman of a perfervid temperament should be encouraged in embarking so early in life upon the whirl of politics. And I have heard it asked with some anxiety whether there is any real significance in the defeat of the Conservative candidates, and whether these contests point to a change in the political feelings of the country.

These are both interesting enough as matters of speculation. It must be admitted that young students, for the most part the sons of poor men, were not sent to the universities to learn the science of electioneering. It must further be admitted that these triennial elections cannot fail for a time to distract the attention of the young men from their regular university work. But though the political life may not be so ideal as the speculative life, the political life is that which nine Scotchmen and nine Englishmen out of ten are in the habit of living. Almost every one in this country takes an interest in practical politics and in practical politicians, and an early introduction into the realities of political life is not without its advantages. Though not in the university curriculum, the science of politics is not without some educational value, and the science of electioneering is only a part—perhaps not a very noble part—of the science of politics. It does a young Scotchman no harm to begin early to recognize the differences between the two parties in the state, and even when young to take his side. And when he goes back to his father's house in some remote village or country parish the fact that he has taken an active part in an election contest in his university will not do him any harm. It probably will have given him active ideas upon one branch of public life which may widen and intensify the character of his mind for life. Again, the Scottish students' university time is a dull and monotonous grind of hard, unexciting work during their whole undergraduate days. They have few amusements or interests or sports such as the Oxford and Cambridge students enjoy to the full. The excitement of an election contest, with its committee meetings, its squibs, its public demonstrations, its partisan songs, its torchlight processions through the murky streets of Glasgow, even its occasional half-friendly, half-hostile rencounters with the opposite party, can be ungrudgingly granted to them once every three years. There may be some evil connected with these proceedings, but the good, in my opinion, at least preponderates, and I hope they may long continue.

The other question, as to whether the result of these contests points to any change of feeling in the country, is not easy to answer. There is a mediæval rhyming distich something to this effect—the exact words I do not remember:

"Cum pugnant Oxonienses,
Post paucos menses
Volat ira per Angligenses."

When young Oxford takes to fighting we may expect some excitement in a month or two throughout the whole of England. Similarly, when the Scottish students have decided by overwhelming majorities that the two most representative Liberals are more eligible than the two most representative Conservatives, it does seem like the forerunner of a change of feeling, and it is somewhat remarkable that these Scottish University contests have not unfrequently in time past resulted in the success of the party of the future when its destinies appeared to be overclouded. The present contests may indicate a change of feeling, and they probably do so, because the reawakening of Liberalism in this country is beginning, and the effect of that reawakening may have touched the youthful politicians of the North a little earlier than their seniors, who sleep more soundly. But, on the other hand, the Liberal candidates were exactly the sort of men to take the fancy and excite the imaginations of generous youth. Mr. Gladstone's eloquence, his earnestness, his nobility of character, and his age were all elements of attraction. Lord Hartington's youth and promise, his great position, his downright sturdiness of purpose and intellectual honesty, combined with his character and reputation as a sportsman, as a first-rate shot, a good man across country, the owner of one of the best stables in England—all these qualities made themselves felt among the students and made him popular. The eminent statesmen set up against Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington had nothing to recommend them except a reputation for matter-of-fact commonsense statesmanship—excellent characteristics in their way, but not the kind to fire the imagination or kindle the enthusiasm of youth.

CHÂTEAU D'AMBOISE.

PARIS, November 2, 1877.

AMONG the estates of the Orléans family confiscated by the Second Empire, and since given back to the Orléans by the Constituent Assembly, is the famous castle of Amboise, with its adjacent forest. Amboise, situated on the west of a hill, above the river Loire, is in a very picturesque situation, but it had fallen into such a state of dilapidation that it was hardly ever visited by the many tourists who go to Chenonceaux, to Blois, to Chambord, and to the other châteaux of the Loire. The Orléans princes, after the old estates of their family had returned into their hands (at least the part which had not been alienated during the Empire), divided these estates among themselves, and the Château d'Amboise fell to the lot of the Comte de Paris. The first time the prince visited Amboise, he did not even find a room ready to receive him; the château had been given to Abd-el-Kader and his Arabs while he was a prisoner in France, and the only rooms which were habitable when Abd-el-Kader arrived had been allowed, after his departure, to fall into a state of complete decay. During the war the château had been turned into a barrack, and in the year 1871 there was not a bed, nor a chair, nor a table left in it. The windows were broken, the rain entered the roofs and the rooms. Nothing remained but the shell, as it were, of the little palace in the Renaissance style which had been built under Francis I.

The Comte de Paris examined carefully the site of the château. The palace was built on the terrace of a much older château; in fact, Amboise was a fortified manor—what we call in France a *donjon*. Imagine a great rock, surrounded by water, and only accessible by two huge towers; such was Amboise at first. The two towers were built against and in the rock; at their foot was a ditch and a draw-bridge. Let us for a moment suppose ourselves on the draw-bridge of the huge Tour des Minimes (which has just been restored by the Comte de Paris), which looks directly upon the Loire. The door is opened, and we arrive not at a staircase but at an inclined plane, which winds round the tower to the top of the hill. Four horsemen abreast can easily mount this inclined plane. A great cavalry force could thus be kept on the little plateau which overlooked the Loire on one side, and on the other side a little rivulet, which is faced by the second tower, similar to the first, and called Tour Heurtant. On the top of each tower is a stone platform, which could receive artillery. The valley of the Loire could thus be completely swept and overlooked. You imagine the guns mounted on their towers, and their bronze ends showing between the *créneaux*. A small passage, which has been rebuilt by the architect, leads to the sentry and guard rooms. Every door fastens on the inside with enormous iron bars. The whole place was a fortress, which could only be approached on one side; the rock is everywhere perpendicular, and an enemy could only climb through the brushwood which grows in the crevices of the calcareous rock.

The Tour des Minimes was a complete ruin two years ago; it is now as perfect and as complete as it was in the Middle Ages. You can find many a fine château in the valley of the Loire, but this military tower, used for cavalry, has no parallel, and is a great curiosity in every respect. The inclined plane does not fill the whole tower; it only fills the space between two cylinders; so that there is an inner tower which is excessively imposing, and from the lower part of it you can see to the top, which is formed by a beautiful Gothic vault. This tower of Amboise, restored as it is, is one of the most curious specimens of the military art of old times. Such a place could serve as a prison as well as a citadel. While Louis XI. led his solitary life in his *donjon* of Plessis-lès-Tours, he kept his son in confinement at the Château d'Amboise. (From the top of the Tour des Minimes I could distinctly see the towers of the Cathedral of Tours.) This son was a mere boy at the time when Louis XI. died; he became king under the name of Charles VIII. You find everywhere at Amboise the traces of Charles VIII. and of his wife, Anne de Bretagne. The emblem of Charles VIII. was a porcupine, and Anne de Bretagne's was an *aumonière*, a purse for alms. These emblems are found on the vaults of the great inclined plane of the Tour des Minimes and on various windows; a huge porcupine is on the low door which caused the fall and afterwards the death of Charles VIII. When you look from the high walls of Amboise over the valley of the Loire, and see on the distant horizon the Cathedral of Tours, you understand at once how in the fifteenth century Touraine had become the heart of France.

The royal power was not secure enough in Paris; at the north of the capital of the Seine were terrible strongholds—Pierrefonds, Coucy, Crépy; and the prince or lord who had possession of the Duchy of Valois was virtually master of Paris. Between the valley of the Seine and the valley of the Loire lay the great plain, half filled at the time by the forest of Orléans. Louis XI. well understood that the best strategic position in France was this valley of the Loire; his dream had been to unite Brittany to Touraine, and to fortify the monarchy in the east as well as in the centre of France. This dream became a reality in the reign of Charles VIII. The marriage of the king of France with the heiress of the great Celtic province of Brittany was the death-blow of the feudal system.

It is well known that Charles VIII. made the conquest of Naples. The Italian influence soon became very powerful in France; at Amboise, what I may call the old feudal substructure was covered with new constructions, in which the Italian forms superseded the old Gothic forms. The Gothic spirit shows itself now in its purity only in the small, isolated chapel, which is a jewel. It is a toy rather than a church, and could hardly hold more than thirty people at a time. It is dedicated to St. Christopher and St. Hubert, as is well shown in beautiful sculptures, as fine as lace-work. The good Comines says in his memoirs: "I will now stop talking of the affairs of Italy and Castile, and return to our sorrows and losses in France, and speak of the sudden death of our King Charles, the eighth of the name, who was in his castle of Amboise, where he had undertaken to build the highest edifice a king has built for a century, as may be seen from the towers, which are ascended on horseback; . . . and he had brought from Naples various excellent workmen—stone-cutters and painters." I must cite also the account which Comines gives of the death of his royal master: "The seventh day of April, in the year 1498, the day before Easter, the King left the room of Queen Anne of Brittany, and took her with him to look at those who played at tennis in the ditches of the castle. As they entered together in a gallery called Haquelebac (since a certain Haquelebac had had it long in his keeping), the King bumped his forehead at the entrance against the door, though he was of very small stature. He then looked long at the players and spoke to everybody. I was not present (but his confessor, the Bishop of Angers, and his chamberlains told me of it), as I had left eight days before to go to my own house. The last word he said, being in health, was that he hoped he would never, if he could, commit a mortal or even a venial sin; and in saying this he fell back and lost the power of speech (it was about two o'clock), and there remained till eleven o'clock at night. Three times he recovered the power of speech, but feebly. . . . Anybody who liked entered this gallery, and found him lying on a poor straw-mattress, where he finally rendered his soul."

This gallery Haquelebac (the name is probably a corruption of a German or Swiss name Achelbach) is still in existence, and has always preserved its name. Not far from it is the long balcony with the iron bars where the conspirators were hung at the time of the "Conjuration d'Amboise." In the year 1560 the Protestants had chosen the young Prince of Condé for their leader; they were preparing to rise against Catherine de Médicis and the Duc de Guise. A plot was formed, but was betrayed to Guise by a lawyer. The day fixed for the general rising of the Huguenots was the 17th of March; the rendezvous was in Touraine. Troops of cavalry came out of the big towers of Amboise, and attacked separately the little groups of Huguenot noblemen before they could all assemble. On the 18th all was over. A number of obscure followers had been murdered, thrown into the Loire; the massacre was horrible. The most important Huguenots were conducted to Amboise and cross examined. The chief of the conspiracy was La Renaudie, who had been killed, arms in hand, in an ambush near Château-Renaud. But it was found that behind La Renaudie there was a hidden chief, who was called the "mute captain." Some conspirators were put to the torture at Amboise, but they could or would say no more. Who could the "mute captain" be but Condé, a prince of the blood, ambitious, jealous of the Duc de Guise? There is a curious collection of prints representing the various scenes of the wars of religion in France. In this very rare collection, named after Tortorel and Perrissin, there is a picture of the balcony at Amboise, with the bodies of the Huguenots hanging from the huge iron bars. This balcony has never been altered, and as I laid my hand on it I saw in imagination the hideous corpses. I remembered how young Agrippa d'Aubigné, riding as a mere boy with his father, saw this same balcony, and how his father made him swear to avenge the victims when he should come to manhood. The first war of religion began in reality at Amboise. "The participation of Condé in the plot," says the Duc d'Aumale in his history, "is not doubtful; but it did not all proceed from him. The Protestant party, already strongly constituted, had furnished an army with its chiefs, all ready to act. Coligny was the soul and the chief of it. . . . He had, in a meeting at La Ferté-sous-Jouarre, after the coronation of the king, revealed to Condé the number of the Protestants, the organization of the churches, their relations with the Lutheran princes of Germany." The Comte de Paris intends to preserve all that can be preserved at Amboise, and surely he will not change the famous balcony of the "Conjuration."

Little remains of the palace which was built by Francis I. and adorned by Henri II. The greatest part was destroyed by fire; the aisle, which is still in existence, has been completely dishonored and mutilated. The Comte de Paris spends all the income of the forest of Orléans on the work of restoring the château; he has begun, very wisely, in the chronological order. The huge feudal towers of the *donjon* are perhaps the most interesting feature of Amboise. Before the Renaissance castle can be entirely rebuilt many years will elapse. Next year the gallery Haquelebac and the guard-rooms will be put in repair. No nobler use could be found for the revenues of an old Orléans estate than this historical restoration. The Comte de Paris lives at Eu, in the old château of Guise and of the Grande Mademoiselle. He does not intend ever to inhabit Amboise, but he has thought it his duty to preserve and to restore the house of Charles VIII., the place to which Francis I. invited Leonardo da Vinci, where Leonardo died, and which is, after Fontainebleau and Versailles, one of the most notable mansions of the old monarchy.

Correspondence.

THE COUNTERFEITER OF 1784 AND THE INFLATIONIST OF 1877.

"THERE IS NOTHING NEW UNDER THE SUN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I recently happened across a curious book, published very early in the present century, called the 'Memoirs of the Notorious Stephen Burroughs.' It is an autobiography, and a very entertaining one too, giving queer glimpses of old New England life and manners. Though the son of a New Hampshire clergyman, Burroughs was a very great rogue. Born in 1765, he entered Dartmouth college in 1780 and was expelled in 1782. Subsequently, in 1785, he was arrested for uttering counterfeit silver money in Springfield, Mass., was convicted, and served out a three years' sentence, after a fashion very unpleasant both to himself and his keepers. In his memoirs he endeavors to make out tha he had been the life-long victim of mishap and persecution, and his explanation of the counterfeiting business reads like an extremely funny parody of some speech by Judge Kelley, or Gen. Butler, or Mr. Bland, or Wendell Phillips. Indeed, if written now, it would be looked upon as mere plagiarism; but it was actually written in 1791. I think I am doing a real service to the whole school of paper-money and silver speech-makers in asking the *Nation* to print the passage I refer to in full.

The question was of passing counterfeit silver dollars. A dear friend of Burroughs, whom he calls by the name of Lysander, had a bagful of them, and proposed to go regularly into the business of making more. Burroughs strenuously tried to dissuade him on high moral grounds, when Lysander thus silenced his "bullion-monger" mentor, anticipating in so doing Phillips of "the silver-tongue" by no less than eighty years. After stating the case, Burroughs adds, as well he might, "I blush to tell you the truth! I feel ashamed of my own weakness! These arguments convinced me, unfounded as they were." Here are the arguments; and it must be remembered it is the counterfeiter of 1784 who is speaking, and not the inflationist of 1877:

"'From what I have observed, I believe you will readily agree with me that I am right in prosecuting my present plan, if I can make it evident that no danger of injury will arise to any one from it, and that by it many will be made better. Money of itself is of no consequence, only as we, by mutual agreement, annex to it a nominal value as the representation of property. Anything else might answer the same purpose equally with silver and gold, should mankind only agree to consider it as such and carry that agreement into execution in their dealings with each other. We find this verified, in fact, by those bills of credit which are in circulation through the world. Those bills simply are good for nothing; but the moment mankind agree to put a value upon them, as representing property, they become of as great consequence as silver and gold, and no one is injured by receiving a small, insignificant piece of paper for an hundred bushels of wheat when mankind stamp that value upon it by agreeing to receive it for that amount. Therefore, we find the only thing

necessary to make a matter valuable is to induce the world to deem it so; and let that esteem be raised by any means whatever, yet the value is the same, and no one becomes injured by receiving it at the valuation. Hence, we find the world putting an enormous value upon certain stones which intrinsically are of no use—as, for instance, the diamond, the carbuncle, etc. These stones cannot be made use of in any pursuit of life; they will not serve for food, for raiment, or for any instrument of any kind whatever; therefore, of what real use can they be? Their scarcity and certain peculiarities have induced mankind to esteem them, and this esteem stamps a value upon them, so that they pass from one to another as the representation of property; hence, the holders of them always have a valuable possession, and probably always will have, which they at any time can exchange for property of more immediate consequence to their support. Had I the art of making diamonds, do you suppose I should transgress the laws of equity in putting that art into practice?—except I should fill the world with them so as to destroy their scarcity and hence depreciate their value in the hands of others. To put this art into practice, so as to enrich myself and not destroy that due proportion between representative property and real property, is doing myself a favor and injuring none. Gold and silver are made use of for convenience to transact our business of barter and exchange with each other as the representative of property, it being less cumbersome and more easy to communicate from one to another than real property of any kind. Hence, when there is a due proportion of representative property business can be transacted to the greatest advantage and with the greatest ease, and when the public experience a scarcity or redundancy, they, of course, suffer an inconveniency; therefore, that person who contributes his mite to keep the balance between these two species of property just poised, is a blessing to himself and to the community of which he is a member. That an undue scarcity of cash now prevails is a truth too obvious for me to attempt to prove. Your own observation will convince you of it. Hence, whoever contributes really to increase the quantity of cash does not only himself, but likewise the community, an essential benefit. And that this can be done in the pursuit which I have undertaken, and without endangering the safety of any one, I will convince you by ocular demonstration.'

"He then presented me with a bag of dollars," etc.

So it appears that these arguments and this kind of talk did duty among counterfeiters during the last century, while in this they pass current among members of Congress. Yet certainly the fallacies are quite as apparent now as they were then. The only difference seems to be that, while Burroughs had the grace to "blush" and be "ashamed" when he confessed that he had ever failed to see through them, Ewing, Kelley, and the rest use them again and again, and, so far as can be seen, they neither blush nor are ashamed.

But then Burroughs, though he was a rogue, was unquestionably by nature a clear-headed man. A.

Boston, November 27, 1877.

TWO METALS AND ONE STANDARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The silver question presents two phases, the ethical and the economic. The latter I do not purpose to discuss. My sympathies are with the monometallists, though I think they carry their theories farther in some respects than the facts warrant. But I want to put in an objection to the remarks so often made about the dishonesty of remonetizing silver. It is said to be dishonest to employ silver in the payment of debts because it is worth less than gold, less even than legal-tender notes. From 1792 to 1834 the market value of gold was greater than its legal-tender value. It was consequently exported, and our currency was silver. We settled our debts in silver because it was the cheaper metal. Was that dishonest?

From 1837 to quite a recent date the market value of silver was, owing to the coinage acts of 1834 and 1837, greater than its legal-tender value. Silver was exported, and we paid our debts in gold, because we could pay them easier in gold than in silver, down to the suspension of specie payments in 1861. Was that dishonest?

The *Nation* which has just reached me describes precisely similar events in France, in the following language:

"From the passage of the coinage laws of the years III (1795) and XI down to 1850, silver, as the cheaper metal, was the money in daily use in France. . . . In 1848 came the gold discoveries in California and Australia. Gold began to fall in value. Accordingly, between 1850 and 1860 1,300,000,000 francs in silver were *ex*ported, and 3,000,000,000 francs in gold were *im*ported. Silver passed out of circulation except for small change, and gold came into use under the well-known law as the overvalued metal, and so continued down to the suspension of specie payment in 1870."

I want to know if it was dishonest for Frenchmen to make merchandise of the dearer metal and pay their home debts in the cheaper metal?

At the present time in our country gold is the dearer of the two metals. If it is dishonest to employ silver in the payment of debts now, Americans and Frenchmen must have been following dishonest courses for the last century.

The Act of 1869, to strengthen the public credit, promised coin to the bondholders; but coin, according to the statutes, the dictionary, and the Congressional debates, meant silver quite as much as gold. There is therefore neither legal nor moral objection to paying the bonds in silver; nor is there any equitable objection to redeeming in silver dollars worth ninety cents in gold bonds that were sold for greenbacks worth from forty to eighty cents in gold. In nearly all cases the holders of five-years' mortgages and other debts on long time would receive much more than they advanced, even if they were paid in silver dollars, and supposing that remonetization did not raise the price of silver. That it would be wise financiering to stop the sale of four-per-cent. bonds by remonetizing silver, I don't pretend to say; but it must be remembered that the national indebtedness is a much larger thing than the national debt.

I admit that American and French history proves the double standard to be impracticable. I admit that gold fluctuates less than silver, and is, therefore, a better standard. On the other hand, with our great silver-mines it would be a disadvantage for us to have silver discarded as coin. Its employment as coin would steady its value. Other things being equal, the larger the volume of currency the less likely is there to be a stringency in the money market; the less likely is a great, occasional demand for money to force up its value spasmodically. The more wheat there is in the country, the greater is the difficulty of creating a "corner" in wheat. Why not coin the silver dollar and make it a legal tender at its market value in gold? This seems to me practicable and wise. In that case we should have the one gold standard, and the sea of currency would be so deep that it would take a long-continued gale to ruffle its surface seriously. Suppose gold stands at 102 in silver. A city wishes to redeem $100,000 of its bonds. The very act of going into the market and buying the gold to pay the bonds would probably raise the premium. But the city can buy $102,000 in silver without raising the price of gold, and giving it a temporary and exceptionally enhanced value. If the purchase of the silver raised its price nearer to gold, so much the better. If gold stood at 98 in silver it would be optional with the city to pay $100,000 in gold or $98,000 in silver. The city would pay in that coin which it could purchase with the least disturbance to the market.

But, it may be objected, why not make iron, copper, or pork a legal tender in the same way? Simply because it would be inconvenient. Gold and silver are not made legal tender because of any magic in them, but because of their convenience, their durability, and their great value in proportion to their weight. As long as silver is worth considerably over a gold dollar an ounce it is sufficiently precious to be convenient as coin.

If all civilized nations are to demonetize silver, and use gold exclusively, the lack of money will be a frightful obstacle to the transaction of business. It is better to be deluged with silver than with paper money, or to be obliged to return to barter. The scheme I have here spoken of would have these advantages: It would give us a currency with an intrinsic value—a coin currency. It would give us a single standard, and the steadiest standard that we can obtain. It would give that standard increased steadiness by checking some of the forces that cause it, when it is the only currency, to fluctuate. It would remove the currency to a considerable extent from the influences of the Bank of England's rate of discount and the speculations of the Gold Board. It would give us a currency too large to be "cornered" or easily disturbed by the various forces of commerce.

The best clock pendulums are made of two metals whose expansions and contractions correct each other. The best currency consists of gold and silver. When our gold is contracted by operations in Europe our silver can expand. While I would make gold the standard, I would not require all payments to be made in gold, for that would, whenever there was an unusual demand for money, cause the standard to fluctuate unnecessarily. Yours respectfully,

Fred. Perry Powers.

Chicago, Nov. 24, 1877.

[The difference between paying in the cheaper metal when both are legal tender, and demonetizing or remonetizing one metal for the purpose of paying in the cheaper metal, is the difference between taking advantage of the unforeseen or unexpected effects of the laws of trade and making laws for your own advantage, and this is ethically very important. The French in 1795 honestly believed

the two metals could be made to circulate together, and so did we in 1792, and there had then been none of the violent fluctuations in the value of gold or silver which have recently occurred. When, however, the laws of trade withdrew one metal from use as money, both we and the French governed ourselves accordingly, adapting our dealings to a state of things for which nobody was responsible because nobody had brought it about. Now, however, after nearly a century of very striking experience of the impossibility of the double standard, and in the presence of extraordinary and violent changes in the value of silver, it is proposed deliberately to bring it into use as a standard, for the avowed purpose of taking advantage of its great depreciation in the payment of debts. Nothing like this has hitherto occurred either in our monetary history or that of France since the Revolution. It is as far removed morally from our practice of paying in the cheaper metal hitherto as the practice of selling sanded sugar is from taking advantage of a scarcity to get a high price for a low grade of sugar, and is only one degree better than adulterating the coinage, or, as they call it at the South, "readjusting the debt." Our correspondent's proposal we think a very rational and, perhaps, feasible one. So possibly is that of "A Subscriber," which follows, though attended with serious practical difficulties; but what "silverman" proper has suggested anything of the kind? The very attempt to do justice which they involve would disgust him with them.—Ed. Nation.]

HOW TO FIX THE VALUE OF INDEBTEDNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the present multiplicity of writing and talking and legislating upon the subject of inflation and contraction and silver remonetization, I have never seen any suggestion of one other mode of solving the perplexing question. It is the passage of a law making all debts payable in the same value at which they were contracted. Such a law would be a compromise between the creditor contractionist and the debtor inflationist, and would not, it seems, give any undue advantage to either. Gold being the universally recognized standard of value, property values keep pace with it, and rise or fall as a substituted currency depreciates or appreciates. It therefore follows that a man who buys a property when gold is at 200, and mortgages it for half its value, will find that, if the mortgage falls due when gold is at par, the property will be worth no more than the mortgage, and his original investment will be utterly lost. If, on the other hand, the indebtedness can be paid in equal value at which it was contracted, the value of the property will shrink one-half, the mortgage one-half, and the equity one-half. And this would be just to all, for both the purchase-money paid and the property itself were worth only one-half their nominal value at the time of purchase. The same equity would be preserved if the debt should be contracted when gold was at par or at a low premium, repaid when gold was at a higher premium. The recorded daily quotations of the Gold Room would afford a sure and easy means of determining the value of indebtedness at all times.

If you will kindly publish your opinion of this suggestion you will oblige

A Subscriber.

Philadelphia, December 3, 1877.

MR. SUMNER AND ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In my letter of November 3 on the late Mr. Sumner and the Alaska purchase I called attention to four unqualified categorical statements in Mr. Elliott's article in *Harper's Magazine*, and, avoiding most carefully any expression of opinion on my own behalf or on that of Mr. Sumner, or any one else, I showed by documentary and impregnable evidence that three of these statements were absolutely false; while the opinion of the chief commercial paper of San Francisco on the fourth was given without comment, and may be said fairly to sustain the value of the fisheries.

I showed that Mr. Sumner in his speech, and other advocates of the treaty in a Congressional report, mentioned the fur-seal islands and their inhabitants by name, and in some detail referred to the supposed number and value of the catch. Mr. Elliott had twice stated, without any qualification whatever, that they were not "mentioned" or "alluded to." In his letter in your last issue he now admits that they were alluded to, and actually quotes from the allusion.

I enumerated the authorities (most of whom were dead fifty years before the treaty was thought of) on which Mr. Sumner's statements in his speech were based—among whom Professor Baird was one—and I asserted that they could *not be considered as advocates of the treaty*, by whom, in the first instance, Mr. Elliott asserted Mr. Sumner was deceived. Mr. Elliott, reversing (as usual) my statement, is at some pains to prove that I was right.

For any errors or deficiencies, if such exist, in the extract from the *Commercial Herald* the editor of that able journal is responsible and not the subscriber; but until such are shown, and in rebuttal of Mr. Elliott's wild assertion in regard to Okhotsk fish, I may say that, as far as data have come to hand (and the season of 1877 is not yet concluded), in 1876, out of eleven fishing vessels two went to the Okhotsk, bringing back 230,000 fish out of a total catch of 804,000; and in 1877 two went, one of which has returned with 62,000 fish against 381,000 for the same period received from Alaska.

Mr. Elliott in your last issue, in modifying (without indicating that he has done so) his first statement by the unauthorized introduction of the words "*as such*," endeavors to change his base and escape from the stern facts by which he was confronted. He cannot quote "verbatim" or "by context" *any* modifying words from his article, for they do not exist there. If by his assertions that I have "not quoted Mr. Sumner's words at all," and that I have suppressed "the words of the Senator," he intends to affirm that the words in my first letter cited from Mr. Sumner's speech in quotation marks are not to be found there, or appear there as quotations, or are in any way garbled, the falsity of such affirmation may be determined by any one who will refer to the speech itself. It was the fact of mention, not the opinion, which I undertook to and did establish.

In conclusion, I emphasize that the points I attempted to prove as facts are now admitted as such by Mr. Elliott himself, and he has shown no reason for doubting the value of the opinion on the fisheries expressed by the *Commercial Herald*. Further than the establishment of my original points I do not propose to go or to be led. It does seem funny, however, that the proclaimer of the worthlessness of Alaska should be discovered finding fault with the *moderation* of the estimates made by Mr. Sumner of any particular one of the resources of the Territory.

I remain very respectfully,

Wm. H. Dall.

Smithsonian Institute, Washington, D. C., Nov. 23, 1877.

[We can publish nothing more on this subject.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

THE American copyright edition of Dr. Schliemann's 'Mycenæ,' bearing the imprint of Scribner, Armstrong & Co., will be issued here simultaneously with Mr. Murray's edition in England. The extraordinary feature of this work is its illustrations, more than seven hundred in number, including maps, colored plates, etc.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. send us their handsome quarto edition of Worcester's Dictionary, ocular evidence of the successful transplanting of this Boston product to a heretofore uncongenial clime. As we have ourselves been almost singular in following Worcester's orthography in a city where Webster rules the printing-office and the school, we have looked with complacency on this carrying the war into Africa. We say so without prejudice in other respects to Webster, and without pretending that we have tried to get along with either dictionary alone; or that we regard either or both combined as an adequate monument of the English language.——D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'Elements of Geology,' a text-book for colleges and for the general reader, by Professor Joseph Le Conte.——'Harvard and its Surroundings,' a guide-book for visitors to the university, by Moses King and T. P. Ivy, is announced for speedy publication by Mr. King. It will contain eighteen heliotype plates (or forty views), besides numerous wood-cuts, and sixty pages of letter-press.——'Realmah and Other Verses,' by Lawrence Buckley Thomas, author of 'Genealogical Notes'; and a supplement to these 'Notes,' will be published by the author at 54 McCulloh Street, Baltimore.——The *Athenæum* announces a fac-simile reprint of John Eliot's 'Indian Primer,' by Andrew Elliot, of Edinburgh, from the original edition of 1669, a perfect copy of which is in the library of the University of Edinburgh. Mr. Small, the librarian, will furnish an introduction.

—On a chance re-reading of Mr. Fitzgerald's version of the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyam, we have been reminded, by the part which pottery

plays in it, of the refrain in Mr. Longfellow's "Kéramos." It must be confessed, we think, that Omar went deeper into the subject than our New England laureate, whose potter has a perception, indeed, that

> "The human race,
> Of every tongue, of every place,
> . . . . . .
> Whatever be their rank or worth,
> Are kindred and allied by birth,
> And made of the same clay,"

but does not quite realize that it is his own flesh and blood he is kneading and shaping:

> "Turn, turn, my wheel! This earthen jar
> A touch can make, a touch can mar;
> And shall it to the Potter say,
> What makest thou? Thou hast no hand?
> As men who think to understand
> A world by their Creator planned,
> Who wiser is than they."

Omar's jars talk not so vicariously, nor do they point precisely the same moral:

> "Then to the lip of this poor earthen urn
> I lean'd, the secret of my life to learn;
> And lip to lip it murmured: 'While you live,
> Drink!—for, once dead, you never shall return.'
>
> "I think the vessel that with fugitive
> Articulation answer'd, once did live,
> And drink; and ah! the passive lip I kiss'd,
> How many kisses might it take—and give!
>
> "For I remember stopping by the way
> To watch a Potter thumping at his clay;
> And with its all-obliterated tongue
> It murmured—'Gently, brother, gently, pray!'"

This is quite in the spirit of

> "Non hai tu spirto di pietade alcuno?"

Later on in the poem (stanzas lxxxii.–xc.) there is a fine dialogue of the "shapes of clay" within the potter's house:

> "Shapes of all sorts and sizes, great and small,
> That stood along the floor and by the wall;
> And some loquacious vessels were; and some
> Listen'd perhaps, but never talk'd at all."

They argue against the probability of their creator's destroying them, but are summarily put down by a sceptical enquirer:

> "Whereat some one of the loquacious lot—
> I think a Sûfi pipkin—waxing hot—
> 'All this of pot and potter? Tell me, then,
> Who makes—Who sells—Who buys—Who *is* the pot?'"

—The writer of the article on "Washington Society" in the December *Atlantic* had a good subject, but his treatment of it is avowedly inadequate. He insists upon the economical scale of receptions at the national capital, and gives the true reason for it; and upon the union there, as almost nowhere else in this country, of politics and society; and upon the democratic laxity of admission to official receptions, and the equally democratic *rigueur* of returning visits "(by leaving a card) on all persons, known or unknown," who present themselves on these occasions. This is all very interesting, but it leaves the field clear to some one else, with a wider experience perhaps, who can trace for us the development of Washington society since the abolition of slavery in the District, and the substitution of the Northern for the Southern ideal, and the great increase in the number of clerks and other salaried officials, and the extraordinary growth of libraries, museums, and art-galleries. The winter climate of Washington as an attraction for cultivated persons whose health is delicate; the opportunities for literary and scientific study, almost if not quite unsurpassed on the continent; the improved facilities for making Washington a more or less temporary stopping-place for travellers to all points of the compass, are also worthy of consideration and exposition. A university of the first-class the capital has not and may never have, and certainly cannot have under Government auspices so long as our politics remain what they are; but, all the same, the nearness of the Johns-Hopkins University may exert a positive influence on intellectual as well as social life in Washington. Numerous reasons that lie upon the surface might be assigned for the worthlessness of the Washington press, but we do not know that any of them is fatal to the hope of an ultimate success in enterprise as well as in character. Many scientific and learned periodicals would naturally be issued from the capital—an American geographical magazine, for example, or an ethnological journal, or such a *Zeit- und Streit-Fragen* series as that which contributes to the political education of Germany. The future of art in Washington no doubt largely depends on the decline of Congressional jobbery; but Government patronage will probably always labor under the defect of democratic notions as to the qualifications necessary for judging works of art, and even as to the right of any State or Territory to have "more than its share" of commissions.

—On Monday evening there was opened in the galleries of the Academy of Design a Loan Exhibition of works of art and curiosity. This really considerable collection has been brought together by the managers and friends of the Society of Decorative Art, and the profits of the exhibition are to go to the treasury of that association. Each of the galleries, except the large South room, has been delivered over to a committee of ladies, with such aid of gentlemen, known as collectors and students, as could be secured, and in their hands the West gallery has become a very interesting show of lace, with some few embroideries; the East gallery is crowded with a brilliant but very miscellaneous gathering of porcelain and faience, silver and jewelry, embroideries and brocades; the sculpture gallery is called the "Mediæval" or the "Renaissance" room, and is hung with ancient tapestries and crowded with carved furniture and show-cases full of treasures of the decorative arts of Europe; and the large corridor seems to have caught what the galleries could not contain. The North room alone is devoted to that branch of art which has made up all American exhibitions until very lately—viz., modern paintings. The New York public has seen exhibitions of decorative art only within the walls of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, and the space at the command of that institution has been always hitherto so limited that it will surprise no person familiar with the private collections of the city to learn that there is much now at the Academy which is wholly new to public exhibitions. Not only are the thousands of articles (save two or three) all now for the first time exhibited, but many collectors have now for the first time opened their private stores; and, also, there are some branches of art which now for the first time are properly represented. We can make no attempt this week to mention separate articles, but the Oriental embroideries and stuffs in the East gallery should be studied; in the Renaissance room there are three tapestries of extraordinary beauty and value; and the mediæval manuscripts and early printed books, nearly all belonging to one and the same well-known collector, are treasures which we are glad to see secured for America.

—This Society of Decorative Art has been established with the view of giving at once employment and the opportunities of enlarged cultivation to persons who have some capacity for artistic design. Given a multitude of men and women who think they can design: to select those who really have some gift that way, to develop and encourage that power of theirs, and then to give it profitable employment; such, in brief, is the object of this society. It has taken a house at No. 4 East Twentieth Street, between Broadway and Fifth Avenue, and there are held classes in embroidery and ceramic painting; there meet the committees which have to perform the arduous duties of criticism and selection; and there is the salesroom where the approved pieces of work are offered to the public. The difficulties which beset all such enterprises are inseparably connected with the attempt to get serious work done by unpaid officers, busy with their own affairs. It is not probable that the society can long flourish in that way; it will need to pay two or three considerable salaries to competent superintendents. But for the present all works with smoothness, and the outlook is promising for the exercising of a large and wholesome influence over the community.

—It is now nearly fifty years since there was published in London a collection of neat little 16mo volumes, some thirty-odd in number, containing a few of the best of the many charming autobiographies of which our language, either originally or by translation, was then possessed. This collection is still much sought after and esteemed by book-lovers. The collection of "Choice Autobiographies" which Mr. W. D. Howells is now editing and James R. Osgood & Co. are now publishing resembles the earlier one in form, and some of the five volumes already issued were also comprised in the former series. But in one point the American collection differs, and for the better, from its English predecessor: each life is preceded by an introductory essay from the pen of Mr. Howells, whose literary qualities are nowhere more apparent or more delightful than in these prefaces. Some of these *études*—and the word is in order, as they bear a striking resemblance to the best of the *études* which the French are accustomed to prefix to the *édition définitive* of a classic—have already appeared in the pages of the *Atlantic Monthly*, notably those on Alfieri and Goldoni, two subjects upon which, as might have been expected, Mr. Howells writes with the fullest knowledge and the most loving appreciation. Others now appear for the first time. Of the five volumes already issued Goldoni and Alfieri fill one each, Lord Herbert of Cherbury and Thomas Elwood occupy another together, and the other two are taken up

with the memoirs of Frederica Wilhelmina, Margravine of Baireuth. There is no variety of literature more interesting, instructive, or entertaining than autobiography, and if the remaining volumes are as well chosen as those which have already appeared, the collection will make its mark. Its defects are purely bibliographical. In the Goldoni and in the Margravine's memoirs mention is made of certain omissions, but not in the other two volumes; and it is therefore impossible to say whether or not they are unabridged and intact without a collation with the former editions. It would be well also if the circumstances of the original publication (and translation) were more fully set forth. Above all, there are no indexes, although an autobiography deserves and demands an index as strenuously as almost any other literary production.

—An interesting passage in Lewes's Life of Goethe is the description of the poet's visit to Frankfort in 1814:

"He was received with an ovation which recalls the last visit of Voltaire to Paris. "Tasso" was performed at the theatre with great pomp. No sooner did he make his appearance in the box which had been prepared for him, and which was hung with flowers and laurel-crowns, than Haydn's symphony struck up, and the whole house rose with a burst of enthusiastic cheering. The symphony continued, and the shouts rose tumultuously above it. At length the curtain rolled up, and gradually a solemn stillness settled through the house. A prologue greeted the great poet, and was the signal for more shouting. After "Tasso" came an epilogue, during which the laurel-crowns were taken from the busts of Ariosto and Tasso and handed to Goethe. And when all was over, the corridors and staircases of the theatre were crowded with admirers, through whom he passed smiling his thanks."

It is a pity to destroy so pleasant a picture of the honor paid by Frankfort to her most distinguished son, but, according to a seemingly well-informed writer in the *Spectator*, the whole story is a hoax of Johann Willemer, the husband of Marianne, the Suleika of the "West-östliche Divan," whose correspondence with Goethe has just been published. It appears that Goethe had quarrelled with the Frankfort authorities in regard to the payment of some taxes, and they in retaliation struck his name from the list of burghers, and on his visit to the city in 1814 received him with icy indifference. To ridicule this, Willemer wrote an imaginary account of a representation of "Tasso" and published it in the *Morgenblatt*. Mr. Lewes, in company with the other biographers of Goethe, has, with pardonable credulity, borrowed from this account the materials for his vivid description.

—Harper & Brothers have done the public a service by adding to their "Student's Smaller Series" a translation of Otto Seemann's Mythology, under the title 'The Mythology of Greece and Rome.' It is a translation of the smaller German work ('Kleine Mythologie der Griechen und Römer'), from which its illustrations also are taken and very well reproduced. That in its turn is an abridgment of a larger book ('Gotter und Heroen'), from which it differs in omitting an account of Greek temples and worship, in extending its scope to Roman mythology, and in the smaller number of illustrations, some from modern works of art. Both of Seemann's books are excellent, having two great merits—their foundation on Preller's standard work, with its clear arrangement, fresh views, and thorough scholarship, and the introduction of the art element in the text and illustrations, putting before the student the deities as they presented themselves to the ancient mind, so that the admission of modern works of art into the smaller book is to be regretted. The illustrations are mostly after Braun's 'Kunstmythologie,' but with additions down to the time of publication after Overbeck, Lübke, etc. Our existing mythologies in English either represent the later period only, as mere réchauffés of Ovid, or, as works on comparative mythology, devote most of their space to the pre-Hellenic period, or, if they pay any attention at all to art-mythology, are at best far behind the times, so that the publication of this unpretending little book is a boon. The translation as a whole is good.

—Is the value of gold falling, unnoticed, throughout the world, or is it only articles of *vertu* that are getting dearer and dearer? With each succeeding sale of engravings the prices are higher—or rather the highest prices are higher, for some engravings lose the value set upon them by fancy and are a drug in the market, just as the editions of the classics that provoked so keen a competition in the London book-auctions half a century ago can now hardly be sold at any price. The list of prices obtained at the sale of Ambroise Firmin Didot's great collection of engravings has just been published. 47,955 numbers brought $125,314. Rembrandt's "Burgomaster Six," in the rare second state, of which there is a fine copy in the same state in the collection at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, sold for 17,000 francs; his "Hundred Guilders Print," for 8,550 francs; his "Three Crosses," for 7,050; portrait of himself, 5,730; Dürer's "Triumphal Car of the Emperor Maximilian," 8 plates, 4,050 francs, and the 92 plates of the "Triumphal Arch of the Emperor Maximilian," after Dürer, 3,000 francs; Rembrandt's "Great Jewish Bride," 4,005 francs; his portrait of Lutma, 3,900 francs; his "Landscape on the Canal," 3,700. On the other hand, of the fifty Marc Antonio Raimondis that Didot had, only three reached 1,000 francs—"Adam and Eve," after Raphael, 1,900; "Lucrece," after Raphael, 1,250; the "Martyrdom of St. Lawrence," after Bandinelli, 1,000. Of course, all these engravings were rare proofs in the finest condition.

CREASY'S HISTORY OF THE OTTOMANS.*

THE revised edition of Creasy's Ottoman history, the preface to which was written a few weeks before the Russian armies now battling in Bulgaria crossed the Pruth, is a very timely reproduction of the first edition, which appeared at the opening of the Eastern war of 1853-6. The same interest in the subject which inspired the author when he first wrote his book evidently guided his pen when he revised its pages, and the public, in this country at least, will undoubtedly receive it, as it did then, with a lively desire for information on an all-absorbing topic. There are very few popular histories of Turkey in universal literature, and this, we believe, is one of the best of them. It presents a vivid and well-connected account of the six centuries of Turkish growth, conquest, and decline, interwoven with summary views of institutions, national characteristics, and causes of success and failure. It is chiefly based on the great work of Von Hammer—as far as that goes—but embodies also the results of the studies of a large number of earlier and later writers, and throughout evinces research, independence of judgment, and candor.

By all this we do not mean to say that it is either fitted to supply all the necessary information on the subject, or written without a bias. On the contrary, we consider it a history which must be supplemented by accounts written from a different or a more convincingly impartial standpoint, and we can praise the candor of its author only as that of a decided adherent of a cause. He believes in the right of Turkey to exist, and exist as a power; in the possibility of her regeneration in the best sense of the word; in the probability of such regeneration, provided Russia's attacks on her existence cease; in the purely selfish character of the disturbing Russian attempts; in the moral superiority of Turkey's dealing with Christian nations as compared with their dealings with her; and, what is more, in many excellent qualities of the Turkish character, such as dignity of manners, self-respect, truthfulness, and honesty. He not only believes in all this, but writes with the undisguised aim of impressing his readers with his convictions. This effort colors his narratives, and the warmth of his feeling for the constantly assailed—of course we refer only to the two centuries of Russo-Turkish contests—makes him unconsciously overlook the equally good claims to sympathy of the victims of former Turkish aggression, still groaning under Turkish misrule.

As we hinted above, Sir Edward Creasy does not shut his eyes to the dark side of the picture, neither to the frequent "metamorphosis of the high-minded and generous country gentleman of Anatolia or Roumelia, exemplary in all the relations of domestic life, into a sordid, grasping tyrant, and a selfish voluptuary of the worst description, when invested with the power and exposed to the temptations of a Pasha"; nor to the Turks' "ruthless fanaticism, when roused by the cry that their religion is in danger"; nor to the practice of "unutterable deeds of vice and crime." But he has a whole array of redeeming features, besides plausible explanations of some traits which are "seeming contradictions to the general benevolence and gentleness of character"; and while he dwells with humane pleasure on Turkish deeds of bravery and devotion, with admiration on the undaunted spirit of some of the sultans—Mahmoud II. above all—during an almost tragic succession of catastrophes and betrayals, and with the keenest sympathy on all attempts at reform, he is but too inclined to leave out of sight the woes and aspirations of the downtrodden Greek and Slav, Armenian and Rumanian. The plottings of Russia, who selfishly speculates on these woes, and treacherously plays with these aspirations, obviously disturb the late chief-justice's historical balance. If his narrative is not, his silence is often, unjust. He tells only the history of the Ottomans, not of those whom they iniquitously subjugated.

As between Ottomans and Russians, it was not hard for him to be both pro-Turkish and just, especially from the standpoint of international

* 'History of the Ottoman Turks, from the beginning of their Empire to the present time. By Sir Edward C. Creasy, M.A. (late Chief-Justice of Ceylon), Emeritus Professor of History in University College, London, etc.' First American Edition, from the New Revised English Edition. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. 553.

right, of which Creasy is a fond student and expounder. For a century the Russian attacks on the Porte were begun with revolting treachery and disregard of treaties, and executed with shocking barbarity. Peter the Great, Catharine I., Anna, Elizabeth, Catharine II. are guilty in ascending proportions of a policy of grasping and shameless perversion worthy of that of Louis XI.; and Münnich, the Orloffs, the Potemkins, and Suvoroff surpassed each other in cold-blooded butchery. Münnich's invasion of the Crimea in 1736, for instance, was begun without a declaration of war. Kozlov was sacked, Bakhtchiserai was assaulted, and its garrison fled; "Münnich then drew his Muscovites and Cossacks up outside the defenceless town, and sent in a quarter of his army at a time to pillage for a fixed number of hours." Palaces, libraries, and two thousand private houses were destroyed. Simferopol was next attacked; "its inhabitants and its wealth were given up to the brutality and rapacity of the soldiers, its buildings to the flames." Throughout the campaign "no mercy was shown by the Russians to age or sex." And yet this was a mild advance of conquest compared with the butcheries which under Catharine II. consummated the subjugation of the Crimea; with the carnage at Otchakov (1788), where "out of a population and garrison of 40,000 human beings only a few hundred (chiefly women and children) escaped"; or with that at Ismail (1790), where Suvoroff himself, as he boasted, wept over the massacre. Four years later, after the capture of Kosciuszko, he slaughtered the Christians and Jews of Praga with the same readiness.

The delusive encouragements with which Russia, from time to time, drew the Montenegrins, Servians, and Greeks into her contests with the Porte, and the cold indifference with which she abandoned them after her failures, are naturally dwelt upon with emphasis, as are also the treacherous proceedings towards declining Turkey of Charles VI. and Joseph II. of Austria, of Napoleon Bonaparte, and also of England in 1807—an exceptional case, of course. And with particular gratification Sir Edward recalls the many illusions which have so often been indulged in, from the time of Peter the Great to our own, in regard to the facility of breaking up the Ottoman Empire and driving the Turks from Europe. As early as one hundred and fifty years ago the speedy dismemberment of Turkey was confidently expected, "though some sagacious observers judged differently," among them Montesquieu. In 1770, when the Orloffs entered the Mediterranean with a powerful fleet, while the Sultan was hard pressed on the Danube, in the Crimea, and in Asia, and Egypt was in revolt, "it was thought that Greece, Egypt, and Syria might be rent from the House of Othman in a single summer, and Constantinople itself was supposed not to be safe." Volney, a generation later, saw in Turkey an "incoherent edifice of power, shaken to its basis, deprived of its support, and losing its equilibrium," ready to "astonish the world with another instance of mighty ruin." Alexander I. and Napoleon, after the treaty of Tilsit, just failed to agree on a plan of dismemberment, in which "Russia's portion was to be Wallachia, Moldavia, Bulgaria, Thrace, and the Asiatic provinces nearest to the Bosphorus." They wrangled over Constantinople, "little thinking that Moscow was soon to blaze, with French invaders for her occupants, and that Paris, in a few more years was to yield to Russian cannon, while the House of Othman proceeded to complete its fourth century of unbroken dominion at Constantinople."

The last-quoted remark refers to the centenary year 1853, when Czar Nicholas told Sir Hamilton Seymour, the British ambassador at his court, "The sick man is dying; we have on our hands a sick man—a very sick man, and he may suddenly die on our hands"; and soon after instructed Menshikoff to light the funeral torch. Here the original narrative ends, and the very brief continuation written for the new edition, in giving the result of the conflagration then kindled, which was the destruction of Sebastopol and not of Constantinople, again points to the moral that "threatened states, like threatened men, sometimes live long." The Byzantine Empire, which, rotten and decayed, outlived a thousand years' threatenings, is an obvious illustration, which, however, our author, though badly chagrined by Turkey's bankruptcy and the Bulgarian massacres, would refuse to apply as unjustly offensive to the Ottomans. Fairness, however, demands the explicit statement that he paints Turkish decay at certain periods, old and recent, in colors as deep as any Christian moralist might desire. His earnestness of thought and study and his choice of authorities—some of whom, like Von Hammer, D'Ohsson, and Ranke, he quotes but too literally—are equally good; but his omissions are numerous, and his fine diction is marred by hundreds of names so badly spelled that this book alone might have sufficed to illustrate the "how not to do" of every point in the article on "Foreign Names" recently published in this journal. Which edition is primarily responsible for "Möltke" instead of Moltke (this occurs twenty times), and a number of less grave mistakes, we do not know.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.—II.*

IF we were to describe Mr. Eggleston as an "Oliver Optic" of the better sort, we should accurately convey the impression which 'The Signal Boys' has made on us. We have not read the earlier volumes of the "Big Brother Series," and we have not for many years read a line of Oliver Optic, and the comparison we have just suggested has therefore a rather narrow basis. Nevertheless we think it a fair comparison, and that both authors, in trying to furnish unexceptionable models of manliness, sagacity, and resource to their youthful readers, end by depicting impossible characters in improbable situations. Mr. Eggleston may be a little more robust of the two, but his superiority in any respect would not entitle him to be put in a different category. The ingenuity he has expended in getting his heroes out of all their scrapes will have its reward in a rapt audience, but the story remains very poor fiction for all that; just as the historical setting given them fails entirely to lend reality to the adventures described. For the rest, the battle of New Orleans in 1814 is made the motive of the narrative, and Lake Borgne and its shores the scene. The modicum of historical and geographical information thus imparted may to some parents seem a good reason for introducing the 'Signal Boys' as a family acquaintance; but in a select juvenile library we should prefer Captain Sam's room to his "Company."

We opened Mr. Kingston's 'Voyage of the *Steadfast*' with the same author's 'Snow-shoes and Canoes' in our mind, but our expectations were quickly disappointed. The new story is a religious tract, without the slightest disguise. As such we can recommend it to all those who delight to read, or think it wholesome to read, of instantaneous conversions under the imminent fear of death, and of catastrophes in which scoffers and unbelievers are carefully selected for sacrifice, and who value the tests of character and of fitness for salvation which this book advocates.

It is ten years, as we are reminded by the preface to the 'Enchanted Moccasins,' since we first made the acquaintance of this and its companion stories under the title of the 'Indian Fairy-Book.' We do not find that our then favorable impression of the collection was ill-grounded, but, on the contrary, are glad to meet again with the mighty Grasshopper, the Man-with-his-leg-tied-up, the legend of the origin of Indian corn, and all the other humorous and poetic creations of the aboriginal fancy which Mr. Matthews has gleaned from Schoolcraft and other sources. He has, it is true, "re-interpreted and developed" them, but the development will trouble nobody except the purists in folk-lore. A fair sample of it is this sentence from "Sheem, the Forsaken Boy": "When he told them that he had been forsaken by his brother and his sister, the wolves turned about to each other, lifted up their eyes to heaven, and wondered among themselves, with raised paws, that such a thing should have been." As regards the title, we should have supposed the old one good enough to be revived along with the book. If any change was called for, we should have sought to replace the illustrations with genuine Indian character-pieces from the life, of which the various Government surveys have so vast a store among their photographs. We recall some exhibited at the Centennial whose labels suggested just such a use to be made of them.

It is not a new idea to collect between two covers samples of the fairy tales of all nations, but as the field of selection is boundless it may well be imagined that the 'Wonder-World Stories' contains a fresh assortment. The full title appended below shows whence these fourteen stories have been derived, and it only remains to add that they are all characteristic, and some eminently so, of the countries to which each is accredited. A thoroughly German use has been made, to begin with, of the facts about carnivorous plants by B. Paul, in "The Flower-Monster." The foolish passion of a lady-bug for a *Drosera rotundifolia* not only proves fatal to the insect but helps to illustrate the moral: "Everywhere follows us the inevitable necessity of destruction in order that there may be new life. . . . It is ever the same in Nature. To destroy, and to be destroyed—Death and Resurrection. The pretty little Drosera still sings, '*I must eat.*'" Among the more striking stories are "The Bride

* 'The Signal Boys; or, Captain Sam's Company. By George Cary Eggleston.' (Big Brother Series.) New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons 1877

* 'Voyage of the *Steadfast*. By Wm. H. G. Kingston.' Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 1877.

'The Enchanted Moccasins, and other Legends of the American Indians. Compiled from original sources by Cornelius Matthews.' With illustrations. Third edition. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

'Wonder-World Stories, from the Chinese, French, German, Hebrew, Hindoostance, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Swedish, and Turkish. Collected and translated by Marie Pabke and Margery Deane.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

of the Wind," from the Russian; "The Son of the Fairy," from the Hungarian, a spirited allegory of the destruction of the Huns; "Lomanachtan, and the Fenians of Eire," from the Irish, full of blood and valor and Hibernian absurdity; and "Narada's Prophecy," from the 'Mahabharata.' Taken altogether, the volume shows excellent discrimination, and being handsomely brought out (with, to be sure, rather feeble illustrations), must be ranked with the foremost holiday ventures of the present year. It merits a permanent sale long after the gift season has gone by.

It is certainly interesting news for boys as well as their elders that Mr. Hoffmann, of whose excellent treatise on 'Modern Magic' we spoke favorably last year, has now made a translation of Robert-Houdin's 'Secrets of Conjuring and Magic.' This work, published in 1833, and long since out of print, was recognized at once on its appearance as the best on the subject, just as its author was known to be the foremost of all conjurers, past or present. We have compared this translation with the original and we find both it and the editing to have been very well done. It is difficult to say which is the better manual, Mr. Hoffmann's book or his translation, which, by the way, contains the description of the many electrical devices and labor-saving contrivances that Houdin invented for his house at Blois.

Any boy will be glad to receive Mr. Hope's 'Manual of Sorrento and Inlaid Work,' especially if it is accompanied or has been preceded by the necessary tools. Its guidance appears to be sound and thorough, and it contains information applicable to cabinet-work in general, as well as to scroll-sawing. Even the advertisements in this volume—of woods, lathes, saws, and printing-presses—enhance its value.

Mr. Mitchell tells of the inventors of printing as a prelude to the more particular subject of his book. Then follows some instructive talk about the authorship and antiquity of the 'Arabian Nights,' with Aladdin and Sindbad condensed. Next successively come brief biographies of Goldsmith, Swift, Maria Edgeworth, Bernardin de St. Pierre, Mme. Cottin, the Brothers Grimm, Scott, De Foe, and Bunyan, with condensations in each case, or samples, of their principal works. The attempt is made to convey an idea of the times as well as the man, and to help fix the chronology by reference to contemporary events or personages in other countries, as in associating Haroun-al-Raschid with Charlemagne. All this is accomplished in a pleasant manner with the aid of all sorts of illustrations. There is much to praise, and very little to criticise except the author's occasional forgetfulness of his youthful listeners, or perhaps we should say undue remembrance of their elders. For instance, we take leave to think that the proper beginning of the chapter on the 'Arabian Nights' is the third paragraph: "You could never guess who wrote 'The Arabian Nights'—for nobody knows when those stories were written." Instead of which the child is first addressed in this manner:

"Who wrote the stories? Who knows? Not Captain Mayne Reid; though had he been born a Persian, and lived long time enough ago, and been a Caliph with a long beard and a cimeter—instead of a captain in the Mexican War, with a Colt's revolver and a goatee—and had he seen the cloud of dust which Ali-Baba saw, I think he could have made out the band of forty robbers under it, and the cave, and all the rest.

"But Mayne Reid didn't see the cloud of dust which covered those robbers (and which is very apt to cover all gangs of public robbers), and did not live so long ago, and therefore did not write 'The Arabian Nights.' Nor did Mrs. Hannah More, for the book is not in her style; nor did the author of 'Little Women.'"

We readily admit that there is nothing in the whole book so irrelevant and useless, or so mistaken in point of taste or humor, or so well calculated to confuse the infant mind struggling with chronology, as this passage. Nevertheless, in all strictness, we should also rule out Mr. Mitchell's "Introduction for Young Folks," or at most append it to the "Preface for the Grown-up People."

The third edition of Mr. Cox's 'Tales of Ancient Greece' deserves to have many successors. Its four parts (originally published separately) consist of "The Gods and Heroes," "Tales of the Trojan War," "Tales of Thebes," and "Miscellaneous Tales," and furnish a pretty complete outfit, for young minds, of the commonplaces of Greek mythology, of Homer, Sophocles, and Herodotus. Admirable in style, and level with a child's comprehension, these versions constitute an abridged and purified Lempriere which might well find a place in every family, either as a preparation for classical training or (as far as it will go) as a substitute for it. The introduction, a long exposition of the solar-myth doctrine, can be skipped without disadvantage, along with the notes in the appendix, by younger readers. Parents will find their account in the beginning and end, as well as in the middle of the volume. Forms like Kirkê, Eurydikê, etc., in Mr. Cox's following of the Greek orthography, will offer no obstacle to those who have been taught the approved Latin pronunciation of the present day, and mystifications like Lêtô (for Latona) are very rare. Mr. Cox, by the way, in saying that "the Latin *æ* should be pronounced like *ai* in *fail*," stands opposed to the best teaching, which gives this diphthong the sound of *ī* (as in *mine*). It remains to add that a Chicago imprint does not prevent the 'Tales' from being a very pretty specimen of English book-making, in all respects fit to give and to receive at any season.

One of the lesser stories in Mrs. S. C. Hallowell's 'Bee's Bedtime' (and also one of the best), published three or four years ago, was entitled the "Cuckoo Clock." It told of a little country boy who sees such a clock for the first time at his grandmother's fine house in town, and, when left alone with it, endeavors to catch the bird, which he thinks must be alive. The result is disastrous. A somewhat unduly protracted story, bearing the same title, and not without certain points of resemblance, lies upon our table, having come from across the sea. In this case it is a young girl, Griselda, who meddles with the cuckoo, by flinging a book at it in a fit of impatience, but who afterwards, on sincere repentance, becomes a favorite of the bird, and is introduced by it nightly to several delightful regions of fairyland. Griselda is a little like "Alice," but the author's originality is, on the whole, well sustained; and the refined tone of the book, its easy and intelligible style, its excellent descriptions, its gracious but effective moralizing, entitle it to a high place among the children's books of the season.

There is a certain vivacity in 'Patsy,' seeing that it is a chronicle of the freaks and misbehavior of a little girl, distinguished by entire disregard of her elders, and an active spirit of mischief. Her elders hold theories which endure all the strain that Patsy puts upon them; and when she ties black crape on the front door in order to "have a funeral," and sympathizing neighbors hasten to console the family, the mother, after the mystification is over, rouses herself from a headache to say emphatically, "I want my children to be children. I expect them to do wrong. I want them to learn by experience," etc., etc.; and these views apparently are unmodified when her absent husband leaves important business and hurries home in grief and apprehension, hearing of the crape on his door. All this is essentially modern, and the final discipline of Patsy in the style of "The Purple Jar" is quite incongruous. The book is readable, and though too much is made of her, Mrs. Chittenden is an original.

'Gold and Gilt' is a temperance story in the guise of a child's book. The purpose is excellent, the execution more questionable. There are a variety of striking incidents—a runaway horse, a steamboat on fire, a miser on his deathbed, the usual gifted drunkard, fashionable worldling, and missionary child. There is no harm in such a book except what arises from a false view of life, and it is always possible that it may do some good.

'Each and All' is a harmless and somewhat entertaining little book. It gives stories of little girls of many nations—Eskimo, African, Egyptian, Chinese, and German—and, though it is all rather *couleur de rose*, there is a laudable endeavor after local coloring.

Outlines of the History of Art. By Dr. Wilhelm Lübke. A new translation, from the seventh German edition, edited by Clarence Cook. In 2 vols. Vol. I. (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. viii.–571.)—Dr. Lübke's book had gone through several editions since the first English translation had been published, and it seemed advisable to translate it anew, and from the latest German edition. This has been done under the direction of Mr. Edward L. Burlingame. The editor's preface, which gives this information, adds a statement not so clear, viz., that his (the editor's) work "has been confined to a revision of the text, in which he has endeavored to be faithful." Faithful to Lübke's text or to historical and critical truth? And by "revision" of the text, is it meant that the text has undergone alterations under Mr. Cook's direction, or is it the editor's notes only that are referred to? The distinction is not unim-

'Secrets of Conjuring and Magic. By Robert-Houdin. Translated and edited by Professor Hoffmann.' New York: George Routledge & Sons. 1877.

'A Manual of Sorrento and Inlaid Work for Amateurs, with Original Designs. By Arthur Hope.' Chicago: John Wilkinson; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

'About Old Story-Tellers: of how and when they lived, and what stories they told. By Donald G. Mitchell.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.

'Tales of Ancient Greece. By the Rev. G. W. Cox, M.A.' Third edition. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1877.

'The Cuckoo Clock. By Ennis Graham. Illustrated by Walter Crane.' London: Macmillan & Co. 1877.

'Patsy. By Leora B. Robinson.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

'Gold and Gilt; or, Maybee's Puzzle. By Archie Fell.' Boston: Henry Hoyt & Co. 1877.

'Each and All; or, How the Seven Little Sisters Prove their Sisterhood. By Jane Andrews.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1877.

portant, as in the one case we have a translation before us, in the other an adaptation ; in the one case we have Dr. Lübke's conclusions, in the other it is Mr. Cook who sums up. And any American reader who has found the former translation of Lübke a dull book, full of that German insensibility to artistical distinctions which makes the readers of other nations rather avoid German books about art, would prefer the latter alternative.

As the book stands, however, it appears that the editor's labors have been confined to the notes, which are of interest and value, and sometimes complete the inadequate text in a very satisfactory way. The hasty inferences and unwarranted conclusions of the author find here a needed corrective. Thus, on page 133, a note on the bases of Greek columns, and on the *entasis*, correct what would otherwise lead some readers astray ; and on page 136, three notes, all valuable, and all showing accurate thought, seem in the aggregate a good deal more important than the text they accompany. The frequent references to other books, too, are worthy of note, especially to those of Viollet-le-Duc. In the section which deals with Greek art the reader is frequently so reminded of this writer, who has treated thoroughly and with knowledge a subject which Dr. Lübke only dimly conceives.

It would have been better still if Mr. Cook had really, and in the usual sense, "revised" the text. There are errors of all sorts in it, and many of them easy of correction. On page 125, after a description of certain covered passages in early Greek buildings, occur the following words : "This kind of roofing is employed on an immense scale at entrances, as at Amphissa and Phigalia, whilst at other gates the sloping side walls are closed by a huge stone beam, over which, however, a triangular opening is left for the relief of the architrave." There are so many inaccuracies in this that the quickest way to point them out is just to put the whole into more precise words, thus : "A similar method of construction is employed on an immense scale in entrance doorways, as at Amphissa and Phigalia, while at other places the jambs or doorposts, sloping inward, support a huge stone lintel, which, however, is relieved by a triangular opening above," and this triangular opening ought also to be more accurately described. A stylobate is not essentially "a sub-structure of several steps" (p. 130). "The wide-shadowing plinth of the main cornice" is a wholly improper expression (p. 133). The roofs of Greek temples were not built of "stone beams" (p. 133). What is meant by the architrave being "on a line with the columns at their highest point" (p. 136) ? Such awkward or erroneous expressions as these crowd the pages of the book. Some of them are errors natural to a translator not thoroughly master of the subject, others seem to be of the original text.

The conclusion is that the book, which is far from being without value, and which is really more readable than most of the popular treatises in English, should be carefully examined, and about doubled in volume by just such careful notes as the present editor could add to it. It would also be well if the cuts could be given in better and less worn impressions.

Dante. By Mrs. Oliphant. Foreign Classics for English Readers, edited by Mrs. Oliphant. (Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877. 16mo, pp. 208.)—The success of the series of "Ancient Classics for English Readers" has led the publishers to undertake a kindred series intended to embrace the classics of Italy, France, Germany, and Spain. The first volume, appropriately devoted to Dante, the first great poet of the modern world, is prepared by the editor, who, in her recent work, the 'Makers of Florence,' had already produced an elaborate biography of the great Florentine. The present work contains an introduction on the origin of the Italian language, a life of the poet covering eleven pages, a chapter on the 'New Life,' an analysis of the 'Divine Comedy,' and a final chapter on Dante's prose works. The analysis is chiefly in prose, but the most striking episodes are given in metrical versions made by the editor. We cannot praise very highly the manner in which Mrs. Oliphant has executed her work. The subject, of course, is one of unusual difficulty : no poem of ancient or modern times is so difficult to understand as the 'Divine Comedy' ; it is the most local and most personal of all poems. To comprehend it even superficially some acquaintance with the history of Florence is necessary, and the reader must know something of Dante's cosmography and theological system. Mrs. Oliphant does not seem to have mastered even the minor difficulties of the poem she proposes to explain to others. In describing Dante's passage from Hell to Purgatory, p. 110, she says : "We leave the explanation of how this is accomplished to the reader, who can, if he is sufficiently interested, learn from better authorities the principles of the Old World cosmogony, avowing candidly that it is very dim to ourselves." So the fact that in Purgatory the sun is on Dante's left hand as he faces the East is dismissed with the words, p. 117, "Here Dante's surprise to find the sun on his left hand is the occasion of an astronomical discourse from Virgil, which we leave as quite beyond our powers of explanation." The editor's slight acquaintance with early Italian literature and history leads her into many errors. She says, for instance, that Brunetto Latini ('Inf.' xv. 119) commends to Dante his 'Tesoro,' "a collection of poems." It was Brunetto's great encyclopædia ('Le Trésor de toutes choses'), a prose work written in French, and not the unimportant poem, that Dante's teacher wished preserved. In the great episode of Francesca da Rimini, in the fifth canto of the 'Inferno,' Mrs. Oliphant translates "Galeotto fu 'l libro e chi lo scrisse" by "The book was Galeotto, and so he was named who wrote it," etc. The meaning is not, however, that the author was named Galeotto, but that he and his book were to the two lovers what Galeotto had been to Launcelot and the Queen. In the third canto of the 'Purgatory,' from a misunderstanding of the word *nipote*, Manfred is made the nephew of Costanza, instead of her grandson as he really was, and in the twentieth canto (p. 141) Charles of Anjou is incorrectly put for Charles of Valois.

The metrical versions are diffuse, inexact, and marred by frequent errors. Still graver is the editor's misconception of the fundamental principles of the allegory of the poem, as shown by her remarks on pp. 54 and 55. Mrs. Oliphant sees no reason why Virgil was chosen as Dante's guide except the fact that the younger poet had studied and loved the works of the elder, and that Virgil, too, had described a similar pilgrimage. A valuable addition to the volume would have been a bibliography of the translation of Dante's various works into English.

Switzerland and the Swiss. By the author of 'The Knights of the Frozen Sea,' etc., etc. (New York : E. P. Dutton & Co.)—This ignorant, blundering book shall not escape exposure by its shallow device of affecting a childish tone and taking on the pious airs of a Sunday-school book. Of the depth of its ignorance and the wildness of its blundering we despair of giving an adequate idea except by examples. Starting with the relics of the lake-dwellers, it explains them by the conjecture that they date from before the flood, "and that the things upon the earth should have been, on the subsidence of the waters, *drawn down into the bottoms of lakes*, . . . is only what might have been imagined" (p. 20). The beds of former glaciers are marked by "a polished appearance of the ground, . . . while *in one case* it is shown by the old moraine remaining." "Tindall" "believes that the action of glaciers has had much to do with the 'architecture of the Alps.' That they have power to grind away rocks he is certain ; and in proof of his theory he says," etc., etc. (pp. 33, 34). The name of the originator of these novel "theories" is spelled in several different ways in the course of the book, and is once spelled right. "It is quite certain that neither nowadays nor for ages past would any one of the cantons give up the right to govern itself" (p. 194), although by the adoption of the Constitution of 1874 they have given up this very thing. "Erasmus, having seen some comic sketches of Holbein's on the margin of Müller's 'Eulogium of Folly,' then so famous" (p. 196). The Righi "is an accessible mountain, four different mule-paths leading to the summit" (p. 244). The accounts of Bonnivard and Calvin contain *some* facts, but consist chiefly of blunders (pp. 200–206).

This little impostor of a Sunday-school book is not entitled to the space we have given it, any more than to the excellent paper and fair wood-engraving in which it is dressed up ; but the impudence of its pretentions has provoked us into saying so much.

Single Famous Poems. Edited by Rossiter Johnson. (New York : Henry Holt & Co. 1877.)—Famous ? How and where famous ? We can understand the term as applied to the "Vicar of Bray," or "My Mind to me a Kingdom is," or the "Lament of the Irish Emigrant," or the "Ivy Green," or the "Star-Spangled Banner," or "Take thy Old Cloak about thee," or "What Constitutes a State ?" or "Ye Gentlemen of England," and twice or thrice as many more in these hundred and forty-five pieces ; but what shall we say for the "fame" or "poetry" of this—

> "And there they sat, a-popping corn,
> John Styles and Susan Cutter—
> John Styles as fat as any ox,
> And Susan fat as butter"?

or of this—

> "There sat an old man on a rock,
> And unceasing bewailed him of Fate,—
> That concern where we all must take stock,
> Though our voice has no hearing or weight, etc."?

or of ten or twenty times as many more of like quality? Mr. Johnson says in his preface that his volume "is intended to represent popular rather than critical taste, and to include all the poems in the language which fairly come under its title." The examples already cited show how preposterous this pretension is. It would be a waste of time to criticise such a collection by pointing out its sins of omission and admission. It reads like the scrap-book of a person accustomed to clip from the "poetry" column of country newspapers, and especially fond of pieces marked "Anonymous," and of those sentimental productions which are introduced by a short text apologetic of the Muse's pumping, as, *e.g.*, p. 248: "A very old man in an alms-house was asked what he was doing now. He replied, 'Only waiting'"—which gives us:

"Only waiting till the shadows
Are a little longer grown;
Only waiting till the glimmer
Of the day's last beam is flown, etc."

This class is well represented. The only other principle of selection we have been able to discover is the fact that a line or a stanza of a poem has become a familiar quotation; so Mr. Johnson makes room for the whole. Of course if he were to carry this out consistently, he would have to follow Mr. Bartlett's lead and issue forty volumes instead of one; but he is as arbitrary in his choice as he is uncritical.

The Narrative of a Blockade-Runner. By J. Wilkinson, Captain in the late Confederate States Navy. (New York: Sheldon & Co. 1877.)—It is to be hoped that this book will find purchasers, and that its success as a business venture will be such as to tempt other Confederate officers to follow Captain Wilkinson's example, and tell the world what they know about our war. It is just such books that are wanted—books that tell precisely what their authors did, what they did it with, and where they did it. This 'Narrative' does not make any very valuable addition to our stock of knowledge, for Captain Wilkinson had little or nothing to do with the more striking events of the war, with the single exception of the capture of New Orleans by Farragut; but he takes us behind the scenes with a frankness and good temper and unreserve, and with an absence of fine writing and of tributes to Southern superiority, which Southern writers have not usually displayed. He had little to do with the defence of New Orleans, for the reason that the vessel to which he was assigned was not ready for service when Farragut forced his way up, but he saw a good deal of what went on, and he tells the story in a simple and straightforward way. He was a successful blockade-runner, and he was for some time a prisoner at Fort Warren in Boston harbor. Out of such materials he has made an agreeable, readable book, and the publishers have treated him well in the paper, print, and size of page which they have employed. He has the advantage, also, of a subject which is entirely fresh, so far as we know.

Bibliography of the Original Quartos and Folios of Shakespeare; with particular reference to copies in America. By Justin Winsor. With 68 heliotype facsimiles. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1876.)—The aim of this work is not only to give an account of the earliest editions, but also the history of individual copies, so far as they can be traced, their present condition, and ownership. A considerable degree of success has been attained by Mr. Winsor, and the result is a collection of literary memoranda which are at times curious, if not especially important. The most interesting part of the volume to the general reader is the records of various sales, by which he can observe the progress of the Shakspere bibliomania from its rise in the middle of the last century to its culminating point at the Daniel sale in 1864, where £351 15*s.* was given for the 1597 edition of "Richard III.," and Baroness Burdett-Coutts purchased a superb copy of the First Folio for £716 2*s.* A fairly good copy now would probably bring about £200, judging by the latest sales, and a first-rate copy £500. Mr. Winsor describes 66 editions of the plays which appeared before 1623, the date of the First Folio. Twenty-six of these, he informs the intending collector, if there be any such left, are practically unattainable. Of the remaining forty, 27 are to be found in this country, the Barton collection of the Boston Public Library and the Lenox Library of this city possessing nearly the whole number. A brief abstract of the views of the leading commentators as to the value of the respective texts is given, but we do not observe that Mr. Winsor advances any opinion of his own. Accompanying the text are facsimiles of title-pages. The edition is limited to 250 copies. Though dated 1876, it was actually published in the latter part of August, 1877.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 13, 1877.

The Week.

THE President sent in the New York nominations again on Monday, and they are at this writing before the Senate, but, as regards Roosevelt and Prince, have again been opposed by Mr. Conkling and his Committee. It appears, however, that this opposition is, after all, a movement in aid of civil-service reform. Against Merritt's nomination, which is really objectionable, he has nothing to say, because Merritt is to succeed Sharpe, whose commission had expired, but Roosevelt and Prince are to succeed Arthur and Cornell, whose term has not expired. Conkling, therefore, in the discharge of a solemn public duty, naturally enquires why should these two gentlemen be removed before the end of their terms? What have they done? If they have done nothing worthy of punishment, how can he as a patriot consent to their dismissal? Accordingly, he wrote on behalf of his Committee (on Commerce) to the Secretary of the Treasury to ask the cause of their removal, and the answer being unsatisfactory, he, of course, cannot consent to it. It is quite true that under General Grant the great Senator did not act on this rule, but obtained arbitrary and sudden dismissals whenever they seemed likely to serve his own interests, and this is now urged against him; but it is only urged by persons who do not believe in human improvement, in the growth of character, in the gradual elevation of the whole man through grace and meditation and experience. Because a Senator was hostile to reform a year ago is he to continue hostile always? Is he not to be allowed to do good in his own time and in his own way when he feels the love of good growing within him?

This view of the matter is strengthened by the course pursued by Mr. Arthur. He is a gentleman, and gentlemen are supposed to be very sensitive about staying in places where they are not wanted, or waiting to be turned out in preference to resigning. He has, however, not only refused to resign, but refuses to go out when dismissed by the President, and the reason is, he says, that the President did not ask for his resignation at the right time or in the right way. He ought to have asked for it in the very beginning, and ought to have said nothing about it until he had received it. Having waited too long and announced that he was going to ask for it "with a flourish of trumpets," Mr. Arthur says he won't resign at all, and will, if he can, remain Collector of this port whether the President and the Secretary of the Treasury wish it or not. This little example of discipline and order he think he owes to his country and his party. If anybody doubts whether he is right he refers them to the New York Republican delegation, who, finding that the President was interfering with the appointing power in Mr. Conkling's hands, have, with the exception of Mr. Bacon, requested the President not to interfere with Mr. Conkling's executive functions, and not to destroy "harmony" by doing things Mr. Conkling does not like. He refers them also to a large body of merchants who want him to remain in office, and with whose management of the Custom-house the President, Mr. Hayes, seems to be interfering. The President, it is said, read the fifth resolution of the Cincinnati platform to the New York delegation, which must have made them laugh a good deal. Some of them have often heard the same sort of thing from Mlle. Aimée. It only remains for us to congratulate this great State on the kind of "senior Senator" it has. An ordinary man in that place would be occupied with the coarser interests of this busy commercial community—the currency, the national credit, the port, the tariff, the revenue system, the municipal administration—all of which have so much to do with its purely mundane prosperity. On this low class of questions the great man hardly seems to bestow a thought.

In Congress, there is little to report from the House. On Monday the President's Message was distributed among the various committees, and on motion of Mr. Hewitt "urgency" was voted for the Mexican border troubles, which were referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs, with instructions to consider and report immediately. The debate over this motion showed a general desire for peace with Mexico, especially among Southerners. In the Senate, on Thursday, a great batch of renewed nominations was received from the President, including the obnoxious New York Custom-house appointees. This is said to have occasioned in executive session a very lively interchange of "courtesies" among Senators, in which Mr. Conkling attacked the President, Mr. Matthews defended him, and Judge Davis and Mr. Thurman also took sides characteristically. Mr. Allison moved to fix a day for the consideration of his Silver Bill, and, after a long debate, Tuesday, the 12th inst., was selected by an ominous vote of 41 to 18, or two-thirds. On the same Thursday Mr. Matthews introduced a concurrent resolution declaring that all the United States bonds issued under the acts of July 14, 1870, and January 14, 1875, "are payable, principal and interest, at the option of the Government of the United States, in silver dollars of the coinage of the United States, containing 412½ grains each of standard silver; and that to restore to its coinage such silver coin as a legal tender in payment of said bonds, principal and interest, is not in violation of the public faith, nor in derogation of the rights of the public creditor." This was laid on the table and printed, and was called up by the mover on Monday, when he advocated its passage in a speech of some length. Mr. Conkling sought to have it made a joint resolution, in order to bring it within reach of the President's veto, and debate on it still continues as we go to press, even the Silver Bill giving way to it. On Thursday, also, Mr. Chaffee, of California, followed the example set in the House, by calling upon the President for information as to what legal impediments prevented him from executing the laws in regard to the Union Pacific Company and its branches, the Kansas Pacific and Denver Pacific. This is the grievance alluded to by Secretary Schurz in his annual report. The Union Pacific, by its discriminations against these roads (equally, in the intention of the law, parts of the main continental line), and refusal to "pro-rate" with them for passengers and freight, has thrown the Kansas Pacific into the hands of a receiver. On Friday, the Senate passed the amended House bill for the relief of the *Huron* survivors, and agreed with the House to adjourn for the period Dec. 15–Jan. 10. On Monday, Mr. Eustis, of Louisiana, was admitted to his seat by a vote of 49 to 8, a foregone conclusion, quite irrespective of Pinchback's magnanimous resignation the day before. The Senate is now for the first time in four years full, with a total membership of 76.

Mr. Stanley Matthews's speech was like most of those he has delivered on public questions since he came so suddenly into public notice last year—that is, a piece of special pleading in support of some form of trickery about finances. His last on the silver question would have made the reputation of one of the "counsellors" at the Tombs police court. His argument was that inasmuch as the Act of 1869, "to strengthen the public credit," said the public debt was payable in "coin," and as silver is coin, it is, therefore, "right," in all senses of the word, to pay it now, principal and interest, in silver. It so happens that this is the very argument produced by the earliest herd of repudiators after the war, which the Act of 1869 was passed to meet. The Acts authorizing the two first loans contracted after the outbreak of the war, that of 1861 and that of 1862, making in all over $700,000,000, made them payable, principal and interest, at certain dates, but did not say in what money, and did not mention "coin" at all. The war was hardly over, therefore, when that extraordinary class of politicians who are always looking out for some little swindle or cheat to recommend to the people, lighted on

this omission, and fairly crowed with joy over it. "Ha, ha!" they said, "we have got 'em now. The bonds do not say in what money they are payable; therefore they are payable in lawful money of the United States—*i.e.*, legal-tender notes. Let us print a ton or two of these notes and pay 'the sharps' off, and live happily ever after!" And they declared, as Mr. Matthews says, that it was "right," and that anybody who said it was not, was a "Shylock" and a "blood-sucker."

All this naturally excited alarm among the "money sharps," but the Republican party was not then as demoralized on the money question as it has since become, and it passed the Act of 1869, sweeping away this wretched technicality and declaring all the obligations of the United States payable "in coin," under the well-known rule which governs the interpretation of all promises, that what the promissor owes is what he led or allowed the promisee to understand or expect. Coin meant gold, and has meant gold in everybody's mind for years, and nobody supposed or expected that it would come to mean something worth ten per cent. less than gold, and that Republican philosophers would appear in the Senate to propose another verbal juggle at the expense of the public creditor.

The disposition made of the Patterson case by Judge Humphreys, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, will not tend to increase the respect of the country for the District judiciary. The only law which he cites as applicable to the case appears to be just such as was needed to justify the surrender of Patterson to the South Carolina authorities—*i. e.*, the provision of the Constitution privileging Senators from arrest, with an express exception of cases of felony. But this does not trouble the judge at all. He decides the case on the ground that he is "bound to take judicial cognizance that party organization is one thing and faction to destroy it is another," and accordingly orders that "the man be remanded to the body of which he is a member"—in other words, to the Senate, which is very much like ordering that a man be remanded to his wife and children. Extracts from the opinion hardly do its amazing character justice. It is a long, incoherent stump-speech, such as we might expect from a double-standard Congressman considerably the worse for liquor. "We have," he says, "judicial authority" for exclaiming, "in love of our written compact, 'Be thou perpetual.'" And why, he goes on, "have the English people built up what we term a permanent British government?" This question he answers by declaring that "the different antagonisms and conservatisms of human nature have produced this result." Any court, he continues, must take notice of "the connection between the stability of that Empire and our Republic," because it is "a part of that record which cannot be expunged." Passing to the consideration of the Constitutional points involved, he observes that "the written Constitution is our light-house," and then asks, "Where is the grand centre around which the other provisions of the grand compact cluster?" He expresses a wish also to know whether it "would be unjudicial," or "outside a cold judicial opinion," to say in this connection: "Daughters of Jerusalem, weep not for me, but weep for yourselves and for your children." After some further balderdash of the same sort, he ordered Patterson's discharge, but seems a fit subject for judicial enquiry himself.

The Governor of Tennessee recently called the Legislature of that State together to consider a proposition made by its bondholders to "readjust" the debt at sixty cents on the dollar; but the Legislature manifesting a preference for fifty cents, and the creditors having taken alarm and made haste to say they would take fifty after all, the session was adjourned and a new one called to consider the amended offer. Meantime, a new funding association has appeared on the scene in the form of a syndicate, the objects of which are to fund any of the Southern State debts, recognized and unrecognized, holding out to the State the hope of a lower rate of interest, and to the bondholder the hope of some recognition of his claims. That is, as we understand it, the syndicate proposes in the case of any State having say $10,000,000 outstanding bonds on which it pays interest at 7 per cent., and $5,000,000 on which it pays nothing, to "place" a new loan of $15,000,000 at 4 per cent., making the interest account of the State $600,000 instead of $700,000, and giving the holders of the $5,000,000 bonds a certain portion of their rights. In order to secure the object in view from all danger of new repudiation in the future, it is proposed that the State shall pass a series of laws or constitutional amendments practically putting repudiation out of its power, making a levy of taxes to pay the debt compulsory, and authorizing suits against itself in case of failure. The difficulty with the scheme seems to be the great improbability of getting bondholders receiving 7 per cent. to fund their bonds at 4, in order that bondholders who receive nothing may get 4 too, and the association has not thus far gained much public confidence. Nevertheless, we see that it has had an agent negotiating with the Tennessee authorities. In Georgia, the new constitution repudiating the outstanding claims against that State has been adopted, but this probably does not depress the bondholders, who have had their claims repudiated so often that once more or less cannot make much difference.

The Pittsburgh Grand Jury astonished the public a fortnight ago, and proved the failure of the President's "policy" in Pennsylvania, by a violent presentment, in which they laid the blame of the riots and the resulting destruction of property in that city on the troops, the police, and, in fact, on all that portion of the community not actually engaged in murder and pillage, and made the rioters appear a very ill-used body of men. As an illustration of their line of reasoning, we may mention that they threw on the troops who took refuge in the round-house the blame of the burning of the freight-cars, inasmuch as taking refuge in the round-house suggested to the rioters the plan of roasting them out by sending burning cars down the track against the building; which makes Lord Thomas Fitzgerald's defence before the Council at Dublin of his burning the cathedral of Cashel, "that he thought the Archbishop was inside," seem less comic than it has hitherto been considered. We are glad to say, however, that this eccentric view of the matter by the Grand Jury, which was doubtless taken in part in order to save the county from possible pecuniary liability, does not seem to have been adopted in the courts, where many of the rioters, though probably not the worst, have been convicted and sentenced to the extreme penalty of the law.

Within the past week a new revelation has been made of the confusion and disorder which taints every branch of municipal administration in New York, in the excise trouble. A Grand Jury has formally presented the whole excise system as a nuisance, and they are evidently justified in this opinion by the facts as far as they have come out in the legal proceedings. The law provides that no liquor shall be sold without a license, and there is a Board of Commissioners charged with the duty of enforcing it. Now these commissioners are politicians, and the liquor-dealers, or at any rate a great many of them, are influential in politics. With our present political system liquor-shops are natural political headquarters, serving as places where discussions and deliberations of a "primary" nature can be carried on, candidates picked out or rejected, and so on. In consequence of this fact, or for some other reason which is not apparent, the Excise Commissioners have not been in the habit of requiring licenses, and the liquor-dealers have not been in the habit of taking them out. They have usually paid a sum of money on account, taken a receipt, and had no further trouble, except in case of an occasional raid. Whether this failure to execute the law was due to the fact that the Excise Commissioners thought it well to "have a hold" upon the dealers, but not to be too hard upon them, we do not know; but this appears to have been the custom. Now, however, the law has been suddenly put in force (the enforcement being according to some accounts brought about by a quarrel between the Police and Excise Commissioners), and hundreds of liquor-dealers arrested all over the city (the law, too, against selling on Sunday being suddenly revived), and legal proceedings begun in all the courts. Questions of law by the dozen are, of course, found

to exist, some lawyers contending that the arrests are illegal, and that the receipt of moneys paid in good faith is a valid defence; others, that good faith has nothing to do with the question; and still others, that in the present state of the law the Excise Commissioners have nothing to do with issuing licenses, but that the Mayor has this authority under the "Montgomery Charter."

Following the declarations of the President and the Secretary of the Treasury against silver remonetization as a full legal tender, the price of gold fell to 102½, and the Syndicate, thinking that at last this pestilent question had been disposed of, subscribed for $10,000,000 more 4 per cent. bonds, and the Treasury issued a call for the resumption of $10,000,000 more 6 per cent. 5-20 bonds. Hardly had this appeared, however, when Mr. Stanley Matthews introduced his concurrent resolution declaring the legality of paying the bonds in silver. Although this resolution, even if passed by a two-thirds majority in both branches of Congress, could not have the binding force of law, yet so threatening did it seem to the public credit that the price of gold advanced to 103¼. The 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week had a gold value of $0.9068. In the stock market the principal event of the week has been an exposure of the Reading Company. Mr. Charles E. Smith, formerly president of the Reading Railroad, has published in advance of the annual meeting of the stockholders of that corporation a statement which brings grave charges against Mr. Gowen and the present management, which, however, Mr. Gowen treats as a stockjobbing operation, and as it has not seriously affected the market price of Reading shares, we shall postpone an examination of it until next week.

Marshal MacMahon's performances during the week have been odder than anything in his political career. At the close of last week he had an interview with Senator Duclerc of the Left, and asked him what the Left wanted, and Duclerc, on his own responsibility, asked for a good deal, hoping thus to lay the foundation for a compromise. This the Marshal and his friends treated as a proof of the impossibility of satisfying the Left, and there was a period of great anxiety. Then he sent for M. Dufaure, and gave him *carte blanche* to form a ministry, which it was understood, however, would be formed from the Left Centre, and such a ministry the Constitutionalists in the Senate promised to support, and all seemed to be going on swimmingly. The Cabinet was to contain such men as Léon Say, Marcère, Christophle, and Waddington; but the Republican press, while expressing full confidence in Dufaure, demanded some guarantees against unconstitutional dissolutions and the abuse of the right of proclaiming a state of siege. At this point, however, after having conceded everything, the Marshal's mind was again "poisoned," and he withdrew his *carte blanche* and insisted on having three seats in the Cabinet placed at his disposal—or, in other words, three of the present ministers retained—War, Marine, and Foreign Affairs. This broke up the negotiations, and on Saturday all was at sea again.

The likeness of his "goings on" to those of General Grant continues to be very striking. A large deputation of manufacturers waited on him to draw his attention to the serious effect the political crisis was having on the business of the country; but it made him angry, and he refused to see them and had them bowed out by an aide-de-camp. This recalls comically the deputation of Boston financiers, headed by Mr. William Gray, which waited on General Grant, in 1874, to ask him to veto the inflation bill. He rebuked them sharply for their impudence, and we believe did not tell them whether he would veto it or not. American manners, of course, did not permit of his refusing them an interview, but he probably felt about them very much as the Marshal felt about the manufacturers.

The all-overshadowing event of the week is the fall of Plevna. Carried to the extreme limit of endurance by the failure of provisions, fuel, and medicines, while his hospitals were gorged with sick and wounded, Osman Pasha, about daybreak on Monday, December 10, marched his army across the river Vid, and at 7:30 attacked the Russian Grenadier Corps holding the line of investment near the left bank, in the hope of cutting his way out by the road to Widdin. The attack was made with the energy of despair, and a portion of the Turkish troops actually penetrated the line of entrenchments and batteries, but the stubborn resistance of the grenadiers prevented the breaking through, and Russian and Rumanian reinforcements were hurried on from the adjoining positions on the right bank of the river. For five hours the Turks continued the struggle, but finally, seeing his army surrounded on all sides, and unable to re-enter Plevna, which, after some fighting, had been occupied from the east, Osman Pasha unconditionally surrendered to the Emperor, who treated him with courtesy. The whole Turkish artillery-train was captured in the immediate neighborhood of the town. The number of combatants taken was estimated by the conquerors at forty thousand. The Russo-Rumanian forces made a triumphal entry in the afternoon. In the evening Bucharest and St. Petersburg blazed with illuminations. Thus ended one of the most memorable sieges of modern times. For nearly five months Osman Pasha had held the little town, by him transformed into a formidable fortress, as a barrier against the Russian advance into the heart of Turkey; again and again repelling the assaults of the principal army of the Czar and the entire army of Rumania, and compelling a virtual standstill on the other fields of the European theatre of war, and the governing of the Russian Empire from some huts at Gorni Studen, Poradim, or Bogot. The defence was heroic, but the attempt to escape was made much too late.

Suleiman Pasha, evidently with the aim of preventing a co-operation of the Tzesarevitch's forces with those operating against Osman Pasha and Mehemet Ali, early last week set on foot a combined movement against Tirnova. Three Turkish columns advanced in converging lines in the direction of that town from Sarnasuflar, Osman Bazar, and a more southerly point. The one advancing from Sarnasuflar occupied Popköi and marched on Verbovka, apparently unopposed; the next, after some cannonading, compelled the retreat of the Russians from Kezrova, a place situated nearly twenty miles northeast of Tirnova; while the main attack was made by the southern column, under the direction of Suleiman Pasha himself, on the troops under Gen. Mirski, covering Elena. On Tuesday, December 4, after being forced back from Mahren, southeast of Elena, the Russians fought a severe battle at the latter place, but were defeated, and retired to Yakovtzi, "at the head of a mountain gorge," on the road to Tirnova. They admitted a loss at Mahren and Elena of nearly two thousand killed and wounded and eleven guns. The Turks renewed the attack on Wednesday, but effected little; Russian reinforcements arrived at Yakovtzi under General Deltinghausen, and other troops advanced to Zlataritza, intervening between the central and southern Turkish columns. Bad weather prevented considerable operations for some days, and on the 9th a Bogot bulletin stated the situation to be "unchanged, the Russians occupying Zlataritza and Yakovtzi, and the Turks confronting them." Bad weather also checked the movements of Mehemet Ali, whose troops, after their success at Komartzi, confronted the Russians between that place and Vretchesh. The Russians in Armenia, too, are reported to be prevented by the inclemency of the season and heavy snow from investing Erzerum, though the fortifications of that city are believed to be feebly manned. The Servians, however, some days ago, were more than usually active, making warlike demonstrations looking like a real invasion of Turkish soil, in the direction of Sienitza, near the western portion of their southern frontier. This new war cloud, however, has been dissipated by the announcement that the telegraphed "crossing of the frontier" originated in a confusion of boundary lines. The Rumanians have been stopped in their advance from Lom Palanka against Widdin, and the commander of that isolated Turkish fortress is strengthening its garrison by arming the Moslem population of the district. The Egyptian contingent, as reported, is to be considerably increased. A serious attack by the Russians on Batum is anticipated.

WHAT THE PARTY WANTS.

AMONG the causes of weakness which now affect the Republican party one of the most potent is to be found in its complete political success. It was called into existence for the purpose of preventing the further extension of slavery; it has been led on by the logic of events to the complete termination of the path on which it originally entered; and it now sees not only the acquiescence of the whole country in its policy, but the disappearance from our statute-books of every recognition of that race-antipathy the results of which it was organized to combat. In the sense in which the word was understood a few years ago, nearly all men may now be called Republicans. If the acquiescence is in many cases a reluctant one, it is nevertheless real, and, to all appearance, so permanent that if ever the question of the suffrage and political equality of the negro is reopened, it is as likely to be done under Republican as under Democratic auspices. An organization which has so completely attained the objects for which it was formed is necessarily in danger of dissolution unless some good reason for continuing it in existence can be found. There is but one way in which such a reason can be made manifest. The party must be going to do something which people want to have done, and to do it better and more certainly than any opposing party. People will not take the trouble to go to the polls themselves, and bring their neighbors thither, merely to vote for a party which has had a glorious history; but they will want some future good result in the form of legislation or administration to flow from the time and trouble they have expended. Unless there be some practical question at issue between the opposing parties, the party out of power has a great advantage merely because its members have nothing to quarrel about. Consequently, the present state of things, in which the two parties have pretty much the same platform, and each is afraid to take any decided stand upon any of the living questions of the day, is more unfavorable to the vitality of the Republican than to that of the Democratic party.

It might seem that if Mr. Hayes continues honestly and consistently to pursue the course which he marked out in his letter of acceptance and in his inaugural address, and to administer the government to the general satisfaction of a large majority of the people, he ought necessarily to achieve a great political success for his party. That the very men who are most grateful for what he has done to secure a good understanding between the various sections of the country, should use the power they have thus been enabled to acquire in voting solidly against him, seems, at first sight, so antagonistic to the fundamental principles which should govern men that we are loath to accept its possibility. But while we cannot doubt that the party which thus goes consistently forward in the path marked out by the moral sense of the nation will ultimately reap its full reward, it is vain to expect that it can thereby gain immediate absolution for all its past misdeeds. Let us look at the political questions now really under discussion, and see how far it is possible for the Republican party to join issue upon them with its opponents.

The civil service. The purification of the civil service is the measure to which the party is most distinctly and unequivocally committed in its platform. In the wording of the other planks we see indications of hesitation in the form of hints designed to pacify men of opposite views, while in the civil-service plank not the slightest hope is held out that traders in offices will be allowed to pursue their calling. And yet, as the case now stands, it is impossible to make a party issue on this question. The party has been in power seventeen years, so that the civil service is just what the party has made it, and it is the fault of the latter that any reform is needed. Asking to be kept in power to reform the civil service is simply asking to be kept in a trust to which it admits itself to have been unfaithful, in order that it may be faithful in future. The request is not only illogical in its very nature, but it is one on which it is impossible, under present circumstances, to make a party issue. Leaving aside the fact that one wing of the party is so bitterly opposed to reform that a reformer voting the Republican ticket hardly knows on which side of the question he is being counted, the question itself is one on which the outs are not going to take opposing ground. Every Democrat in the land can and will shout the battle-cry of reform louder than his Republican neighbor, with the great advantage of having no record to belie his words and no opponents in his own party to dispute him. This advantage must continue until a Democratic administration is tried and found wanting, which, judging from the use this party has made of its recently-acquired power, would be the most probable result. Then if the Republicans can show that they really made an honest attempt to have the civil service represent the best intellect and morals of the country, they can claim a return to power with a force which will not be possible while the experiment of a Democratic administration is untried.

The pacification of the South. Admitting that to President Hayes belongs the credit of adopting a course towards the South which has led to a result desired by all reasonable men, it is still not possible to make a party issue with the Democrats on that question at the present time. The President is in the position of the commander of an army who, on taking the field, can find no enemy to fight except in his own ranks. However excellent his policy, and however certain that it will be approved by his party, it must be shown that the opposing party is going to endanger its success before its supporters can see any strong reason for preferring one party to the other on this ground. And the only way to find whether Democratic success really will endanger the continuance of good feeling between the South and the North is to give it a trial.

The currency question. The large majority of the Democratic party is so hopelessly committed to the inflation craze, that nearly all believers in an honest currency are ready to rally to the standard of a party which will distinctly and unequivocally oppose its inflation schemes. Here we have just what the Republicans want to prevent their party from drifting hopelessly and helplessly down the stream, namely, a live issue on which all can join, without being in doubt which side of the question they are taking. The meaningless display of generalities, the shuffling and trimming, the equal toleration of every extreme of opinion, and all the other devices by which the Republican leaders are now striving to avoid making the currency question a party one, are, apart from the merits of the question, simply pitiable as specimens of party management, because they show that those leaders have no conception of the political necessity of the situation. So long as the party is afraid to take ground on any question about which parties can divide, so long must it continue to grow weaker, with no other hope of success than the forlorn one of the blunders and folly of its opponents. With such cowardice defeat is as good as certain, while by adopting a bolder course there is a reasonable hope of immediate, and a certainty of ultimate, success.

The question may be asked, why the want of a party issue is not as bad for the Democrats as for the Republicans, and how the mere discovery of a question to fight over can redound to the advantage of one side, apart from the merits of the question. We reply that the present state of things always must tend, in the course of time, to the disadvantage of the party in power; and the longer it continues, the greater the disadvantage. Such a party is constantly on trial by a court which reverses the maxim of the common law, and holds it guilty on every indictment unless it can prove its innocence. It is steadily losing from the defection of those who want a change for the mere excitement it will bring; of those who are dissatisfied with something it has done or failed to do; and of those who think that four or five Presidential terms is enough for one party, and that the other ought now to have a chance. The outs having none of the responsibility of power, and suffering none of these defections, are certain of ultimately becoming stronger than their opponents, if they only have good sense enough to adopt a waiting policy, and avoid taking any ground which is going to prove to their disadvantage. In a country where neither party has any idea which it considers worth fighting for, power must constantly pass from one party to the other.

The blindness of the Republican leaders to what is for the ultimate advantage of the party is no less deplorable than their unconsciousness of the party necessities of the hour. We are not sure but that one of the greatest dangers the reform movement has to encounter arises from the sanguine hope of its friends that it will immediately repair the waning fortunes of the party—a hope which, for reasons we have assigned, cannot have any valid foundation. The result will be that when the defeat which now seems imminent actually arrives, the cry of "We told you so!" will be loudly heard. It is of no use to conceal the fact that the reward of righteous political management is subject to the same laws with that of right living generally; it comes very slowly, and does not allow itself to be reaped by those who do right from no higher motive than that of gaining it. The politician to whom the next Presidential election is the end of the world will as surely be disappointed by the results of reform as would a young man of business who, hearing a sermon on the duty of cautious and prudent management, should start on that line with the idea of making an immediate fortune. If the Republican party is to be the ruling one of the country, it must begin by regaining that character which it has lost by the shortcomings of the Grant Administration, and must not forget that character is a plant of very slow growth, as the Democrats have found to their sorrow. It must distinguish itself from its opponents by showing that it has some principles which it values higher than success, and must prove itself a proper representative of the intelligence of the country by not being afraid to read bad men out of its ranks just because they are bad. Then, even if it meets defeat, it will have a base to fall back upon which will ensure ultimate success.

THE TERMS OF PEACE.

THE fall of Plevna means not simply the loss of 50,000 at least of the Sultan's best troops, but the addition of 120,000 to the Russian force available for an attempt to overwhelm Suleiman and Mehemet Ali and force the Balkans. In Asia, Mukhtar Pasha is shut up in Erzerum, and can hardly hope for relief from Trebizond even if his communications with the sea are not already cut; and the fall of Batum seems to be impending. Upon this state of facts an expectation of the near approach of peace has been rapidly springing up in Europe, and the discussion of the terms of peace has suddenly passed from the speculative to the practical stage, and is producing considerable, but one must admit well-deserved, perturbation in English opinion, and is bringing out the defects in recent English policy on the Turkish problem in very striking relief. To appreciate the gravity of the present crisis one has to go back a little.

The theory of the pro-Turkish party in England, which includes the bulk of the Conservatives and all "the best society," that the internal troubles in Turkey which brought on the present war were due, not to Turkish misgovernment, but to Russian intrigues, was made untenable from the beginning by the concurrence of Austria, Germany, and Russia in the Berlin Memorandum, which pointed out abuses which would of themselves have justified insurrection anywhere, and called on the Porte to rectify them in the interest of humanity and European peace. England refused to adhere to this Memorandum, not because she denied the facts but because she had no faith in the remedy. But she abandoned even this ground by going into the Constantinople Conference and urging on the Turks, in conjunction with the Great Powers, the creation of Bulgaria into a quasi-independent province, and the submission of the whole empire to a tolerably rigid system of European inspection. This was an admission of the strongest kind of three things—first, that there were crying evils in Turkish administration of which the Christians were victims; secondly, that the Turks if left to themselves would not institute the needed reforms; and, thirdly, that Turkey was not an independent and sovereign state in the sense in which that term is applied to other European Powers. The result to which the proceedings of the Conference clearly pointed was the application by the combined Powers of as much force as might be necessary to compel Turkey to submit to the programme of the Conference. That the mere threat of such application would have been sufficient to bring the Turks to terms no one doubts. All of the Powers except Russia refused to resort to it, simply on grounds of expediency. Russia undertook it alone, partly, no doubt, in pursuance of a traditional policy as against Turkey, but mainly because the Russian people were more excited about the griefs of the Turkish Christians than the people of any other country. Austria and Germany then took a perfectly rational view of the situation. Either of them might have stopped Russia by a single word, because in invading Turkey she exposes her flank to them both; but they assented, saying simply: "You have undertaken a tough job; we wish you joy of it; we shall not join you in it, but we are estopped by our own recent acts and declarations from interfering with or impeding you."

In England the news of the declaration of war produced an effect which would appear very singular if it were unprecedented. But it has been one of the peculiarities of English opinion for the last sixty years to sympathize strongly with oppressed peoples as long as they make no efforts to throw off the yoke, or have little chance of doing so, and to discountenance them sternly if they give any practical expression to their discontent, either by insurrection or invoking or accepting foreign aid. The cause of Greece had a good deal of sentimental encouragement in England while it seemed hopeless; its final, and one might say accidental, triumph by the battle of Navarino was deplored in the king's speech as "an untoward event," and converted Philhellenism very distinctly into Russophobia. The early success of the Hungarian insurrection of 1849 made the Hungarian cause odious or disreputable in English drawing-rooms, and the *Times* used to teem with articles in ridicule or depreciation of the Magyars. The Italian cause also drew English tears freely until 1859, when Cavour's masterstroke, the French alliance, first gave Italian independence an air of near reality, and converted English sympathy into fear or suspicion of France, very much like that which Russia is now calling forth. There is something pitiful in a passage in Mary Somerville's letters, written in Italy in 1859, in which she expresses the fear which English Liberals in that country felt at that time that England might be drawn into the war on the side of Austria. The history of English opinion during the American Civil War in 1861–5 is too recent or familiar to need recalling, but it ran through the usual phases, and is most interesting just now as a parallel to its course on the Russian war. It divided English society on almost exactly the same lines. We think the following is a strictly accurate description of it:

Russia, 1877.	United States, 1861–5.
War not due to sympathy for Christians, but desire of aggrandizement. Discontent of Christians due to Russian intrigues. Turks the true protectors of the Christian. Russian peasants might well envy Bulgarian peasants. Turk a gentleman.	War not about slavery at all; real cause a protective tariff for Northern manufactures and love of power. Slave-owners only effective friends of the black man. Negroes happier than Northern laborers. Planter a gentleman.
After first assault on Plevna.	After Bull Run.
Russia entering on a contest to which she is clearly unequal. Horrible bloodshed. Valor of the Turk shows that stories about Christian oppression are all lies. Probable retreat of the Russians across Danube. Bridges to be broken under pitiless Turkish fire. Awful loss of life.	North entered on a mad enterprise; Bull Run what might have been expected. South cannot be conquered. Horrible bloodshed. Valor of Southerners shows that slavery is not such a bad thing after all. When will the eyes of the North be opened? Probable invasion of the North by Southerners. New York and Philadelphia put to ransom. Universal madness in the Free States.
December, 1877.	December, 1862.
This dreadful war has lasted six months without decisive result. Turks are not conquered or likely to be; horrible barbarities on both sides. "Ever and again one is driven to exclaim, 'Is this to go on; will no one stop the useless course	This deplorable war has now lasted nearly two years. Tens of thousands have fallen by fratricidal hands, and we are no nearer the end than ever. Can this carnage not be stopped? It was easy to see why the North did not make peace after its shameful

of devastation and bloodshed?' " (*Blackwood's Mag.*) It is easy to understand that the Czar was unwilling to make peace after his first repulse; but now that his military honor has been vindicated by the bravery of his soldiers, he will surely make peace and go home.

The parallel might be pushed further, for Russia was in the beginning very anxious to conciliate England and hold her good opinion, and was amenable to English influence. The subsequent taunts and defiances, combined with the growing certainty of English non-intervention and of final success in the field, have bred an irritated indifference to what England thinks, and probably a desire to make a settlement in which she shall have no hand. At this moment there is a sort of panic in England lest the three emperors should close the Eastern question themselves, leaving England to mourn over Russian barbarities and the folly and ingratitude of "those rebels," as *Blackwood's Magazine* calls the Montenegrins and Herzegovinians, whom it assures that when the settlement comes "the Powers of Europe will not concern themselves about them." "They have been recklessly heaping up wrath for themselves against the day of wrath," says this pleasant-spoken organ, "and nobody can pity them when that day comes." It is hardly likely that Austria and Germany will consent, however, to any such process of exclusion, or that England would submit to have the Dardanelles or the Turkish fleet disposed of without her advice and consent; but there is hardly any settlement possible now which will not leave English influence in the Levant lower than it has been since the beginning of the century, and will not leave Russia with a hold on the imagination of the rising races of European Turkey such as she did not dare to hope for before the war broke out.

It is evident, too, that the early Russian reverses, which caused so much chuckling in English society, were, as we ventured to point out at the time, a great misfortune for the Turks. The repulses at Plevna and in Asia were, however glorious for a Power of which people had such a mean opinion as they had of Turkey, mere flea-bites to a Power whose resources were undeniably so great as those of Russia. They acted merely as an irritant, and lured the Turks into a false confidence which began to show itself at Constantinople in insolent defiance of the whole of Europe. They caused Russia to display her whole strength promptly, which she evidently had not done at the outset of the war, and they led Osman Pasha to stick fast close to the Russian base, where he could be surrounded and cooped up, thus relieving them of the greater part of their chief difficulty—the difficulty of transportation. They led Mukhtar Pasha, too, to stand his ground with a small force close to Alexandropol, so that the Russians were able to attack and overwhelm him, within a day's march of their own frontier, thus again escaping the chief difficulty of warfare in Armenia—that of keeping up a long line of communication through a desolate and mountainous country. And now, when the end comes, and Turkey can raise no more armies and has to ask for terms, the very toughness of her resistance will give her adversary an argument which the great military Powers will find irresistible for exacting a crushing indemnity for the war; and as Turkey cannot pay in money she will probably have to pay in everything else. Not only is she likely to have to cede to the Montenegrins the territory they have conquered, and to the Herzegovinians and Bulgarians some sort of semi-independence, but to have to cede to Russia territory in Asia, and perhaps the fleet, or a part of it, and the free passage of the Dardanelles for ships-of-war. Austria and Germany can find their compensation and their guarantees in all these things, but it is hard to say what advantage England can extract from them, unless she seizes Egypt. But the seizure of Egypt will, under the circumstances, hardly make up for the loss of influence at Constantinople, which her own attitude has prepared, and which Russian successes seem likely to make irreparable and permanent.

THE PRACTICAL WORKING OF THE SILVER BILL.

THE silver bill, as originally introduced in Congress, and as subsequently proposed to be amended, suggests the following considerations:

First. As regards the original bill:

1. The Government cannot call in greenbacks as the German Government has called in silver, for conversion. The German Government called in coin of intrinsic value and paid out coin of intrinsic value, getting an equivalent in kind; the greenbacks have no intrinsic value, and are only promises to pay. The only way to call them in is to pay them.

2. Consequently, the only means the Government has of obtaining silver for coinage is in exchange for the greenbacks and gold in its own coffers.

3. This transaction can only be repeated as further amounts of greenbacks and gold are paid into the Treasury, and must, therefore, be limited.

4. Gold will still be required by States, cities, and railroad companies whose bonds and interest are payable in gold, and by merchants who wish to keep their merchandise on a gold basis—that is to say, on a par with other countries.

5. There will, therefore, be approximately the same amount of gold required in the country as heretofore.

6. Silver will, therefore, have to be added side by side with gold, each performing a different function, two supplies being required instead of one. For example, the merchant will have to have a supply of gold to keep his merchandise on a par with the rest of the world, and a separate supply of silver to pay his duties.

7. Silver being by law legal tender, greenbacks must at once fall to the same discount, as regards gold, that silver is at. They have no superior intrinsic value, and the law will give them none. Eventually they must tend to fall lower than silver.

8. The supply of silver will have to be obtained from two sources—the home supply from the production of our own mines, and the foreign supply by foreign importations. The silver from our mines being now wholly exported, an equal value of gold must leave the country to take the place of that retained here, while that which is imported from abroad must also be paid for in gold.

9. This gold drawn from our limited supply, which is needed for the purposes above named, must put up the price of gold at least as fast as the increased demand for silver advances the price of silver.

10. The greenbacks having no legal value superior to that of silver will be governed by the fluctuations of silver, as far as a maximum value is concerned, but they must tend eventually to fall below the value of silver as fast as distrust increases, silver having an intrinsic value which greenbacks have not. The process would be exactly the same as that through which the relations of greenbacks and gold passed when greenbacks were first introduced.

11. We should then find ourselves with two currencies: greenbacks, the poorest, and silver, the best—both fluctuating as regards foreign countries, and therefore unavailable as a representative of fixed value. Gold would have become an article of merchandise, having no relation to the currency but the nominal one given by statute.

12. Silver and gold would be governed in their relative prices by those prevailing in the rest of the world, while greenbacks would fluctuate as the credit and circumstances of the country varied. In other words, gold and silver would, as it is called, rise and fall, as compared with greenbacks, in a comparatively fixed ratio to each other, and silver would eventually disappear from circulation as gold has done, leaving only greenbacks in circulation.

13. To provide the silver needed for the coinage of silver dollars for the payment of interest in silver and for the supply which will be required by merchants to pay customs dues, the Government would have no resource but to buy silver with its own gold and greenbacks; and if more were required, resort to borrowing for the purpose by the issue of bonds.

14. All the bonds of the United States now out would fall in value the difference between gold and silver, as soon as the payment of their interest in silver became imperative by law. Consequently, all new issues of bonds would have to be made at a rate of interest one per cent. higher than the relative bonds now; and all bonds issued for funding must follow the same rule. In other words, if the public debt could be funded at 4 per cent. in gold, it could not be funded at better than 5 per cent. in silver.

Second. In case, as proposed in the amendment to the bill, the applica-

tion of the law should except the payment of the interest on the public debt, and the payment of duties, from the use of silver, and limit the legal-tender quality of silver to fifty dollars, the following exceptional results might be expected :

1. Silver not being payable for customs, the Government would receive no silver from that source, and would have to buy all it coined. It could not buy more than the amount of its annual surplus, which probably would not exceed two million dollars a month, or twenty-four million dollars a year.

2. This amount of silver is not larger than that invested in fractional currency, and would not probably affect the relative price of silver to gold more than that purchase did.

3. Nor would it at first be of sufficient importance to affect the relations of greenbacks to gold. Its limitation as a legal tender to fifty dollars would make it simply so much added to the fractional currency.

4. Consequently, the clause making silver a legal tender up to fifty dollars would have the effect that all sums below fifty dollars would be paid in silver, which would remain at a discount as compared with greenbacks.

5. This would include all payments to the Post-Office departments.

6. But the Government would have to make nearly all its payments in greenbacks, being for amounts over fifty dollars.

7. Consequently, the whole currency balance of the Government would shortly become, as far as the supply of silver in the country allowed, replaced by silver ; the Government would then have to buy greenbacks with its silver to make its payments in legal form, while the public would simultaneously buy the silver to pay it back to the Government, through the Post-Office, etc.

8. The receipts of the Post-Office and similar departments would be reduced by the difference between greenbacks and silver.

9. All retail dealers would have to buy for gold or currency, and, as a rule, must sell for silver. All wages paid by the month would be paid in silver, and all supplies of the poor would have to be bought with silver, and consequently both wages and supplies would rise. Two prices would then begin to prevail—one for greenbacks and one for silver—till in the end silver and greenbacks would be forced into an artificial proximity, putting the price of silver here out of conformity with that in the rest of the world. This would cause the importation of more silver, and force gold out of the country to restore the balance, and we should find ourselves, by the action and reaction of this process, with the most fluctuating and disastrous currency in the world—vastly worse than we have now.

The whole silver movement is in principle an effort to "protect" silver, by putting it to artificial uses and surrounding it with artificial privileges inconsistent with its natural level of value throughout the rest of the world. It would be disastrous to the extent that it would not be protecting an article which the public could go without, but one which would be made a forced measure of all values in this country, without performing the same function in any other. In fact, we should have simultaneously three measures of values, two of them fluctuating (one wholly of credit, one one-tenth credit, and one wholly intrinsic) ; a state of things which would defeat all calculations of merchants, bankers, producers, consumers, and distributers, and bring us to a nearer approach to absolute barter than has been seen in modern times, reducing us to a more than colonial subjection to other countries, and making us the object of unceasing combinations on the part of the rest of the world.

The difficulties of the position, should we introduce the element of silver into our currency at the valuation proposed—thus making three legal tenders of different values and put to different uses—are comparatively easy to be stated ; but how we should be able to undo the evil which would be the result, and which would have to be undone if any intercourse between man and man were to continue, is a problem of a different character. That resumption would be impossible while such a condition of affairs existed would be the least of them.

AN OLD FRENCH FAMILY.

PARIS, November 16, 1877.

I CAN hardly imagine anything more interesting than the history of a family continued through a great number of generations. But few families have records which cover a number of centuries ; there are but few where the direct thread of descent is not cut short by death. There are, however, singular exceptions. I am myself working at the present moment at the life of the great Protestant general, the Duke Henri de Rohan, and I have ascertained that he was the thirteenth eldest son in a family in which the eldest sons had never died without leaving sons. The minor branches had disappeared ; the eldest branch was sound, and remained so for ages. But there is a more curious instance of this phenomenon, which is not only interesting from a historical but also from a physiological point of view. I know a young boy who now goes under the name of the Prince de Tarente, and who will at his father's death be called Duc de la Trémoille. This lad is the seventeenth La Trémoille born from an oldest son. His father, the present duke, is the sixteenth. The house of La Trémoille is therefore one of the most interesting that can be found ; its descent can be traced by authentic documents as far back as the tenth century. It takes its origin from the estate of La Trémoille, part of the domain of the first Counts of Poitou. Peter, the first who bore the name of La Trémoille, sprung from William, Count of Poitou (it was in the tenth century that the cadets began to assume the name of their special *apanage*). A certain Guy, called a "valorous warrior" in a document preserved at St.-Remi at Reims, in the year 1098, accompanied Godfrey de Bouillon to the Holy Land in 1096.

There are various documents concerning the La Trémoilles who lived in the eleventh and twelfth and thirteenth centuries. An act of the Parlement of Paris shows that Guy V., son of Guy IV., was named by our King John chief baker of France (*grand panetier*). The present duke has published a magnificent work, which begins with Guy VI., the eldest son of this chief baker. This book, edited at great cost, cannot have a large circulation ; only two hundred copies of it have been printed. It is not, properly speaking, an historical work ; it is a succession of historical documents, printed in chronological order.

These documents, belonging to the Trémoille family, were kept in the various châteaux which it possessed. Of these collections (we call such collections of family documents *chartriers*) one only has been preserved, the *chartrier* of Thouars (the La Trémoilles sat in Parlement as Dukes of Thouars). At various times during the war of the Vendée, Thouars was on the point of being burnt. The iron door which protected the archives was pierced with balls, but the door resisted the attacks of the soldiery. After the war the archives were in still greater danger. The La Trémoilles of the time thought little of them, and the women of Thouars found that there was no better cover for pots of confitures than good old vellum ; they were allowed for years to help themselves for this purpose in the *chartrier*. The mice did their work in peace. Much, therefore, was lost in the precious dépôt of Thouars, but enough remains to furnish a great field of research to the historian.

Thouars was confiscated in 1793, with all the estates of the La Trémoilles, who had followed the fortunes of royalty and rebelled against the Convention. The *chartrier* became municipal property. The present duke only took possession of his family papers twenty years ago. M. Paul Marchegay, the Archivist of the Department of Maine-et-Loire, examined them first, in order to find, if possible, letters of Madame de Sévigné and of the Prince de Tarente. In his double capacity of Vendéen and of Protestant, M. Marchegay, who is very learned, discovered the great importance of the La Trémoille archives. The duke, who had hitherto only been a man of the world, himself took much interest in his own family treasures ; he began to study history in its most minute details. M. Marchegay, who was, so to speak, his professor and his guide, introduced order into the immense chaos of Thouars. Thousands of letters and documents were classified ; some have been published, on distinguished personages, chiefly of the time of our wars of religion.

But the real work which is now before us is more especially the work of the duke himself ; it is a monument erected by him to his ancestors. The plan of the work is very simple. Each successive member of the family has his biography, which is followed by the text of the most important original documents that bear upon him or concern him directly. Guy VI. de La Trémoille was employed by Charles VI. in all his wars ; he received from the hands of his king, in the basilica of St.-Denis, the oriflamme which he bore against the English. He was offered the sword of Constable in 1397, after Clisson had fallen from the king's favor, but he refused it. He became a great favorite of Philip the Bold of Burgundy. He was a type of the feudal knight, and was hired for his good service not only by the King of France but by the Count of Savoy, by Galeas Visconti, by the Duke of Milan, by Clement VII., by the Queen of Naples, by the Duchess of Brabant. He fought in a famous tournament against Peter de Courtenay, who came on purpose from England to meet him, under the eyes of Charles VI. He followed John, Count of Nevers, against Bajazet, and was made prisoner at the disastrous battle of Nicopolis in 1396. An enormous ransom was paid for him ; he was on

his way back to France when he fell ill at Rhodes, where he died, and was buried in the Church of St. John. This Guy VI. had married Marie de Sully, who possessed in her own right sixteen counties or baronies. After Guy's death she married Charles d'Albret, one of the ancestors of Jeanne d'Albret, the mother of Henry IV. In this way there is a distant connection between the two families of La Trémoille and of Bourbon.

The son of Guy VI., George, became prime minister of Charles VII. He had many adversaries in the great nobility of France, and among others the Constable Richmont, who made him prisoner by surprise at Chinon, threw him in prison at Montrésor, and only released him for a very heavy ransom. The anger of La Trémoille was such that he became with the Dauphin one of the leaders of the famous movement called *La Praguerie*. Among the original documents which concern him we find many receipts of money advanced to the king during the wars with the English.

We have nothing to say of Louis I., Prince de La Trémoille, but his son, Louis II., had a very eventful life. He was one of the most loyal supporters of four kings—viz., Louis XI., Charles VIII., Louis XII., and Francis I. His contemporaries called him "the knight without reproach, the honor of his time and the glory of his house." His great feat was the victory of Saint-Aubin-du-Cormier. He fought valiantly at Fornoue, Agnadel, and Marignan. When the Duke of Orléans became king, under the name of Louis XII., he gave him command of the army of Italy, with which he conquered all Lombardy and made Lodovico Sforza, the Duke of Milan, a prisoner. Finally, he died on the battle-field of Pavia, under the eyes of his king. His first wife was a princess of Bourbon, of the Montpensier branch; his second was Louisa Borgia, the daughter of Cæsar Borgia, Duke of Urbino. A few years before his death he had become the tutor of the Tuscan princess Catherine de' Medici, who became afterwards Queen of France.

At the battle of Pavia, the son of Louis II., who fought by his side, was made prisoner. He paid a ransom of 9,000 écus in gold, and on his return became governor of Poitou. In that capacity he received Charles V. of Spain, when the great emperor traversed France on his way to Ghent. Louis III. became, like his father, governor of Poitou, and took a constant part in the wars of religion between 1551 and 1576. It was during his lifetime that the viscounty of Thouars was made a duchy. The Duchy of Thouars is now the first in France possessed by the direct descendants of the first duke, which gave to the head of this family precedence at court over all the other dukes. This duchy had the singular privilege of being susceptible of transmission in the female line, in the absence of any male descendants. Though the title of Duke of Thouars is the oldest, as a title, the Dukes of Thouars were only second in the French Parlement as peers; the first peerage was that of Uzès.

The son of Louis III., Claude de la Trémoille, was the first of his family to embrace the destinies of Calvin. He was one of the faithful companions of the King of Navarre. He fought at Coutras, at Ivry, and took part in the sieges of Paris, of Rouen, of Poitiers; in the last campaign of Henri IV. he raised on his own estates, and supported himself, a troop of five hundred gentlemen and two thousand infantry. He married in 1598 Charlotte Brabantine of Nassau, one of the daughters of the famous William the Silent, Prince of Orange. This marriage brought him in close connection with the famous Duc de Bouillon, and he lived, as it were, all his lifetime under the influence of the clever and subtle Prince Sovereign of Sedan. After the death of Henri IV. he followed Bouillon's fortunes during the troubled times of the minority of Louis XIII. Fortune turned against the Protestant cause after the death of the glorious Béarnais, and the son of Claude, Henri de la Trémoille, abjured the Protestant religion before the walls of Saint-Jean-d'Angély, while this city was being besieged by Louis XIII., and defended by Soubise, the brother of Henri de Rohan. Louis XIII. made him *mestre de camp* of the light cavalry of France, and during the campaign against Piedmont, La Trémoille took the pass called the Pas de Suse.

The La Trémoilles sank with the other great families of France from the rank of feudal noblemen, able to measure their loyalty, to the rank of courtiers during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Their dignity was still very great, and they had the right to preside alternatively with the Rohans over the estates of Britanny. But the heroic age of the French nobility was past; the central power had left no independence to the ducal families, and the heroic spirit of the time of the wars of religion was gone. It would be very interesting to trace the La Trémoilles through the terrible revolutionary period. Their very name was almost forgotten; their estates were sold. Still there is something almost invincible in a name. The present Duc de la Trémoille is again in possession of Thouars, and is devoted to historical studies; but if one of his descendants chooses to enter into the political arena, we see no reason why a generous and conservative republic should not give him the highest honors of the state.

Correspondence.

PAUPERISM AND THE SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The relations between pauperism and the suffrage may be theorized upon without end, but legislation must touch the subject with a careful hand, for practical reasons which every person of legislative experience will appreciate. The principal difficulty with us in Massachusetts lies in the fact that the Constitution withholds the right of suffrage from "paupers" merely, without limitation or qualification. No judicial interpretation can be necessary to teach a person of ordinary intelligence that a "pauper" is a person who is *receiving* public aid, or subsisting, wholly, or in part, upon aid hitherto received—not one who has received it at some indefinite time in the past, or is liable to need it in the future. The pauperism which disqualifies one to-day cannot operate forward to disqualify him after its termination, any more than alienage or minority. Nor can any person or tribunal presume that the pauper of to-day will be a pauper next month, or next year; nor would it be just or safe to authorize such a presumption, pauperism being rather of the class of disabilities which the law never presumes, but requires to be proved. But if judicial interpretation is necessary, we have it in the *Opinion of the Justices*, 11 Pick. 537, given with reference to the question involved in this discussion, namely, the right of suffrage. It was for these reasons chiefly, I think, that the "lawyers not demagogues" of our last Legislature found themselves unable to give the Cambridge gentlemen what they desired.

Now, allow me three suggestions, to make which was the main purpose of this communication: 1. The difficulty with which the Cambridge people have to contend is not pauperism but *fraud*. 2. The reform, if any, must begin with the Constitution, by making it fix a time within which the receipt of aid shall disqualify. 3. An enlightened public sentiment must go before it. A. E. P.

Boston, Dec. 3, 1877.

Notes.

Hachette & Co., of Paris, intend to publish some time within the next ten years a French and English dictionary on a very large scale. Persons interested in the subject will confer a favor by noting down French words and phrases not found in the dictionaries now in use, (if possible, Littré, Sachs's 'Dictionnaire Encyclopédique,' or Hamilton-Legros should be consulted), and communicating them to Mr. William Cook, Cambridge, Mass., the American editor. Notes upon words used in America and not in England and vice versa, and words not in Webster, upon slang and upon local words and new words, will also be welcome.——Little, Brown & Co. have in press a collection of original papers relating to early New England Federalism and Secession, with notes by Prof. Henry Adams.——The Comte de Gobineau's admirable 'Nouvelles Asiatiques' is to be the next volume of Appletons' "Collection of Foreign Authors," under the title, 'Romances of the East.'——'The Electoral System of the United States,' by D. A. McKnight, is announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co.——Macmillan & Co. have undertaken the publication of a new quarterly journal of neurological science, called *Brain*. It will be conducted by Drs. Bucknill, Crichton Browne, Ferrier, and Hughlings Jackson.——Pending our own review of Baron von Richthofen's magnificent work on China, of which the first volume has been for some time in hand, we commend the article on "The Chinese Loess Puzzle," by Prof. J. D. Whitney, in the *American Naturalist* for December. The same number announces that this magazine, heretofore published by Hurd & Houghton, will hereafter be published by McCalla & Stavely, Philadelphia, and be edited by A. S. Packard, jr., and Prof. E. D. Cope, with the assistance of eminent men of science. This transfer is another sign of the times.——The *Literary World* for December 1 contains a number of poetical and other tributes to the poet Whittier in honor of his completing his seventieth year on the 17th instant. Longfellow, Holmes,

Bayard Taylor, and Stedman, are among the Northern tribute-bearers in verse; and Paul H. Hayne the only Southern.——The American Philological Society (not to be confounded with the *Association* that has the better right to the name) holds its annual meeting at the Cooper Institute December 19. "The Present Aspect of the Spelling Reform" will form the subject of a paper by the Rev. D. P. Lindsley.——The English appear to be in earnest about the Index Society. It is already founded and organized, with the declared objects "of preparing (*a*) indexes of standard indexless books, (*b*) subject indexes of science and literature, (*c*) a general MS. index formed from the other two." Mr. Henry B. Wheatley, 5 Minford Gardens, West Kensington, is the Secretary. Subscription, one guinea. It is to be hoped that it is not intended to leave the work of the society in manuscript.———The inefficiency of many of the German consuls, and above all the necessity of appointing foreigners to many of these posts, has led the German Minister of Foreign Affairs to propose the establishment of a consular academy. It will be open to students who have received a university education, or have passed the requisite examination, or have acquired a practical knowledge of foreign countries. A very similar method of educating consuls is followed in Spain, if we are not mistaken, and is worthy of imitation by every civilized nation.

—In the December number of *Harper's Magazine* is an article entitled "The Cosmogony of 'Paradise Lost,'" which explains very clearly many of the difficulties in the way of understanding that great poem. It is, however, much to be regretted that the writer of the article, although he speaks of copying one of the diagrams from the *Sphæra* of Johannes à Sacrobosco, did not also mention his authority for every statement in the article, which is a most complete plagiarism from Professor Masson's Introduction to the Globe Edition of the Poetical Works of John Milton, lately published by Macmillan & Co., or from the two-volume edition of 1874. A few quotations will make this clear:

Harper's Magazine, p. 137:

"Originally, before the creation of the earth or the starry universe which we now see about us, universal space is conceived by the poet, not as containing stars or starry systems, but as a sphere of infinite radius—if such a thing were conceivable—divided into two hemispheres thus: [Here follows diagram identical with that in Globe Ed.] . . . Chaos is an infinite ocean or quagmire of universal darkness. It is not to be considered as mere empty space, but an abyss wherein are jumbled together in confusion the elements of all matter."

Introduction to 'Paradise Lost,' Globe Ed., p. 19:

"Aboriginally, or in primeval eternity, before the creation of our earth or the starry universe to which it belongs, universal space is to be considered, according to the requisites of the poem, not as containing stars or starry systems at all, but as, so to say, a sphere of infinite radius, divided equatorially into two hemispheres, thus—[Diagram] . . . (p. 20). For it is chaos, or the uninhabited—a huge, limitless ocean, abyss, or quagmire of universal darkness and lifelessness, wherein are jumbled in blustering confusion the elements of all matter, or rather the crude embryons of all the elements, ere as yet they are distinguishable."

It will be noticed that in this last passage the writer who helped himself out of Mr. Masson's book has smoothed the Scotch professor's somewhat rugged style; but generally he is content with something more like the mechanical process of copying. For instance:

Harper's Magazine, p. 139:

"The fiend, attracted by the light from the heavenly staircase by which the angels ascend and descend from the universe to the gate of Heaven, finds his way to the opening at the zenith. Sometimes these stairs are drawn upward, but when Satan reached the place they are let down. Standing on the lower rung or stair, he gazes through the opening underneath down into the universe. He sees it both from pole to pole and also longitudinally—

"'from eastern point
Of Libra to the fleecy star that bears
Andromeda far off Atlantic seas
Beyond the horizon.'"

Introduction, p. 24:

"Accordingly . . . the Fiend is attracted in the right direction to the opening at the zenith. What attracts him thither is a gleam of light from the mysterious structure or staircase (iii. 501 *et seq.*) which then serves the Angels in their descent from Heaven's gate into the human universe, and again in their ascents from the universe to Heaven's gate. Sometimes these stairs are drawn up to Heaven and invisible; but at the moment when Satan reached the spot they were let down, so that, standing on the lower stair, and gazing down through the opening right underneath, he could suddenly behold the whole interior of the starry universe at once. He can behold it in all directions—both in the direction of latitude, or depth from the pole where he stands, to the opposite pole or nadir; and also longitudinally."

[Here follows the same quotation from 'Paradise Lost.']

There is no need of giving further extracts; the whole article in the *Magazine* is "lifted" directly and without a word of acknowledgment from Professor Masson's painstaking Introduction. The only passage with any claim to originality is one in which attention is called to "one of the humors" of the poem. This writer need not fear plagiarism.

—Now that Kellogg and Butler have got their seats in the Senate, it is time for the historian of Reconstruction to begin gathering his materials. The latest contribution to the subject is ex-Secretary Welles's article on the "Administration of Abraham Lincoln" in the December *Galaxy*. Mr. Welles's motive, besides the narrative of events, is twofold—viz., to expose the selfish intrigues of Mr. Chase for the Presidency while yet a member of the Cabinet, and to defend Mr. Lincoln's assumption of the initiative in reconstruction against the view of the power of Congress in the premises which was so bitterly urged by Thaddeus Stevens, Winter Davis, and B. F. Wade. As regards the latter undertaking, he accomplishes no more, it seems to us, than to make clear the knottiness of a problem over which Congress and Mr. Lincoln were divided. Mr. Lincoln's part in reconstructing Louisiana and Arkansas, whether wise (abstractly considered) or legal, undoubtedly hindered the revival of self-government and loyalty at the South; and many will think that it erred both in permitting the color distinction to survive the abolition of slavery in the State laws regulating the suffrage, and in allowing too small a body of electors to constitute itself the new State. Congress corrected one of these errors but confirmed the other, which it might have done even without Mr. Lincoln's example. His mistakes were rendered irretrievable by his death; Congress's by the temper of his successor. Louisiana, the first of the rebel States to be taken in hand and the last to be pacified, is perhaps a monument to the unwisdom both of the amnesty proclamation of December 8, 1863, and of the subsequent reconstruction legislation. The excuse of necessity which Congress can plead before history may outweigh that of duty which Lincoln might have alleged. As for the Constitutional issue, while its importance cannot be judged by the infrequency with which it is likely to arise, the President would probably at least have been forgiven had he led off with a plan agreeable to the wishes of Congress. Since he did not, he was accused of encroaching on the prerogative of Congress by his simple veto of the Winter Davis reconstruction act of 1864. Who knows in how many days we shall be hearing, on occasion of the veto of the Silver Bill, that President Hayes "must confine himself to his executive duties," must "obey and execute, not make, the laws"?

—Last May (No. 621 of the *Nation*) we gave in these Notes an abstract of a correspondence between Mr. Francis P. Knight, Chinese Commissioner at the Philadelphia Exposition, and President Eliot, of Harvard, on the utility of collegiate instruction in Chinese. The substance of Mr. Knight's message was, that China offers a career for a small, perhaps, yet indefinite and increasing number of Americans qualified to speak and write the language, in the customs-service, in the consular service, in civil and mining engineering and railway management, as well as in the courts; and he offered, if the expenses could be defrayed, to bring out to this country competent teachers, under whom in two years young men could fit themselves to be useful in the East in some degree. President Eliot gave his cordial approval to the scheme, and promised the assistance of the Corporation. We are able to state that the necessary funds have been raised, and that Mr. Knight returned last week to China with the expectation that by the opening of the fall term of 1878 instruction could be begun at Harvard in the manner indicated. Meantime, as our readers are aware, a Chinese professorship has been founded at Yale, and filled by the appointment of Dr. S. Wells Williams.

—Just when the London season was breaking up, and the Houses of Parliament were wistfully looking for their holidays on the grouse-moors, their yacht races, trips to the Continental spas, and the like, an ardent body of ladies and gentlemen of surplus energy were meeting at Birmingham, England, in a congress on "Domestic Economy." The London Society of Arts had issued, four months previously, a notice of "a congress annually to promote the knowledge of domestic economy as defined by the Education Code," and, on the evening of the 17th July, the congress was opened by a *conversazione*, at which some 600 persons were present, at the rooms of the Royal Birmingham Society of Artists. Oddly enough the reporter feels bound to add: "Better ventilation only was wanted for the enjoyment of a crowded audience"; so at the very beginning these wise people were not able to practise what they were so prone to preach. There was nothing noteworthy in the introductory conversation unless it was the familiar remark of Professor Huxley that, "if any

one is interested in the laws of health it is the poor workman, whose strength is wasted by ill-prepared food, whose health is sapped by bad ventilation and bad drainage, and half whose children are massacred by disorders which might be prevented." The sections of the Congress met on the 18th and 19th July. The following was the order of the proceedings:

"Wednesday, July 18th, *Morning sitting*, 10:30 to 1:30. Section A.—(1) Needlework—Clothing and its Materials, 10:30 to 11:25; (2) Cleanliness—Washing, 11:25 to 12:30. Section B.—(1) Health, 12:30 to 1:30. *Afternoon sitting*, 2 to 5. Section C.—(1) Methods of teaching Domestic Economy—Text-books, 2 to 3:10; (2) Inspection—Government grant—Female inspectors—Working of the Society of Arts Examinations, 3:10 to 4:10; (3) Thrift—Savings-Banks, 4:10 to 5.

"Thursday, July 19th, *Morning sitting*, 10:30 to 1:30. Section B (continued).—(1) Sickness—10:30 to 12; (2) The Dwelling—Warming and Ventilation, 12 to 1:30. *Afternoon sitting*, 2 to 5:30. Section A (continued).—Food and Cookery."

The subjects were discussed in the order laid down in the programme. Each speech was limited to ten minutes on each separate head specified in the programme. The papers, which were, as far as practicable, printed and distributed in the room, were not (except under special circumstances, at the discretion of the chairman) read, but each writer of a paper was allowed five minutes for stating the substance of it in addition to any speech. In contemplating all which, and in looking through the Congress's printed report of 100 pages or so, closely printed, it cannot but occur to any one that Sterne's chapter on "Hobby-horses" is a profound and exact commentary, just as true nowadays as when it first saw the light.

—We mentioned last week the sale of the late Ambroise Firmin-Didot's precious collection of engravings. *Polybiblion* announces in the November number the sale in April next of the first part of his library, which will certainly bring a higher total, as it is doubtful whether any private collection of books in all France is equal to it. Red-letter MSS. of a high value abound, and the library is also exceptionally rich in specimens of early printing, of the earliest works illustrated with wood-cuts, and romances of chivalry, one of which last, a folio of 1495, unique and on vellum, discovered in 1850, and sold to its first purchaser for $250, was bought by M. Didot in 1867 for $2,000. The same number of *Polybiblion* contains a Galileo bibliography, to be concluded in the December number. We learn from it, too, that M. Claudio Jannet's work on 'Les États-Unis Contemporains' has reached a third edition, and been brought down to date by an account of the late Presidential struggle and the July railroad riots. A second volume has been added, devoted among other subjects to the labor question and the events of the Centennial year. The new notes and appendices are very copious.

—As the probability of the speedy election of a new Pope grows stronger, all information as to the composition of the Conclave and the rules controlling its proceedings is of importance. The standard work in English is still Cartwright's 'On Papal Conclaves,' published in 1868, notwithstanding T. Adolphus Trollope's later work with a similar title. A more trustworthy account than either, however, is to be found in the second volume of the magnificent 'Actes et Histoire du Concile œcuménique de Rome' (Paris. 1870-73). This has, indeed, an almost semi-official character, being contained in a work having the Pope's express sanction, and the author being one of his chamberlains, Barbier de Montault. It is a very clear and concise account of all the ceremonies connected with the meeting of the Conclave and of the manner of voting. Diagrams of the ballots, showing the manner in which they are written, sealed, and folded, are of great assistance in making plain the complicated method of preparing the vote.

—The last number (No. 23) of the *Romania* has as usual a valuable array of articles. Of philological interest are those by L. Havet on the pronunciation of *ie* in French, and an extensive treatise of fifty-nine pages by J. Cornu on the phonology of the dialect of the valley of Bagnes (near Martigny). Of literary interest are an Old-French poem on the legendary life of St. John Chrysostom, and three versions of the Romance of Clotilde collected in Forez and Velay by V. Smith, who endeavors to show that these *chansons* do not refer to Clotilde, daughter of Clovis and wife of Amalaric, but are simply poetical forms of the world-wide story of 'Bluebeard; or, The Cruel Husband.' P. Rajna contributes an interesting study of the sources of the ninth novel of the tenth day of the 'Decameron,' citing a heretofore unnoticed parallel in the 'Dialogus Miraculorum' of Cæsar of Heisterbach. P. Meyer communicates the discovery, with extracts, in the National Library at Madrid, of the Catalan treatises by Raimon Vidal on the rules of poetry and grammar. In the department of Mélanges, G. Paris suggests a new explanation of the source of the so-called euphonic *t* in the interrogative forms of verbs of the first conjugation. He attributes it not to the resumption of the Latin ending, but to analogy with the endings in *t* of the other conjugations. The same scholar also contributes an extensive review of Charles Aubertin's 'Histoire de la langue et de la littérature Française au moyen âge' (Paris, 1876, vol. i.) In spite of the many inaccuracies it contains, the reviewer pronounces it an excellent work, and destined to fill the long-felt want of a history of early French literature, the compend by Ideler, 'Geschichte der Altfranzösischen National-Literatur' (Berlin, 1842), being justly pronounced dry, incomplete, and more a bibliography than a literary history.

—We cannot be stow unqualified praise upon Koolman's 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (Norden: Braams, 1877), of which the first two *Hefte* lie before us. Certainly in Germany, the home of linguistic science, the lexicographer must be held to strict account, and must at least possess a clear idea of what does and what does not constitute a special or dialect-dictionary. The proper functions of a dialect-dictionary are: 1. To record all the dialectic words and idioms in actual use, but with reasonable brevity. 2. To give etymologies only of such words as are not found in the *Schriftsprache*, or of words that are in dispute. But it can never be the office of a dialect-dictionary to enter into general philology. Against both these principles, but especially against the latter, Koolman has sinned grievously. Thus, under *as*, "ace," we find over three columns of dissertation upon the relations of the word to Sanscrit, Zend, etc., etc., where a simple reference to Grimm, Pott, and Fick would have sufficed. Similarly, *atte*, "father" (the word used by Vulfila), occupies three columns and a half. At this rate a dictionary which might be compressed into one small volume threatens to exceed all reasonable limits. The ordinary reader, who consults his dictionary for mere lexical purposes, does not need such etymologies, and the professed philologist can either work them out for himself or find them in other more standard works. On the other hand, Koolman is altogether too meagre in his explanations of idiomatic phrases and popular sayings. We fear that none but a native East-Frisian will derive much light, for instance, from the long quotation, p. 79. Yet despite its sins of omission and commission, Koolman's work will be, when completed, a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the Germanic dialects. It embodies the labors of one who is thoroughly at home in his field, and has diligently collected words and phrases from the lips of sailor and peasant. In view of the close relationship between the Anglo-Saxon elements of our language and the Frisian, English lexicographers will doubtless derive much aid from it in making future collations. Those who compare the explanation of "ballast" given in Webster's Unabridged with Koolman's "ballast," "baldâd," will perceive a marked difference.

MEMOIR AND LETTERS OF CHARLES SUMNER.*

THAT must be a very full life which requires eight hundred pages for its introductory chapters, leaving the hero then at the threshold of his active career. George Sand's autobiography, indeed, reaches its third volume, or thereabouts, before the author's mother is fairly born. But Mr. Pierce disposes of the Sumner ancestry in some thirty pages, all the rest being given to the early years of the statesman himself. Much of the space is, indeed, assigned, as it should be, to his *Wanderjahre*, or period of travel. That period would always have been interesting in his case, even had no career of eminence followed. As it is, the book is none too long, although it carries Mr. Sumner only to his thirty-fourth year, when —as Thoreau said of John Brown—he "began the public practice of philanthropy."

It is fair to begin by saying that a better book of the kind has rarely come from the press. In an age when professed authors have given us books so hopelessly egotistical as Forster's 'Dickens,' or so hopelessly inflated as Alger's 'Forrest,' it is a thing worth celebrating that a practising lawyer, of small literary experience, should have produced a work which could scarcely have been improved. Mr. Pierce has certainly vindicated the confidence which named him as Mr. Sumner's chief literary executor. No industry could have surpassed his laborious collection of materials, nor could his use of them have been clearer or more methodical. He never obtrudes himself, nor does he ever force upon you his own opinion of Mr. Sumner. Where the editor comes into view it is to paint his subject as a man, not as a paragon; and he occasionally meets criticism

* 'Memoir and Letters of Charles Sumner. By Edward L. Pierce.' 2 vols Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1877.

half-way by pointing out the causes why Mr. Sumner, with the best intentions, sometimes missed the mark. For its annotations the book has few rivals. There is scarcely an important allusion unexplained, or a person worth describing left without a biographical note. Yet these notes are never ostentatiously full, and in many cases, by a skilful reference to still further relations between their subject and Mr. Sumner, they are linked yet more closely with the main theme of the book. The hint of these biographical notices may have been borrowed from Sumner's edition of Vesey's 'Reports,' where he introduced such notes as a novel feature; but Mr. Sumner was apt to be over-profuse in his details, while Mr. Pierce just touches the golden mean.

The sketch of Charles Sumner's childhood shows us a boy resembling the man in truthfulness and industry, fonder of history and *belles-lettres* than of science, and capable of great feats of memory. The child who at eleven told his teacher that he could answer any question that might be put to him, and at once accepted the test of describing the precise position of Cumana, was evidently the father of the man. For teacher read fellow-senator, for Cumana read Alaska, and you have the public career of Mr. Sumner. This immense and varied information, joined with a perfect sincerity of manner and a noticeable presence, gave the secret of his later social successes in Europe—successes that certainly were not won by tact, but in spite of the absence of tact. This was indeed true of all the successes of his life.

We regret not to find in these volumes any allusion to that feat of swimming the rapids below Niagara which the newspapers have attributed to Charles Sumner. It was too appropriate a prelude to his career to have been omitted, and we infer that it never happened, though Dr. Wm. F. Channing and others are known to have performed the feat. Had Sumner done it, Carlyle might have asked him, as he asked the nation, "Shooting Niagara, and after?" Mr. Pierce says (i. 40): "Swimming was the sport he enjoyed the most"; but he seems to have had no marked athletic taste in early life, unless for pedestrianism, and, after his return from Europe, for riding. As to his studies, he was strong in the languages and in English composition, and had an utter distaste for mathematics—a limitation suggesting some later defects in the action of his powerful mind. His qualities of character were already determined, and he seemed to predict his whole later career when he quoted, in his Bowdoin prize dissertation of 1823, those grand passages of Milton:

"For surely, to every good and peaceful citizen it must in nature needs be a hateful thing to be the displeaser and molester of thousands. But when God commands to take the trumpet, and blow a dolorous or a jarring blast, it lies not in man's will what he shall say or what he shall conceal."

His success at the Law School and his enthusiasm for the study of jurisprudence won him the hearty admiration of those eminent professors, Story and Greenleaf; and the encouragement of the former, especially, gave the first impulse to Sumner's foreign career. Judge Story's legal fame was then very high in Europe, as indeed it has always been; it is not too much to say that the whole body of American lawyers has always been ranked above its deserts in England through the eminence of Story. We well remember the disappointment expressed in English papers when that eminent American abandoned his projected visit to the mother country; and Sumner, going almost as his representative, and bearing presentation copies of his books, was received with a sort of vicarious enthusiasm. The starting point being given, all the rest followed of course. It was not uncommon in those days to hear Sumner called a successful toady by those who stayed at home and had leisure to be envious. No charge could be farther from the truth; the faults of his character looked the other way; he was blunt and rather self-asserting. But he had an honest and insatiable desire to know eminent men; and when we think how easily an intelligent and presentable American may be made a lion in a small way even now, in London, it is easy to imagine how that happened in Sumner's case just forty years ago. This was further aided —though Mr. Pierce does not speak of it—by a certain Anglicism of manner such as is always accepted by Englishmen as a gratifying surprise in a stranger. An eminent Englishman, whose name often appears in these volumes, remarked a few years ago that this was considered almost excessive in Sumner—"there was wanting a distinctive flavor of Americanism," he said; but it is always difficult to tell what our transatlantic cousins expect of us in this way; and it is evident in Sumner's letters that he was a thorough and hearty American all the while, and strongly felt the false social position of the very aristocracy whose society he enjoyed.

One of the most remarkable things in Sumner's foreign trip was really the daring with which he undertook it, financially and otherwise. A trip to Europe was one of the few things which cost more in 1837 than now. It was to cost him five thousand dollars, of which he had laid by hardly more than a third. Judge Story, Richard Fletcher, and Samuel Lawrence lent him a thousand each, the money being repaid some time after his return, chiefly, as is supposed, by his mother, from the family estate (Pierce, i. 199). It was a great experiment for a poor young man, whose best friends feared that the trip would wean him from his profession. President Quincy told him that all which Europe would do for him would be to spoil him, sending him home with a moustache and a cane—a touching allusion to the innocent undergraduate upper lip and empty hands of that period. It certainly was, in a worldly point of view, the most daring of investments, and only a remarkable series of circumstances justified it by the results.

For two years Mr. Sumner travelled through Europe, devoting himself in England chiefly to society and on the Continent to languages and art. It is curious to compare his views of foreign life and society with those of Mr. Ticknor. It cannot be denied that in Sumner we sometimes miss the genial indifference of the cultivated man of the world, ready to adapt himself to any society, and able to extract philosophic amusement even out of the unthankful and the evil. Yet we gain more than we lose by the change. In Sumner's intense love of truth and right he had a touchstone of character around him; he saw the good, he shrank from the evil, and on the whole obtained the best that any society had to give. His utter absence of humor played an important part in this result; it limited his range and made some types of character incomprehensible, but it enhanced the clearness of his moral comprehensions and the vigor of his portraitures. He never played with life; he would have been a happier and perhaps more useful man if he could have played more; and he did not, even at twenty-six, play at travelling. He fulfilled that grim saying of Thoreau, that "true and sincere travelling is no joke; it is as serious as the grave, or any other part of the human journey." It was in this spirit that Sumner went through Europe. If you cannot take up his memoirs with as unvarying relish, in an idle hour, as the delightful letters of Ticknor, it is because Sumner's letters really give much more solid nutriment, and carry the reader deeper among men and things.

One of the things which will be found most useful to young travellers, in these volumes, is their picture of the energy and success with which Mr. Sumner studied languages. When he first visited Paris, all else was postponed for the sake of acquiring the spoken language, he having learned to read French in college. His lodgings, his pursuits, his society were all chosen with this reference. When he arrived he could hardly comprehend a sentence; in less than a month he could follow a lecturer; in six weeks participate in conversation; and at the end of three months he served as interpreter before a magistrate at the trial of a fellow-countryman. After four months in Italy, he writes:

"I have German to learn, but I have the consolation of knowing that I know as much about it now as I did of Italian when I came to Italy. I did not understand the 'Carta di Sicurezza' that was given me at the gate of San Giovanni, when I entered Rome, the 21st of May. At the first town that I come to in Germany I shall stop, take a master, and commence an assault for one week; then move on, studying on the road to Vienna; three weeks in Vienna—a master all the time; then to Prague, Dresden, Berlin, and probably next down to Heidelberg" (ii. 116).

A few days after he writes to Prof. Greene, of his study of Italian:

"My rule is, at least six hours a day. There is no Italian which I cannot understand without a dictionary; there is hardly a classic in the language of which I have not read the whole or considerable portions. I understand everything that is said in a coach; can talk on any subject—always making abundant mistakes, but with such facility that all the valets and waiters, even in this French-speaking place, address me in the language *del bel paese là dove 'l si suona*" (ii. 118).

Again he writes to Greene, after five months in Germany and Austria:

"In this last place [Heidelberg] I fixed myself for five weeks. I knew the best people there; and I studied, read, and talked German. Indeed I found myself able, when it was time to leave, to understand all that was said, and to carry on a conversation tolerably well" (ii. 145).

One who carries such energy into the study of languages will be apt to show it in the use he makes of them; and Mr. Sumner certainly made ample use, for his whole life long, of the experience thus early won. His letters do not bristle with statistics, like the foreign letters of Theodore Parker; nor do they abound in good-natured social gossip, like those of George Ticknor; but they give strong pictures of leading men and women, and they are softened by a love of literature which gives a needed relief in the absence of humor. His advantages were immense; he had

in London five invitations a day (i. 324); in Westminster Hall he sat in the "Queen's Counsel row," and "resolutely declined" to sit on the bench with the judges (ii. 13). It was said in London after his Northern journey that he made the acquaintance of all the principal Whig families going North, and of the Tories on his return. Mrs. Parkes, the granddaughter of Dr. Priestley, writes of him that "he was wondrously popular, almost like a meteor passing through the country" (i. 307). Mr. Henry Reeve writes: "I think I still hear him repeating a passage from Burke, or engaging in debate on some nice question of international law" (i. 305). But perhaps the most remarkable testimony is that of Mr. Abraham Hayward, the translator of 'Faust,' and the author of that celebrated compliment to Mr. Sumner in the *Quarterly Review* so often quoted in the United States. The compliment may be found in Pierce's 'Memoir' (i. 303); but Mr. Hayward, writing at a later period, while renewing his testimonial to Mr. Sumner's social success, confesses himself a little puzzled to explain it. He says:

"His powers of conversation were not striking; and when you ask me to recall the qualities which account for his success, I must frankly own that it was, and is, as much a puzzle to me as the eminent and widespread success of your countryman and townsman, Mr. George Ticknor. At the same time, I feel satisfied that in each instance the success was indisputable and well deserved" (i. 306).

Mr. Sumner's sketches of character are never delicate, incisive, or subtle, but strong, straightforward, and the result of careful observation. Some of them are as good as Miss Martineau's, and all command more complete confidence than her's. Of Lord Brougham, for instance, no one has given a more effective picture:

"He passed from topic to topic, expressing himself always with force, correctness, and forcibility unrivalled; but, I must say, with a manner not only far from refined, but even vulgar. He had no gentleness or suavity; neither did he show any of the delicate attentions of the host. . . . I have dined in company nearly every day since I have been in England, and I do not remember to have met a person who swore half as much as Lord Brougham; and all this in conversation with an aged clergyman. His manner was rapid, hurried, and his voice very loud. He seemed uneasy and restless, and made me feel the same. His language, as you may suppose, was vigorous and to the point. . . . I am disposed to think that there is in him a nervousness and immense activity which is near akin to insanity, and which at present jangles the otherwise even measures of his character" (i. 350-2).

Mr. Sumner made the discovery, so often made by Americans, that many English people and things are less well known in England than in the United States; the mental and moral influence of London comes to us free from the local smoke and roar. In a letter to Mrs. Judge Howe, of Cambridge, Sumner says:

"We judge English authors better than the English themselves; all here are too near them. When I see the foppery of Bulwer every day, and hear his affected voice, should not that disenchant me from the spell of his composition? You, sitting in your rocking-chair and joining reading to your household duties, actually keep a better run of English literature than many—ay, than most—of the English themselves. London is so full and teeming and mighty that it is next to impossible for anybody to do more than attend to his own affairs and take care of himself. The magazines and reviews are not read here with half the avidity they are in America; and when read are not judged with the same dispassionate fairness" (ii. 18).

Mr. Sumner returned from England in 1840, at the age of twenty-nine. The years that followed were, as might have been predicted, years of some mental reaction. After the excitements of his foreign "apotheosis," as his friend, Henry Cleveland, called it, the drudgery of a law-office was unattractive. His reception was, of course, enthusiastic, but his circle of friends was changed by death or marriage; his sister Mary died; he himself was very near death from illness, and there was a time when life looked very dark to him. In many respects Mr. Pierce's account of this period is admirable, but he perhaps goes too far in saying that "Sumner was at this time a great favorite in Boston society" (ii. 153). He was undoubtedly much admired, but he had personal traits which brought upon him some criticism from men and a great deal from women. Old Bostonians maintained that Sheriff Sumner's son was not, after all, born in the purple; and young Bostonians sometimes alleged that his demeanor was as towering as his person. As an anonymous lady writes to Mr. Pierce (ii. 162), "his manners were frank and manly, not polished"; and as Dr. O. W. Holmes says on the same page, he rather monopolized conversation, and he never could take a joke. The substantial admiration of the wise and good he doubtless had; but that alone does not make a man a favorite, and there probably was never a moment of Mr. Sumner's American experience when that epithet could accurately describe him.

Time passed on; and what career was to open before this young man so highly gifted in brain and heart and so conspicuous in his early social opportunities? He was a lawyer, and ready to work in his profession; but the few lucrative cases which came to him were obtained by him rather as the friend of Judge Story, it has always been thought, than in any other way. He hoped for a professorship in the Harvard Law School, but did not obtain it; he would willingly have been reporter to the Supreme Court, but that plan also failed. His greatest powers, the gifts which were the key to his later career, were hardly even suspected. A single day—July 4, 1845—revealed those gifts to the world. Had he died on the morning of that day, his fame would have lived, at most, through a brief biography and a small volume of "Literary Remains," as was the case with his friend Cleveland. On the evening of that day his reputation was established as that of an orator of extraordinary force and a reformer possessed of absolute fearlessness. Well do we remember a description of his Fourth-of-July address by one of those unflinching old "Come-Outers" whom Lynn and Cape Cod sent up to Boston in those days—men "devoted," as Emerson said, "to the worrying of clergymen," and who hated with almost equal hatred the clerical and military garb. "There were those pro-slavery clergymen," he said, "with hearts as black as their coats, and there stood Charles Sumner with a heart as white as his waistcoat." Mr. Sumner's white waistcoat and trousers, with his gilt-buttoned dress-coat, must have been as conspicuous on his large person as the militia uniforms that surrounded him; and he spoke on that day the most unwelcome things with the heartiest relish. Mr. Pierce says, with candor rare in a biographer, that "his fervor carried him to some positions which his later judgment qualified, and to some forms of expression which his taste afterwards modified or rejected altogether." But the speech, as originally made, was the turning point of his career; it is rarely that any public life revolves upon so well-marked and unmistakable a pivot, and his biographer does well to let this preliminary memoir end here.

A few points of detail we find to criticise in the excellent editing of this book. Mr. Pierce says (i. 316) that William Sullivan "wrote upon the characters and events of the Revolution"; but it would have been more correct to say "of the period immediately succeeding the Revolution." Almost the only person mentioned by Mr. Sumner and not elucidated by his biographer, is that very remarkable man David Urquhart, author of 'The Spirit of the East'; and the neglect is aggravated by the accidental misspelling of his name (ii. 39). To say that Prof. Geo. W. Greene resides "on an ancestral estate at East Greenwich, R. I." (ii. 93, *note*), is to apply rather too large an epithet to a modest paternal farm; and to call the residence of Prof. Longfellow "Craigie House" instead of by the local appellation of "the Craigie house," looks a little in the same direction. Prof. Andrews Norton here wears appended to his name, both in text and index, the Doctorate which he refused in his lifetime. There is a grammatical flaw in the note on p. 176 (vol. ii.), and an erroneous French accent on p. 307. But this is really a very trifling array of criticisms upon a book so large and of such varied range; and the absence of merely typographical errors is surprising. The mechanical execution of the book quite surpasses that of Ticknor or Martineau, and it is a work, as a whole, of which American literature has reason to be proud.

Gift-Books.—First on the list of those which lie on our table we select for mention the works of Wilhelm Unger (New York: J. W. Bouton). Mr. Unger has now completed his series of seventy-two etchings from the works of old masters in the museums of Brunswick, Cassel, etc., and the surprising versatility and interpretative quickness of his wonderful hand continue to the close. The work has been coming out in parts, each containing seven plates, and the last five parts, now on our table, contain some of the best achievements of the etcher. That from Rembrandt's "Anatomy Lesson" is perhaps the most striking in the latter portion of the series, and in luminous and colored quality there can be no doubt that this study, a mere incident in a serial publication, well sustains comparison with the great challenge-picture by L. Fleming. It is penetrated with the rich vital life which reaches forth to us, with so strange and searching a scrutiny, from the seventeenth century and the atelier of Rembrandt. A hardly inferior power is shown in the copy from Franz Hals, "The Two Young Musicians"—a graphic sketch of a virtuoso and his friend reading the music-book and beating time as they forget to play the guitar. Unger has earned a monopoly of Hals, however, and no etcher ought to touch his magical improvisations for centuries to come; they are *tours de force* that can only be followed by the fingers of a

specialist, and Unger renders him as Rubinstein renders Beethoven. The etching of Rembrandt's "Entombment," a painting existing in duplicate at Munich and Dresden, is richly adequate to the original, with its contrast of sharp candlelight within the sepulchre and pallid eclipsed sunshine streaming into the cave from Calvary. The lesser masters, such as Terburg with his satin dresses, Wouvermans with his white hobby, and Metzu are rendered with all the nicety of a *précieux*, and with a compulsory forgetfulness of the energy that has gone to the interpretation of Hals. Jan Steen's "Fête des Rois," forming the fiftieth plate, where a child is crowned, and drinks deeper than is good for him amid the applause of the company, is translated with cordial freedom, but another Jan Steen, the "Marriage Contract," is a little tame, and a Jan der Meer is timid and over-finished. Taken together, the volume filled by this protean etcher is by far the greatest curiosity of sympathetic copy-work that our generation has seen. It is worthily printed on paper expressly made for it by Van Gelder of Amsterdam; and Vosmaer's text, in English, has the advantage of special type-founding and a special printer.

The quarto volume entitled 'Gems of the Centennial Exhibition' (New York: Appletons) is of the kind to which Worlds' Fairs have accustomed us, and which first see the light in illustrated newspapers or art-journals. Their value lies chiefly in the engravings of the various objects of art and use—pottery, silverware, furniture, carpets, laces, etc., etc.—and very little, if at all, in the descriptive text. The principle of selection precludes criticism: if you are dealing with "gems" there is nothing to do but to describe and admire. The present volume is neither better nor worse in this respect than those that have preceded it. It is beautifully printed and tastefully bound, and the woodcuts explain sufficiently the material and the decorative details of the objects represented, which are of many degrees of excellence.

'Persons, Places, and Things' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) is an entertaining collection of tales of travel and adventure that at one time or another have appeared in *Lippincott's Magazine*. They take the reader over a great portion of the earth, and even, in "Travels in the Air," a few miles up into the earth's atmosphere, and cannot fail to fill some gap in the knowledge of even the best-read. They are besides liberally illustrated. Since they do credit to the magazine that gave them birth, we might have looked for some mention of their origin, as well as of the papers in the companion volume, called 'Wanderings in Four Continents,' to which the "Glimpses of Constantinople" and Mr. Edward King's "Montenegro" give a certain actuality, as the French say. In this honest company the impudent but amusing Paul Marcoy walks unabashed, though not unabridged. He will be found in "In the Valleys of Peru."

These are modest volumes as compared with 'The Rhine,' published by the same house. This solid quarto, with its large print, broad margin, florid binding, and four hundred and twenty-five illustrations, bears on its face the stamp of the holidays. It is the work of three writers, Karl Stieler, H. Wachenhusen, and F. W. Hackländer, of whom the first is much the prosiest. The river is traced from its source to the sea. Excursions into the tributary valleys of the Lahn and Main take us to the grave of Stein and the birthplace of Goethe, as the main river carries us past the city of Beethoven—three as great names in their several fields as Germany can produce. The woodcuts are of course full of interest, especially from an architectural and historic point of view; their art is of the familiar German school. A great majority of them fill a significant portion of the page, and not a few fill it altogether and well. The reading-matter is more lively than a guide-book, but is not to be called captivating. We have been struck by the absence of any allusion to the river that would offend the most fastidious Frenchman.

'Golden Songs of Great Poets' (New York: Sarah H. Leggett) is a book that recalls the old-fashioned Annuals. Like them, it applies all the luxury of paper and type to a series of rather uninteresting contributions by authors more or less eminent. Poets always seem to reserve their second-best work for books of this description. Perhaps they reason, as authors do when engaging in subscription books, that none of their particular friends will be likely to see what they write. Here are original poems by Holmes, Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, and Bayard Taylor. It would seem safe to expect something good, and yet there really is not a poem between these covers which would have attracted any particular attention if it had been anonymously printed. The illustrations are abundant, and are in some cases beautiful, especially those by Moran and Hart; but there is one picture of ghouls or harpies, by Fredericks, which is far too suggestive of nightmare to be wholesome for contemplation at the mince-pie season.

Its handsome attire, and the obvious outlay involved in producing it in its present form, entitle Mr. James Parton's 'Caricature and Other Comic Art in All Times and Many Lands' (Harpers) to be named in any list of gift-books. Readers of *Harper's Magazine* have enjoyed the greater part of it already; but the illustrations now exceed two hundred. It seems singular that a mind so devoid of humor as Mr. Parton's should twice betake itself to the study of the humorous, in poetry and in art. The paradox, however explainable, stands out in the very preface of the volume before us, and is never long obscured in the subsequent chapters. Mr. Parton has, nevertheless, followed the two highest authorities on the subject of caricature, and has brought together a great many interesting facts and a long series of more or less amusing and typical designs. The closing chapters relate to early and the later American caricature. Mr. Nast is allowed a pre-eminence which will be generally conceded him, but the more spontaneous and less melodramatic Mr. Bellew—an older soldier, too, if not a better—deserved, we think, representation by specimens of his best work, instead of a bare mention.

Mr. Benjamin Parke Avery's 'California Pictures in Prose and Verse' (Hurd & Houghton) is also a compilation of magazine articles, showily printed and bound. Its title fairly conveys an idea of its very unpretentious contents. The author aims to inform his readers of the leading features of Californian scenery and topography, omitting the more familiar resorts, which have already been described to death. He points out numerous localities which would repay a visit on the part of the tourist, especially the lover of the picturesque; gives an account of the geysers, of an ascent of Mt. Shasta by himself and wife, of the aborigines and their arrow-factory, and ends with a tragic episode in his mining experience in 1850—perhaps the most entertaining chapter in the book. Mr. Avery does not overrate his verse, and that is all we need say of it. The illustrations are pleasing and well selected.

'Abide with Me' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), 'The Ninety and Nine' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.), and 'The Flood of Years' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) are so many poems with full-page illustrations, initial and tail-pieces, etc., etc., of which we expect a crop every year, and which almost invariably prove disappointing as proof of imagination or skill on the part of the designer, let the engraver's work be never so good. Neither Miss Humphreys's nor Mr. Lewis's art adds anything to or redeems the first two poems; and Mr. Linton has not been inspired by Mr. Bryant in his attempt to adorn and interpret 'The Flood of Years.' His washy, almost washed-out, style of engraving has indeed a certain appropriateness for the subject, but that is all.

The old-fashioned Album survives in 'The Gathering of the Lilies' (Philadelphia: J. L. Sibole & Co.), of which both the poetry and the colored and plain lithographic designs are by the author, L. Clarkson. Neither rise above mediocrity. A considerable variety of lilies are figured and personified at once, and are made to express their character in not faulty, but not in any way remarkable, verse.

The House Beautiful. Essays on Beds, Tables, Stools, and Candlesticks. By Clarence Cook. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1878. Pp. 336, and 111 illustrations.)—Mr. Cook's articles in *Scribner's Monthly*, known by that which is the second title of his present book, came out at varying intervals between June, 1875, and May, 1877. They were widely read and commented on. The woodcuts were so pretty and so interesting to the many persons who care—or think they ought to care—about furnishing and ornamenting houses, that these pictures alone would have caused a sufficient sale and a diligent turning over of the numbers which contained them. And probably the text was interesting to most of its readers. But after a time there began to be complaints that the hints were too vague; that the information was not precise enough; that the author did not "come to the point"; that people could not take the book and follow its advice in minutiæ, even as "travellers on the Continent" go to the hotels and buy at the shops approved by "Murray." Some of these complaints the assailed author met and replied to, and the answer naturally would be, it was, and it still is, that Mr. Cook is not a professional adviser, and that professional advice suited to each case as it arises is not to be printed in monthlies and sold for thirty-five cents, but must be obtained in other ways. *Suggestion* is what the essay-writer gives to his readers—suggestion, and not rules of action. The essay-writer, from Bacon to Emerson, undertakes to educate, and not to give directions; to "enlarge the mind" and increase the scope of vision, and not to tell people what to do on each occasion that may arise. And as for the books that attempt to prescribe for each patient and to give a recipe for each dish, are they not all as dreary as cookery books or

handbooks of domestic medicine. From Quatremère de Quincy, laying down the law about domestic architecture, and ruling out the chimneys as contrary to the canons of classical art, to Hays and to Chevreul, giving their lists of the admissible contrasts and harmonies of color—what is all that literature of domestic art but a dreary list of abandoned fashions, misunderstood and never-applied principles, and forgotten authors? And, without asserting or implying that nothing more categorical than Mr. Cook's chatty papers could be successfully attempted, it may yet be safely said that they have secured more attentive readers, and in that way have prepared more people to think and act right, than they could have done if more intentionally and "practically" instructive.

The objections to the work may almost be summed up in two: the furniture shown in the woodcuts and praised in the text is too dear, and this furniture cannot be procured for want of working-drawings for it. Now, of these two troubles the first may be justly chargeable upon the book. It is not a poor man's *vade mecum*, it is rather ambitious, and there are not enough (though there are some) very inexpensive objects shown and explained. But as to the second difficulty, nothing that the author undertook to do or could have done would have removed it. To have given drawings from which pieces of furniture could be made by ordinary workmen, direct, would have swelled the book to great size and cost, and have encumbered it with that which only a limited number of its readers would be likely to demand.

There has been a book very successful in this country, not more "practical" than this and not half so bright, with ugly designs in it, compared to those before us, and nothing on earth but novelty to recommend it greatly, which has given a name to an existing fashion in furniture. The good that that book has done by awakening attention, almost any other book on the same subject would have done as well. 'The House Beautiful' is in every respect of more importance; and coming later, finding a more "receptive" public, and much better calculated to please after more than a week's possession, its success might be almost taken for granted. It is a daintily-finished and elegant book, besides, with a not ill-designed cover and great completeness in its arrangements within, except that, oddly enough, the numbers given with the cuts do not agree with the numbers in the "List of Illustrations."

L'Art: Revue hebdomadaire illustrée. (Paris: A. Ballue; New York: J. W. Bouton.)—The objection to many illustrated periodicals, that the size of their page does not permit the development of an art-idea of any considerable intricacy, is in their case insuperable, and is not to be met every time by the boast of excessive delicacy and concentration of workmanship. The *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* continually suffers from this want of elbow-room, and its artists are sometimes compelled to study the mere corner of a great original, with a result like those pocket editions of elegant extracts which "sample" celebrated authors by their episodes and parentheses. Perceiving this loss of power, and conscious that narrowness is often wastefulness, the getters-up of this class of journals are apt to dally with various forms of the quarto; but a large sphere of usefulness opens at once to the editor who boldly adopts a scale limited only by the convenience of the reading-desk or the bookstand. The large folio leaf of *L'Art* is then its first title to favorable criticism; it has enabled the editor, in the course of the ten volumes now published, to present the complete effect of painted ceilings and domes, the ornamental work of architectural façades and arches, the ample brushing of Japanese stencilled polychromes, fac-similes from old-fashioned engravings big enough to show the touch, and landscapes undegraded by a pettiness that suggests the Claude-Lorrain glass.

The advantage of the broadside-scale is especially shown in the illustrations that go with certain papers on the centenary festival of Rubens, in this volume; these are photogravures of the drawings of the master, than whom none could suffer more by the compressing of an arm-sweep style into tiny delicacy. The head of Marie de Médicis, drawn by Rubens to serve as an authority for the series of enormous works in her honor now stretching through the Louvre, is here very interesting as a nearly life-sized cartoon, but would become weak in miniature. The etchings, from modern paintings of current interest, are, however, the special justifications of the scale adopted; the only question is, whether beauty presented in these lavish dimensions does not defeat the object of the publisher as a bookmaker, and awaken a grudge at shutting up so much excellence between the covers of a volume. One longs to frame every one of the eighteen velvety-looking beauties contributed by Gaucherel, Waltner, Monziès, Chauvel, Lalauze, and other experts in aquafortis to this volume, which is perhaps the richest yet issued in that particular species of embellishment. The "Gleaner," by Potémont, after J. Breton, is very successful in giving, besides the statuesque swing of the elastic walker, a feeling of the deepening atmosphere of a good painting—a feeling of the "night thickens" of Macbeth. Lovers of intricate literary conceits expressed in fine-art will be beguiled and re-beguiled with the "Beguiling of Merlin," etched from Burne Jones, and with the various sore-mouthed nymphs shaken by ineffable emotions which have been copied from the stores of that painting Neo-Platonist. The etching after Fortuny, of "Moors playing with a Vulture," will be a boon to many a Fortuny-lover, though it has not the scholarly simplicity and directness of a real Fortuny plate. Van Marcke, chief of the disciples of Troyon, is under obligations to the aquafortist for the incomparably rich and soft effect he has got in copying the cattle-piece from the last Salon, belonging to Mr. Brown, of Philadelphia. Bonnat's portrait of Thiers, an historical memoir altogether worthy of its subject, suffers a little from the uniform blackness of every part of the work except the face and hands, which accordingly glow on their gloomy background with a planetary look of being lost in space, not characteristic of the painting. There is a bold, sketchy handling in the flower-piece of Juan de Arellano, copied from this painter's beautiful canvas in the Blodgett collection—"that collection at once so varied and so choice," as the text says.

While this text is amusingly incisive and outspoken, its very keenness will prepare the judicious reader for hearing opinions that are open to contradiction. The conviction, so deep in many person's minds, that we must go to French writers for the really delicate discernment of matters pertaining to art, receives a shock when leading critics are found to contradict each other flatly. This discrepancy is observable not only in the case of reputations which several centuries have been trying to settle, but in contemporary estimates. From the beginning *L'Art* has shown a disposition to nag at its old-established neighbor the *Gazette;* and in the present volume there are signs that this insubordination is not yet subdued. There is an allusion to the "weak, flaccid, pretty, pomaded painting" of Cabanel, an artist whom the *Gazette* has repeatedly selected for illustration. The *Gazette* may by this time be willing to leave Cabanel to the infidels, but in the case of Harpignies, a landscapist who is still supposed to have life in him, it will be hard if it do not organize a sally against the crusaders. "The champion water-colorist this season, in our opinion, is M. Harpignies," the *Gazette* has pronounced; "his series of little landscape studies is simply exquisite; he never did better, perhaps, than this year." Whereas the utterance of the critic in *L'Art* concerning the same water-colors is disrespectful in the extreme. "Friend Harpignies," he remarks, "I have a terrible itch to tell you unpleasant truths. I am not the man to excuse your firework effects." The painfulness of this disagreement between doctors can hardly be allayed by the physical slightness of the bodies in dispute, unkindly alluded to by the last-quoted critic as "mere visiting-cards." Of our own artist Whistler *L'Art* acknowledges the "remarkable talent," but considers that at the Grosvenor Gallery it was not favorably represented. Of other Americans the journal has yet to discern the existence, declaring in set terms that "Columbus himself could not discover America" at a Salon where there were forty exhibitors from that part of America alone covered by our own Government. Upon the publication of this hard sentence, Columbus was moved to appear in vindication; and quickly wrote from the tomb, in support of the American exhibitors, a letter exhibiting the humor of Cervantes in the chivalry of Don Quixote. The critic who has made the remark lost no time in replying to the shade of the great Genoese, reiterating the assertion, and promising that when American painting should come to show "a distinct physiognomy" he would hasten to inform his readers. It is hard to see the complete justice of such criticisms as this, unless America were a country that had grown, like Japan or India, without pressure from other civilizations. The greatest stickler for a national "physiognomy" would be puzzled to say why Motley and Prescott ought to have had an "American" style in their writings, or how Mr. Bridgman, the medalled exhibitor of this year's Salon, could have had an "American" style in which to paint his "Burial of the Mummy."

Charlotte von Stein: A Memoir. By Geo. H. Calvert. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1877.)—This little book is Mr. Calvert's second contribution to the Goethe literature. It is on the whole an interesting work, not so much for the special student of German literature as for the general reader who wishes to catch a glimpse of the brilliant Weimar society of Karl August. Weimar is perhaps the only city that ever deserved the much-abused name of modern Athens. In its streets, for many years,

could be daily seen Goethe, Schiller, Wieland, Herder, and lesser lights; the power of bringing such minds together having ever been one of the advantages of a monarchical over a republican form of government. With all these great men Frau von Stein lived on terms of intimacy and daily intercourse, and to read about her is therefore to read about them. This is what gives the present memoir its chief interest, although Frau von Stein was a woman whose character deserves to be studied for its own sake. Her acquaintance with Goethe, personal and epistolary, lasted half a century. For ten years she was his confidential correspondent and confessor. "She sang well, played well, sketched well, talked well, appreciated poetry, and handled sentiment with the delicate tact of a woman of the world," says Lewes, in his admirable work on Goethe, which even in Germany is recognized as the standard biography. To her Goethe addressed more than a thousand letters, and his interesting and realistic 'Italian Journey' is made up principally of the letters written to her in the course of his travels. There is no doubt that Goethe's poetic licenses in his relations to women are out of the question here. In fact, the author makes out a strong case for the view that his heroine had a restraining and refining influence on the impulses of the young poet. The letters to Von Stein have been published in Germany, in three volumes, but her answers to them unfortunately were destroyed by her own hand. Besides these letters, the author acknowledges his chief indebtedness to H. Düntzer's two-volume biography of Charlotte von Stein, which appeared three years ago. The style of the memoir before us is, in the narrative parts, simple and straightforward, but there is rather too much cheap sentiment mixed up with them. Such verbiage as this: ". . . lights sparsely sprinkled along the crepuscular confines of earthly space, upflaming beacons out of unconfined infinity," is foreign to the spirit of our age, and should have been buried with the eighteenth century.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 20, 1877.

The Week.

IF anybody not a Democrat had predicted at any time during the Presidential canvass of last year that in nine months after Mr. Hayes's inauguration his attempt to reform the civil service would have become an object of mild scorn to the heathen; that Conkling, who was so ludicrous an object as a Presidential candidate at the Cincinnati Convention, would have triumphed over him in the Senate on Custom-house questions; that Conkling and Blaine would have openly become reconciled in plain view of the intelligent Christian public, and have entered into an alliance in defence of the very abuses denounced in the Cincinnati platform; and that large numbers of Republican papers, headed by the New York *Tribune*, would have pronounced this a not undesirable state of things for the Republican party, and have advised the President to submit to it—what would have happened to him? And yet this is just what has occurred. Both Conkling and Blaine evidently think that the reform fever has blown over, and that they can venture out in daylight once more and parade their friendship before people who only a short year ago found their mutual enmity one of the conditions of good government. They labor, however, under the usual delusion of malefactors. Whatever influence they may have with "the machine," they are as powerless as ever with that body of voters who made the nomination of either of them at Cincinnati unsafe, who would surely have defeated either of them had he been nominated, and who will still make short work, and at any cost, of any political arrangement of which they are leading spirits. Their reconciliation, besides being disgusting, is the most unfortunate thing for the party which has happened since the Belknap exposure, and we treat the rejection of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince as one of its effects.

The Gordon-Conkling quarrel in the Senate was about as ill-fitted to increase public respect for that body as the Conkling-Blaine "make-up," and was much more ridiculous. It is regrettable mainly because a year ago we supposed Mr. Gordon to be a man of sense and capacity, and a real politician interested in public questions, and not a mere leader of tide-waiters. Recently he appears to have been fascinated by the business of distributing patronage, and to have been devoting his time and energies to it, and last week had a small brawl with Conkling, in which they contradicted each other in a threatening manner, and glared at each other and then sat down, creating great excitement among the reporters, one of whom announced confidently that in the event of a collision Conkling's "great physical powers" would have given him the advantage. Some of the other Senators seem to have been deeply impressed with the necessity of reconciling the two disputants, fearing or pretending to fear a duel, and accordingly drew up a paper which recited the facts in bar-room English and with bar-room pathos, affirmed that "mutual understandings" had been arrived at; that language had been used on both sides which was "mutually felt" to be "unkind and offensive"; that there had been honest misunderstanding of what had been innocently said, and so on; that "mutual friends" had therefore taken the matter up, and that all remarks on both sides had "been mutually and simultaneously withdrawn." We are sorry to say this stuff has been spread out in all its naked "mutuality" on the Senate journal, and signed by four Senators. Nothing so "mutual" has appeared in print outside the sporting papers for a long time.

The New York *Times* has disinterred the report of the quarrel which separated Blaine and Conkling twelve years ago. It occurred in the House, of which Conkling was then a member, and, as might have been guessed, was all about offices, with which the Conkling mind was then as much occupied as now. He had been badly treated about some of his offices, and dragged his discontent before the House, which irritated Blaine, and a row followed, in which both of them became very "mutual." Blaine impugned Conkling's skill as a manager, and accused him of drawing pay as Judge Advocate while serving as Representative; Conkling advised Blaine to keep calm; whereupon Blaine spoke of Conkling's "supereminent, overpowering, turkey-gobbler strut," and even of his "extra strut" under the flattery of Theodore Tilton, and afterwards likened him to a "satyr," to "Thersites," to a "dung-hill," a "singed cat," and a "whining puppy." That Conkling could have blackguarded back just as effectively there is no doubt, but this seems to have overwhelmed him; but they cut each other and have since lived apart. On the appearance of the first serious danger to their offices, however, the two great statesmen have come together again.

Congress adjourned on Saturday for the holidays, having, as in the extra session, done what they could to injure the national welfare, but not having exhausted their capacity for mischief. On Wednesday week the New York Custom-house nominations, unfavorably reported to the Senate, were rejected by a vote of 31 to 25. Only two Democrats voted with the majority, but those who, in sympathy with Mr. Thurman, desired to avoid making a precedent that would be awkward under a Democratic Administration, absented themselves or abstained from voting, and so gave the game into the hands of Conkling. The two Massachusetts Senators heeded the public sentiment of that State by voting to confirm Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince, while, on the other hand, Judge Davis voted to reject, on civil-service reform principles of course. The refusal of the Administration to give a categorical reply to a demand for its reasons in making the change was dexterously made use of by the great man who wields the patronage of this State. The debate on the Matthews silver resolution was not concluded, and this measure, together with the Silver Bill, was postponed till next month. Mr. Allison has proposed to amend the latter by adding a section providing for an international conference on bi-metallism. On Friday, in executive session, there was an interchange of courtesies between Senators Gordon and Conkling, which threatened a collision of some sort; but Mr. Hamlin busied himself as a peacemaker, and got a mutual retraction formally "spread upon the minutes" on the last day of the session. Senator Butler introduced on his own behalf a resolution of enquiry concerning his alleged attempt to bribe or otherwise control Patterson, such as Mr. Edmunds ought to have welcomed. Objection being made to its immediate consideration, it went over. In the House the chief event was the seating of Patterson, one of the Colorado contestants and a Democrat, by a vote of 116 to 110. There was an irregularity in the election of his Republican rival due to conflicting statutes; and Gen. Cox's solution, to order a new election, was so manifestly just as almost to prevail. But the Democrats remembered the old rule, "When you're in doubt, take the trick," and voted accordingly. Both Houses agreed upon the Deficiency and the Paris Exposition Bills.

There was, according to the various reports of the proceedings in executive session, not much pretence on Mr. Conkling's part of any desire for "reform," nor did he rely much on the merits of the present holders of the office, in opposing the nominations of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince. He won his victory mainly by representing the nominations as an attack on "the courtesy of the Senate" and as an attempt to degrade him personally, and to this he probably owed the Democratic support he received. His getting up a Committee on Mexican Affairs and putting Blaine on it is, perhaps, intended to give support to the story which is just now industriously circulated in anti-Administration circles, and which we believe

Blaine started last summer, that there is a hellish plot on the part of Southerners and Catholics to annex Mexico and bring in a manageable brute Catholic vote of several millions; that Mr. Evarts is a party to this scheme and expects to be made President through it, and is therefore busy stirring up a war in aid of it on the frontier. This nefarious enterprise Blaine and Conkling, like good patriots, are going to frustrate by "mutually and simultaneously" keeping one eye on the frontier and the other on the custom-houses of our "mutual" country.

The Governor of Texas sent on Saturday a despatch to the President stating that there had been fighting all the day before between a detachment of State troops, who were aiding the civil authorities, and "citizens of Mexico in connection with citizens of El Paso County, Texas, of Mexican birth," and asking for United States troops to "repel this invasion of our territory." Troops were accordingly ordered to the scene of action from various posts, and it is hoped their arrival will allay the disturbance. The army is under orders which forbid it crossing the border, except in case of extreme emergency; the Texas troops, which represent the only party really anxious for war, are under orders not to cross at all, and the El Paso troubles, moreover, have nothing to do with the border question on the lower Rio Grande, but have grown out of a local quarrel over some salt-mines. These appear to have been treated as common property from the settlement of the country. Some twenty-five years ago, however, they were taken up by a company under the State or United States laws, which tried to collect tolls on the salt taken out, but without success. The attempt has now been renewed, and has led to a riot. The leader of the opposition to the collection of these dues appears to have been a man named Cordova, and the leader on the other side an attorney employed to collect the salt tolls, Howard by name. A short time ago Howard met Cordova "in a store" and killed him, the murder, as usual in such cases, creating "some feeling." As we go to press the news is that the Texans surrendered on the 17th, the Federal troops not having yet come up, and Howard and two others were shot in cold blood.

Under ordinary circumstances, as nobody professes to desire war with Mexico, and there is no large class of people who have a direct interest in annexation, it would seem as if there could be no cause for uneasiness. Nevertheless, there can be no doubt that there is reason enough for plenty of vigilance. Considerable bodies of troops are being forwarded to the border on both sides, and in Texas there is a force of militia, made up of adventurers and "ex-rebels," men with everything to gain and nothing to lose, who are eager to bring on some irreparable breach between the two countries. Both Houses of Congress have committees at work investigating our relations with Mexico, and it is probably safe to expect at least an attitude of watchful criticism towards the Government from the Senate Committee of which Mr. Conkling is chairman. General Sherman has testified before this committee that he considered there was little probability of collisions occurring, and further vouched for the good intentions of Diaz. The *Herald* published lately an interview at San Antonio with Señor Ornels, who represents the Diaz Government there. He has supplanted Señor Morales, a Lerdist, is a physician by profession, was one of the Centennial Commissioners, and in case of the recognition of the Diaz Government would be consul at San Antonio. He declares that it is the earnest desire of Diaz to cultivate friendly relations with this country, and to negotiate a liberal commercial treaty; that the troops sent to the Rio Grande are not sent as a menace, but to enforce the laws. It appears, too, from the pronunciamiento of Amador, the Lerdist chieftain, that the revolutionary party rely chiefly on the Mexican distrust of the supposed American proclivities of Diaz.

The "silver-men" of Chicago held a large meeting on the 13th, in that city, at which they passed a string of resolutions declaring the demonetization of silver a grave and radical measure, which ought not to have been carried through without "full, thorough, and exhaustive discussion of its merits before the people," and alleging that it "was precipitated upon the country without one word of discussion either in Congress or out"; that "*they have the best reasons*" for believing that the demonetization of the silver dollar was accomplished through concealment, deception, and fraud"; that "one obvious purpose" of it "was to increase the value of Government bonds, and correspondingly increase the public burdens"; that the President's opinions on the silver question are the "result of the bad counsels of his constitutional advisers," and that the Government cannot waive its option to pay its debts in gold *or* silver, and restrict itself to paying in gold only; that "legislating out of existence the silver coinage of the country, as legal tender, and at the same time depressing the value of one of its most important products in the markets of the world," calls for "unmeasured denunciation." The concluding resolutions containing the threats are incoherent and almost crazy.

The meeting was important as showing the great difficulty of the silver movement. When so many men in a large community can be got together to give their solemn public adhesion to so many falsehoods as to matters of fact, so many wild and reckless accusations and insinuations, and so many naked avowals of dishonest intent, it shows, as we long ago pointed out, that it is a movement not to be ignored or despised, and is probably the forerunner of other schemes of rascality and fraud, and is perhaps only the beginning of a serious open attack on the public credit. The protest against "depressing the value of one of the most important products in the markets of the world" contains a curious indication of the real origin and aim of the agitation. In another passage, which demands that "justice be done to both [debtors and creditors] by restoring the old time-honored standard measures of value," and predicts that "the burdens of Government will then rest lightly upon the shoulders of a prosperous people," there is a touch of coarse, knavish humor. The author, of course, knew that the burdens would rest still more lightly "on the shoulders of a prosperous people" if, instead of scaling the debt ten per cent., as they now propose, they scaled it fifty per cent., like his brother rogues over in Tennessee.

The election in Boston last week resulted in the complete triumph of the Citizens' party, which elected its candidate for mayor, and a full aldermanic ticket. Mr. Henry L. Pierce will undoubtedly make a good mayor, and the aldermen, though not a board of sages, will probably act in a non-partisan spirit on nominations. The struggle in Boston this year was between the Democrats, who were determined to get complete control of all branches of the city government, and the Republicans and Independents, who were determined to prevent the establishment of a local "machine" very like Tammany Hall. We regret to see that in order to secure this result they were forced to call in the aid of a machine on their own side—*i.e.*, the custom-house. If we may believe the Democratic papers, the civil-service order was found not to interfere with a great deal of "legitimate political activity" on the part of the "boys," who "peddled Republican tickets" at a great rate. It is evident by the small majority of Mr. Pierce, if there were not plenty of other evidences besides, that Boston elections must in future be decided to a great extent by a fight between the two "machines," but the New England capital is fortunate in possessing a real independent body of citizens who are still able to make one or other machine work in the interest of good government.

Early in the week it became known that a vote on the Silver Bill would not be taken in the Senate before adjournment over the holidays, and the price of gold fell from 103⅜ to 102⅝, while at the same time the price of United States bonds in London advanced. At the Stock Exchange the good effect of this temporary check to the silver movement was more than neutralized by the distrust resulting from the official exposure of the condition of the National Trust Company, the stoppage of payment by the Newark Savings Institution, the closing-up of the Oriental Savings-Bank of this

city, bank troubles in Chicago, and about the usual number (at this season of the year) of mercantile suspensions. It appears that the National Trust Company, notwithstanding the positive declarations of the officers that the concern was sound, and that rumors to the contrary were stock-jobbing inventions, has been mismanaged in a way that has impaired the capital by $700,000—the capital having been $1,000,000. The Newark Savings Institution had deposits in excess of $10,000,000, and was in all respects a leading institution. How much this bank will pay is a question. The estimates are that the depositors will get not less than 50 per cent. and not more than 80 per cent. The Oriental Savings-Bank was a small concern—one of the relics of Tweed's time, when special charters were easily obtained. The fall of Plevna has had comparatively little effect on the financial or trade markets, as they hardly know whether to construe it as meaning peace or an extension of the war. The gold value of a United States legal-tender note for one dollar ranged during the week between $0.9673 and $0.9744. Silver in London fell to 53⅝*d.* per oz., and the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar would at one time have had a gold value of $0.8991, although at the close of the week the gold value would have been $0.9029.

The "poison" was finally extracted from Marshal MacMahon's mind on Friday last, when he allowed M. Dufaure to form a ministry from the Left Centre, and broke, according to some accounts with anger, with his late advisers, and declared he would never see the Duc de Broglie and his colleagues again, on learning that they had been putting him up to illegal courses. The new ministers are mostly men well known in public life. Dufaure is President of the Council; Marcère, Minister of the Interior; Waddington, of Foreign Affairs; General Borel, of War; Bardoux, of Public Instruction; Pothuau of Marine; Léon Say, of Finance; Teisserenc de Bort, of Commerce; and De Freycinet, of Public Works. Only two of them, General Borel and M. Bardoux, have not been in office before. The Ministry appears to give great satisfaction to all parties except the extreme Bonapartists and Legitimists. It was introduced to the Assembly by a message, which perhaps, considering everything, has had few parallels as an illustration of weakness and incapacity. It is a complete surrender of all positions held by the Marshal since the 16th of May, and an acceptance of the parliamentary theory which might almost be called abject.

He says that the elections have reaffirmed the confidence of the country in republican institutions; that he has selected a Ministry from both Chambers of men resolved to defend and maintain them; that the crisis through which the country has been passing must come to an end and not be renewed; that the result of a general election is a decision by the court of last resort, and that he conforms himself to it; that under the Constitution ministers are responsible, not he; and that the principles of the Constitution are those of his Government. The Assembly then, on the demand of the Ministry, voted the four direct taxes and a credit to cover two months' expenses, and all except "the friends of moral order" seem happy and hopeful once more. The only danger now is that the Marshal may be again led astray before the close of his term. The uncertain element in the problem seems to be Madame MacMahon. There is a curious story in the correspondence of the London *Times* of the Marshal's listening in great agitation to a long and frank exposition of sound constitutional doctrine from M. de Lesseps, and then saying with great earnestness, "You must tell all this to my wife."

It now turns out that Osman Pasha did not surrender fifty or sixty thousand men, as the first reports made it appear, but less than thirty thousand, including the victims of the last fight, the number of whom, owing to the Turks being soon overwhelmed from every quarter, and yet continuing to struggle for five hours, was excessively large. To heighten the *éclat* of the victory, and probably also out of sincere admiration, the Czar, the Grand Duke Nicholas, the Prince of Rumania, Skobeleff, and others among the victors, lavished marks of distinction on the captive Pasha. Ignorant of his surrender, Suleiman Pasha, on the morning following it, December 11, ordered another attack on the Tzesarevitch's forces at Metchka; his men fought with wonted bravery, but were again repulsed, and recrossed the Lom at Krasna. Suleiman shortly after, the fall of Plevna having rendered the continuation of aggressive warfare on his part equally useless and perilous, evacuated the lately-captured Elena; the Russians reoccupied it, and on December 16 pushed forward to Bebrova, southeast of it. Against the forces formerly commanded by Mehemet Ali Pasha, and now by Ahmed Eyub, the corps of Gen. Krüdener was despatched by the Orhanie road some days after Osman's surrender. Cannonading was going on on the 13th between Ahmed Eyub's troops and the Russians, near Komartzi. A few days later a Russian column attempting to penetrate the Balkans between Komartzi and Sophia appeared at Tashkesen, but was driven back. Snow falling heavily, the passes in the mountains were becoming impassable. On the 17th, Czar Alexander arrived at Bucharest, *en route* for his capital.

As soon as the shadow of the dreaded Osman Pasha's army disappeared from the horizon, Prince Milan of Servia openly joined the coalition of Russia, Rumania, and Montenegro against Turkey. The troops were ordered to cross the frontier; Milan himself left for Alexinatz, a place in southeastern Servia, the environs of which were the scene of bloody and disastrous combats at the close of the war of 1876. The Morava division of the Servian army, under Leshyanin, crossed the frontier between that town and the fortified Turkish city of Nissa or Nish, and, according to a Belgrade despatch, occupied with artillery the heights of Topolnitza and Setchanitza, commanding Fort Mramor, near Nissa. Turkish troops, placed under the command of Mehemet Ali Pasha, had been collecting in the vicinity of the latter place and of Pirot, between it and Sophia. The Timok division of the Servians, under Horvatovitch, occupied Adlie, west of Widdin. The movements of the Montenegrins continue to be unimportant, and the Greek Government has resolved to adhere to its peace policy; but an insurrectionary movement is reported to have broken out in Crete. In Armenia the Russians seem to be resuming the offensive against Erzerum, threatening to cut its communications with Trebizond, and to attack it from the north.

The news from Plevna was received at Constantinople with Mohammedan calm and composure. On the 13th the Turkish Parliament was reopened. All the dignitaries and foreign ambassadors were present. The Sultan's speech from the throne was dignified in tone, but too lavish of promises of liberal reform, considering that all promises and innovations of that kind, made since the insurrectionary outbreaks of 1875, are considered as extorted from the Porte by fear of Christian arms. The resolution of the Government to avail itself of the military service of non-Moslems was announced. The Chamber of Deputies elected a Christian President. A diplomatic circular was addressed by the Government to the signataries of the treaty of 1871, in which it announced its readiness to negotiate for peace, deprecating the evils of an unprovoked war, solemnly reiterating its determination to uphold and enlarge freedom and equality within its dominions, appealing to the justice of the neutral powers, and declaring its readiness, in case of failure to obtain an honorable peace, to sacrifice all for the independence and integrity of the country. The answers to this pacific overture, as vaguely reported, conjectured, or foreshadowed in a multitude of communications—semi-official, officious, and otherwise—are, or will be, of a varied character. If we may judge by those communications, Italy and France are inclined to offer their friendly services; Germany, rather the contrary; Austria, timid; and England seriously trying to come to a resolution which shall be firm and effective. The British Parliament has been summoned to meet on January 17, instead of in February, as usual—an announcement received with alarm by the friends of neutrality. The generally unfavorable reception which the circular has met with, has led the Porte to explain that it meant it was ready to treat on the basis of the recommendations of the Conference.

THE CIVIL-SERVICE ISSUE IN THE SENATE.

THE rejection, by the Senate, of the nominations of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince is the most important political event that has occurred since the withdrawal of the troops from the South, yet it has created no marked sensation in Washington or in the country at large. At the Custom-house it is accepted as the last of the President's order to office-holders, and the end of civil-service reform. "The men inside politics" have remarked to the men outside politics, "We told you so," and some have even been moved to hilarity. The tendency to mirth has been chilled, however, by the penumbra of the next Presidential election, so that even while inspectors and gaugers are exclaiming that Mr. Conkling has triumphed and has covered himself with glory, there is a mental reservation that neither he nor the party may be half so triumphant or glorious three years from now. The Democrats have very nearly acquired control of the Senate, and their complete control can hardly be deferred more than eighteen months longer. Yet, while clutching at very straws to keep themselves above water, the Republican Senators have sternly bidden all friends of civil-service reform to depart from among them.

Not that President Hayes represents civil-service reform of any consistent and healthy type. On the contrary, his failure to conform his conduct to his professions has alone made the victory of Conkling possible. And it is this shortcoming that has caused the country to take so languid an interest in the confirmation of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince. One of the first appointments made by the President, if not the very first, was that of ex-Secretary Morrill to be collector of customs at Portland, not on account of his business qualifications, but because he was poor and out of office and advanced in years. This was not civil-service reform. Then Mr. Boutwell, who had never really practised or greatly studied law, but who was likewise out of work and must be taken care of, was appointed Commissioner to Revise the Statutes of the United States. Then the former tools of the Union Pacific Railroad were reappointed Government Directors of that company. Then the President's private secretary was appointed Consul-General at Frankfort-on-the-Main; the Presidency, in this particular instance, being treated in the way that General Grant habitually regarded it—as a personal perquisite. Then Mr. Stoughton was made Minister to Russia, apparently as a reward for his services in going down to Louisiana to shield the Returning Board and in arguing before the Electoral Commission, and for his reply to Judge Black's article reviewing the action of the Commission. All these things, however, although violations of the spirit of civil-service reform, were of trifling consequence as compared with three transactions which came before the public in quick succession, viz.: the offer of the English Mission to the Pennsylvania delegation in Congress, the offer of the German Mission to the Illinois delegation, and the nomination of Mr. Sanford as Minister to Belgium. These were every one in flagrant violation of civil-service reform as expounded by the President himself, and all of them had to be undone immediately. Worst of all, they made the Administration ridiculous, depriving it of dignity, and thus made it possible for the Senate to reject its nominations afterwards without exciting popular resentment. There are grounds for believing that the President knew nothing about the bargain with the Pennsylvania and Illinois delegations until the mischief was done, and that he consented to send in the name of Sanford only after much entreaty from the State Department. However this may be, nobody responsible therefor will be able to appear before the public as a reformer again.

The reappointment of Filley, an old and hardened political intriguer, whose commission had actually expired, as postmaster at St. Louis, seems to have been very much in the old fashion. The coquetting, too, with Wells and Anderson of the Louisiana Returning Board in the matter of the New Orleans Custom-house appointments was by no means reputable, while the retention of Babcock in nominal employment at Baltimore, but really at Washington among his "pals" of the District Ring, has been and is a scandal of the first magnitude. This is not the only sign which exists of a private understanding with the ex-President for the perpetuation of abuses which ought to have been eradicated long ago. Much animadversion has been caused by the treatment of the Baltimore Collectorship and of the Brooklyn post-office, and justly so in the first instance at least, which has never been shown to be anything but a wretched political manœuvre, ostensibly for the sake of "the party." There can be no doubt that the appointment of Wm. Henry Smith as the Collector of Customs at Chicago was really in the interest of civil-service reform, as were also the appointments of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince in New York; but the removal of Mr. Arthur was accompanied by the offer to him of the Paris consulate, in order to make it easy and comfortable for him to get out of the Collectorship—another bargain unworthy of the President and in total derogation of the principles of civil-service reform; for if Mr. Arthur has done or omitted things which render him unfit for the one place, he certainly ought not to be appointed to the other. Moreover, the strongest reasons offered for Mr. Arthur's removal apply with equal force to the case of Mr. Simmons of Boston, and there is no talk of disturbing him. It was, again, a weakness to allow Mr. Cornell to retain the Surveyorship after he had ostentatiously defied the President's order to office-holders. The "flank movement" by which he was to be gradually pushed out of office instead of being promptly ejected has come to the end we predicted for it in September last, when we stated that it would not, in our opinion, contribute to a "thorough, radical, and complete" reform of the civil service. In short, there has been too much ground for the sarcasm of the *Herald's* Washington correspondent, that the President wants everybody to be a civil-service reformer except himself.

The unhappy consequence of this series of inconsistencies and makeshifts has been to defeat civil-service reform in the place where it was most needed, and probably to postpone its adoption generally till stronger hands shall take hold of it. No man can write letters of acceptance and inaugural addresses on this subject more pointedly than Mr. Hayes. If he could say to the country, "I have not made one appointment, I have not done one act, inconsistent with those words," the Senate would have no more dared to reject the nominations of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince than they would dare to establish an order of nobility or create a state church. The removal of Arthur and Cornell was a proper and wise proceeding—it ought to have been made long before it was—but the President himself had furnished the only arguments Mr. Conkling needed to secure their rejection, and yet retain for himself as much standing and repute as he had before. The Senate had no objection to Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince as individuals, but would have confirmed them with alacrity if Arthur and Cornell had been removed, and they had been appointed at the instance of Mr. Conkling or Mr. Anybody who happened to be Senator from New York. The struggle between the President to recover his just prerogative and the Senators to retain the Federal offices for their own private aggrandizement, was sure to come, and the victory would not have been for a moment doubtful if the President could have shown that his own hands were clean. Failing this, he could rely upon nothing better than Democratic support for his nominations; and since there will always be a few dullards in every caucus, this was practically no support at all. The Democrats made a mistake, in a party point of view, in not confirming the nominations, as they had the power to do, but we are not sure that civil-service reform would have gained anything from such a victory.

It remains to enquire whether the public sentiment which so cordially greeted the President upon his first induction into office, and which so unmistakably supported his declared intention to reform the civil service, is dead; whether the triumph of the old clique in the Senate and the vacillation of the President himself have discouraged that portion of the Republican party which gave so powerful a support to Mr. Bristow at Cincinnati, and without which Mr. Hayes could have been neither nominated nor elected. We have no doubt that this element of the party is as numerous, as vigilant,

as intelligent now as it ever was, and we have no doubt that it is correctly represented by the New York *Times*, whose editorial articles on the rejection of Messrs. Roosevelt and Prince have gone to the pith of the matter with uncommon directness and independence. The *Times* is correct also in saying that the present condition of things at Washington cannot be prolonged four years. The Administration must be all one thing or all the other. It must fall back into the old modes and resign itself to the machine, or it must begin *de novo*. We will not say that the Cabinet must be changed, but it must cease to be incongruous with itself and with its declared principles. Mr. Hayes has rendered the country one great service—nay, two. He has broken up military satrapy in the South, and he has brought personal purity into public administration at Washington. These are no common blessings, and they make us all the more regretful that while doing two things which he never promised in any intelligible manner to do, he should have failed through his own lack of decision to accomplish the only reform which he distinctly engaged to carry out.

WHY THE DEMONETIZATION OF SILVER DID NOT ATTRACT POPULAR ATTENTION.

THE argument that the act demonetizing silver was passed "surreptitiously" and by "concealment" and fraud, in the interest of speculators, is probably that which has produced most effect at the West in securing support for "the silver movement." That dishonesty—that is, the desire to secure a discount on existing debts—is at the bottom of it we have no sort of doubt; but then it has secured a large number of adherents who are not dishonest, but simply deceived, through what it is no exaggeration to call the shameful conduct of a large portion of the Western newspapers. They are deceived not simply with regard to economical laws—for with regard to these deception is easy—but with regard to facts of recent history, which are as provable as the proceedings at any session of Congress—as provable, for instance, as the existence and present status of the Bland Silver Bill itself. Two weeks ago we gave an account of the whole process by which silver was demonetized. We showed that the measure went before two Congresses, was examined and re-examined with care by two committees, and was before the public for three years, and was fully debated; that, in short, all the means by which a knowledge of the character of *any* act of Congress is spread abroad was resorted to; nay, more than this, that it received, as far as the promoters of the bill could accomplish it, far more than the usual amount of promulgation. This completely disposes of the charge of "surreptitiousness," or concealment, or fraud; it not only disposes of it but makes it ridiculous. To this, too, the makers of the charge have no reply, except that the measures taken to secure publicity did not produce the usual effects; or, in other words, that the examination in committee, the reports and debates, and long pendency of the bill did not attract popular attention. They say there must have been fraud in the matter because few people knew what was going on, and ask you, as a sort of knock-down argument, whether *you* knew until 1875 that silver had been demonetized in 1873? If you did not, if you gave the subject no attention and did not read the Congressional debates, the debaters, they urge, must have been engaged in a game of fraud. This argument has been deliberately used by both the Chicago *Tribune* and Cincinnati *Commercial* within the past week; and, in fact, has been, ever since the facts of demonetization were fully brought out, their principal if not only argument. Its absurdity becomes more apparent if we apply it to Congressional legislation in general. To how much of it does anybody pay attention except the lawyers and editors? When it is in the least degree concerned with scientific matters who of any calling pays attention to it except specialists? But is all legislation which is only known to specialists, or which possesses no popular interest, therefore fraudulent or passed with evil design? Have silver men no sense of humor?

But the concealment argument is used for two purposes. One is to produce the belief that the promoters of the demonetization were guilty of fraud; the other is to produce the belief that if the people had known what was being done they would have prevented it. Unless the people would have interfered to prevent the legislation in question, their ignorance of it has no more bearing on the matter now in dispute than their ignorance of the legislation of the British Parliament in the same year. But would the people have prevented it? Silver was then three per cent. higher in value than gold. Dr. Linderman, of the Mint, in his late little work on 'Money and Legal Tender,' describes the situation of the coinage in 1873 as follows:

"The relative valuation of gold and silver—1 to 15 in the coinage as established in 1792—continued until 1834, when it was changed to 1 to $15\frac{988}{1000}$, say one to sixteen nearly, by a reduction in the weight and fineness of the gold coins. For more than twenty years before this change was made, gold had a higher value in the market than in the nominal legal-tender value of United States coins; the gold coins, therefore, commanded a premium on the silver coins, and were largely melted or exported. After the change of standard the silver coins were worth more as bullion than their legal tender or nominal value, and afterwards gradually disappeared from circulation. To meet this last difficulty Congress, in 1853, reduced the weight of silver coin, except the dollar piece, sufficiently to retain them in circulation. The double standard, however, was nominally continued, silver being represented by the dollar piece. The dollar piece, however, was not coined or used as money to any considerable extent on account of its having a higher bullion value than nominal or tale value. The declaration in the Coinage Act of 1873, that the gold dollar was to be thereafter the unit of value, and the omission of the silver dollar from the coins to be struck under the provisions of that act, placed the United States on the single gold standard. The silver dollar had already become obsolete in fact; the law of 1873 merely conformed to that fact. This legislation was a continuation and consummation of that which took place in 1834 and 1853, which had for their object the use of gold as the principal money of coin payments in this country. In respect to this last legislation, it may be said that at the time it took place, and for some time previously, the weight of opinion in Europe and America was against the practicability of maintaining a double standard on any basis which might be selected, and was in favor of a gold standard. This important feature of the Coinage Act of 1873 had been agreed upon by Congress before it became apparent that a serious decline in the value of silver was likely to take place in consequence of the change from the silver to the gold standard by the German Empire; and this change in reality could have had no influence in determining the question."

This then gives one, and the principal, reason why but little attention was paid to the Act of 1873. It was not talked of outside scientific circles, or the circle of those specially interested in coinage, for the simple reason that it made no change in anything that people used or were dependent on. It recognized existing facts; it embodied usage in law, but that was all. If it had been likely to change the standard of value—or, in other words, to alter the value of property, or affect the operation of contracts, or to touch men in any way in their pockets or their business—does any one suppose it would not have filled the country with just as much commotion as the Bland Bill; that scores of Congressmen and editors would not have been busy arousing the people to the true nature and intent of the measure?

But then, it is said, the Demonetization Act was a speculative measure. The men who "engineered" it *knew* silver was going to fall, and therefore determined to get it out of the way as a legal tender for the benefit of the bondholders, who desired payment in gold. How could they know? From 1834 to 1850 the price of silver ranged between 59 and 60½ pence per ounce; from 1851 to 1866, between 61 and 61½; from 1866 to 1873, between 59¼ and 60½. In 1873 it stood at 59¼. The great fall did not begin until 1875, and it did not even then go below 58. So that there was nothing in the market quotations to give the alarm, or even base a prediction on. It may be said, however, that on general grounds, such as the probable demonetization of silver by Germany and the reported increase in the product of the mines, they had formed a strong expectation that silver would fall in value. Now, supposing this to be true—whether it is true of any one connected with the demonetization measure we have no means of knowing—it became the duty of anybody who looks on money as a measure of value to advocate the

disuse of silver as a legal tender. It is forgetfulness of the fact that the main function of money is to measure value, that leads to most of the Western vagaries about the coinage. The main thing to be aimed at in money is stability in relation to most other commodities. Money which has not this, wants its most essential feature. It is because they have had this, more than for any other reason, that gold and silver have been so much used as money. Any legislator, therefore, who fancies that either of them is likely to vary much in value is perfectly justified in throwing it out of use. It is no more a proper object of affection than a foot-rule or a quart pot. There would be something very ludicrous in any one's loving a foot-rule because it had shrunk, or a quart pot because there had been a hole knocked in it near the brim; and yet the Western people have been doing something very like this in growing sentimental over silver.

The one duty of all governments and of all honest men towards the currency of a country is to see that it be as stable as the laws of trade will permit, and that it always be composed of or be convertible into the most stable material known. All attacks on its stability, whether they consist in adulteration or artificial increase, or unnecessary resort to a cheaper or dearer material, are simply fraudulent and promotive of fraud, and tend to sap both public and private morality. So, also, it may be said that any man who under a popular government endeavors to destroy the popular regard for a stable standard of value, or to confuse the popular perceptions about it, or to persuade the public that it is a thing which may be tampered with or changed to suit the convenience of this or of that class, or that the fact that it has been once tampered with or adulterated is a good and sufficient reason for doing the same thing again, is at best a dangerous charlatan. This is a strong expression, but the times seem to call for plain speech. And the same epithet may fitly be applied to any man who tries to persuade the people that the standard of value is a matter of sentiment, and may properly be modified in obedience to the demands of passion or caprice or affection. If there be one thing in the machinery of a state which lies under the guardianship of pure Justice, it is this. If measures and weights are not *just*, they are nothing. If they can be changed without the consent of both parties to a contract, they pass into the category of implements of crime, and rank with the burglar's "jimmy," and wedge, and false keys.

RUSSIAN VIEWS OF A SETTLEMENT.

LONDON, December 4, 1877.

THE opinion begins to prevail here that the war is coming to an end. Already the ravens, Servia, Rumania, Montenegro, and Greece, are flitting about the sick man's bed, and waiting for the signal to fall upon his remains. The larger beasts of prey, represented by Italy, Austria, Germany, and England, are also moving about uneasily in their cages. They must all have their pickings, or they will fall out among themselves. France is so much occupied with her own affairs that she is keeping out of the threatened disturbance over the pieces. But she has her eye on her neighbors, and has no intention of being left out in the cold. Every day brings fresh rumors as to the terms of peace, and as to who will and who will not be among the peacemakers. To-day the impression seems to be that Russia and Turkey will settle their own affairs by themselves, and that Germany will support the settlement. To-morrow we may hear that all the European powers will be invited to take part in the arrangement. Next day it may be that England is to be left out, isolated from the European congress, hostile to Russia and alienated from Turkey; and this alternative seems to be not improbable. Our councils are still divided, and the only hint of a policy which the Government have given is that "British interests" are alone to guide us. A more impotent view of the policy of a great nation could hardly be put forward. But so far that is all that we have got. Lord Beaconsfield, it is alleged, meets Count Schuvaloff at Brighton, and tells him that the Russian entrance into Adrianople will be the signal for a general rising in England; that she will despatch 300,000 troops at once to Constantinople, and fight two, or it may be three, campaigns with Russia before they return. And when the Russian ambassador asks in amazement where the 300,000 troops are to be found, he is informed that both England and India are to be denuded—the one left to the volunteers, the other to the native regiments. And this strange canard has scarcely got fledged before Lord Derby meets a deputation of nobodies and makes them a speech on the Eastern Question; and the upshot of that speech is that Russia and the two Emperors may make pretty nearly any terms they like and England will not interfere. Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary, then comes on the field and tells an assemblage of Tories that the recent Russian successes made no difference as to the policy of the Government. He reiterates what he said eight months ago, that England will not interfere if her interests are not assailed, and these interests he points out to be Constantinople and the Suez Canal. What are we to make of these contradictory assurances of our Cabinet Ministers? We must, I think, look beyond them and see what Russia on the one hand and this country on the other say and think on the matter.

It is pretty clear that the governing classes in Russia are eager for peace, and are engaged in tossing up straws and putting out feelers, with the view of trying to ascertain what Europe, and especially what England, will stand in the way of terms. Last week we had the pilot-balloon of Prince Vassiltchikoff sent up in the *Severny Vêstnik* and translated in the *Times* of November 23 by Mr. Mackenzie Wallace, the capable correspondent at St. Petersburg. Prince Vassiltchikoff is described as being a man well known in Russia. "By his education, his social position, and his unquestionable ability he might easily have obtained a high place in the official hierarchy. . . . He is the author of two large works, one on 'Self-Government' and the other on 'Landed Property,' and he is universally respected for his uprightness and other good qualities. . . . He regards the Eastern Question not from the ecclesiastical or philosophical, but from the political, point of view." And what is the *ballon d'essai* of this Russian prince who regards the Eastern Question from a political point of view? Put shortly, it is something of this kind: We cannot annex any territory in Europe, but we have committed ourselves to nothing with regard either to the Black Sea or to Asia. We must command the Balkan Peninsula. We cannot do that by land, therefore we must have the undivided command of the Black Sea. To secure this, we must get possession of the Turkish fleet, built in England and provided with the newest improvements. We must further round our frontier in Asiatic Turkey, and must secure freedom of navigation and the opening of the Straits; and though we must bear the heavy losses incurred in the war, we should hope to redeem them by increased animation of our economic life on *the whole coast of the Black Sea* and in the basins of the Don and the Dnieper. Austria and Germany will not object. "Our principal, and probably irreconcilable, opponent will be England. . . . We must weigh the consequences of the hostility of the British Empire, with its powerful armadas and countless financial resources," and so on. The Russians, however, it appears, are not satisfied with such meagre demands as these. They will not listen to the free passage of the Dardanelles, in the European acceptation of the term. What they demand is the free passage for themselves and the rigorous exclusion of all other nations, or, as it is sometimes called, "the joint dominion of the Straits by Turkey and Russia," Turkey having ceded her fleet to Russia! "The right of free passage granted to all nations," it appears, "would be a gross infraction of Russian interests. The navies of those Powers which have no possessions on the Black Sea coast have no reason to pass through the Straits except for purposes of attack and invasion. In a word, the right of exit from the Black Sea is for Russia the right of exit from an inner court to the free air of heaven, while the right of entrance granted to foreign nations would be the right to enter our inner court for the purpose of attack and robbery."

That is pretty fair for a beginning. But the *Govremenoi Isvesti*, a Moscow journal, over-trumps any mild suggestion like the above. "It is necessary," says that journal, "for Russia to possess the Turkish fleet, and the Black Sea must be exclusively hers. Turkey must not have the right of keeping a fleet in a sea which must be ours, nor the power of sending a fleet into that sea. . . . If the Black Sea must be Russian, the Straits also must be Russian. The country abutting on the Straits must be ours, . . . and no war-vessel must approach this territory. . . . Russia must have the right of occupying the capital when any armed vessel approaches the Dardanelles, as well as the right of prohibiting the entrance of any foreign (armed) vessel into the Bosphorus. We must have the right of sending our ships of war into the Mediterranean. . . . If Mesopotamia be divided between Turkey, Russia, and Persia, so that Turkey shall be isolated from the Persian Gulf, it will be a second loss of the United States of America to England. The possession of Mesopotamia by Russia will kill the worm England, which destroys the communication Russia could possess in the East." I do not know

the value of the *Govremenoi Isvesti*, nor can I appreciate its influence on Continental politics. But it cannot, I think, be classed among those journals of Russia which are friendly towards England. We have still another feeler sent out—this time by the *Golos*—which is influential. The *Golos* straw is of less gigantic proportions than those of the other articles quoted. As interpreted by the Vienna correspondent of the *Times*, it suggests first the independence of Rumania and Servia, and the territorial enlargement of Montenegro. Second, an autonomic and non-Mussulman administration in Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Bulgaria of such a kind as to prepare these provinces for full political independence. As to compensation, the *Golos* considers that the true indemnity to Russia would consist in the introduction of such a state of things in the Balkan peninsula as would enable the populations there kindred to her in race and creed to grow strong and develop, as becomes the natural allies of Russia. In addition to that, Russia should be permitted to strengthen her defensive position towards the south, to develop her Black Sea fleet, for which free access to the Mediterranean is necessary, and to acquire such places as Kars, Batum, etc., and, finally, care must be taken that the conditions of peace shall be settled by Russia and Turkey without the intervention of Europe. "This is necessary to guarantee Russia against any future interference of England in her relations with Turkey."

From these different sources we have something like a clear idea of what Russian demands are likely to be—the two first representing the most extreme, the last the more moderate demands. They are all different and have but one link in common—hatred and distrust of England. This is the price which we have to pay for the general election of 1874, which placed Lord Beaconsfield and the Tories in power. I believe this country has suffered beyond all calculation in prestige, in influence, and almost in honor from the unfortunate circumstance that when the Eastern question came up for solution we were under a Tory, and not under a Liberal, government. However, here it is, and we must make the best of it. What, then, is the feeling of this country on the question of the conditions of peace? So far as I can judge from very many conversations with men of different views and from an attentive perusal of most of the leading newspapers which are worth reading, I should say that it would take a very great deal to drive us to take up arms; but we might be driven to do so. If peace be made without consulting us, we shall resent it. But, unless it be on such terms as we cannot accept, our resentment will fall on our present rulers, who, by the ostentatious parade of our selfish disregard of everything but "British interests," have alienated all other European nations from us. The Conservative party will suffer materially when the time comes for an appeal to the country. On the other hand, if excessive demands—demands such as Prince Vassiltchikoff or the *Govremenoi Isvesti* has shadowed forth—were made by Russia, the excitement and indignation of this country could not be restrained. Lord Beaconsfield might then do all the evil that he is said to contemplate. He might commit us to war, and, if a section of the Liberal party in the House of Commons were to refuse the supplies and force on a dissolution, Lord Beaconsfield would secure a majority in the country. The old feeling which was evoked before the Crimean War is not extinct. There is no love lost between England and Russia. Many who lost friends and relations in the Crimean War cherish rancor towards their old enemies, and the whole genius of this country is antipathetic to the aggressive, hypocritical, and occult policy of leading Russian statesmen. To such terms as the *Golos* suggests—except the proposal that England should be excluded from any share in the settlement—there would not be strong opposition in England. Such a settlement as the *Golos* proposes with regard to Rumania, Servia, Montenegro, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Bulgaria does not seem unreasonable, though doubtless much would depend upon the arrangement of details; the freedom of the Straits, provided that was reciprocal and that the navies of all states, and our own especially, were free to come and go through them, might be accepted. The occupation of part of Armenia, in lieu of indemnity, would not greatly excite this country, though we might not like it. We would admit that Russia had done good work and was entitled to her wages; but I do not know that we would tamely submit to any further exactions. Of course there are certain equivalents in such cases which would come up for consideration, and this country might not be unwilling to contribute towards the indemnity if some equivalent were proposed. However, all this is in the future; what is apparent is that Turkey will henceforth be circumscribed in territory and in power, that the Christian states will have a chance to do something in the world, and, above all, that Greece will not be forgotten.

Correspondence.

PALACE CARS ON BANKRUPT ROADS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Enclosed are two extracts cut from neighboring columns of the Cincinnati *Gazette*, as follows:

"A Palace Car.—A new car, combining all the luxury and comfort that it is possible to build for use on rail, has just come out of the shops of the Ohio & Mississippi Railroad. It is destined for the special use of Superintendent W. W. Peabody, and is a marvel of beauty and completeness, being divided off into a beautiful sitting-room, two finely-furnished state-rooms, and a kitchen. Captain Peabody may well be proud of the elegant coach, and the makers thereof equally as proud of their skill. Mr. J. P. Coulter, the master car-builder of the O. & M., we understand, planned the car."

Among the stock quotations:

"Chicago and Alton	77⅛	Atlantic and Pacific Telegraph	22¾
Chicago and Alton, preferred	101	Missouri Pacific	1⅛
Ohio and Mississippi	8⅞	Burlington and Quincy	101¾
Delaware and Lackawanna	51	Hannibal and St. Joe	11½"

Does it not seem a curious state of mind which congratulates the squanderers in charge of a bankrupt road, and does not recognize the fact that prosecution for breach of trust would be the proper proceeding against them? And if no laws are framed warranting such a course on the part of the swindled stockholders, is there not a crying necessity for such? Yours truly, M. L.

St. Louis, December 9, 1877.

THE SILVER "TONE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I send you the following, taken from the Cincinnati *Enquirer*, of December 9, as a specimen of the moral tone of the second largest paper in Cincinnati in relation to the "silver question":

"Minnesota squarely repudiated her railroad debt, Tennessee is about to scale hers, Virginia and North Carolina will eventually do the same, and the money lords in the East who are howling for gold, gold, gold upon their Government bonds, and throwing every obstacle in the way of the Silver Bill, had better profit from their example before it is everlastingly too late."

And in respect to this question of common honesty it is neither better nor worse than the other dailies of this self-styled "Paris of America."

A Reader of The Nation.

Newport, Ky., December 11, 1877.

Notes.

We have received from R. Worthington two volumes, 'Peveril of the Peak' and 'The Pirate,' of the new English "Handy Volume 'Waverley.'" This is a genuine pocket edition, small and compact, neatly bound and printed, and only too tempting to weak eyes on a long journey in a jolting vehicle.——The ten volumes of Byron in the original Boston edition of the British Poets become five in the Riverside Edition of H. O. Houghton & Co., and the price is correspondingly reduced. The question of the value of stereotype plates is often discussed among publishers, but this is one of the instances in which the public is clearly a gainer by the practice of stereotyping.——Mr. Frothingham's 'Life of Gerrit Smith' will be published before the close of the year by G. P. Putnam's Sons.——The first number of the *Plumber and Sanitary Engineer*, a monthly periodical in newspaper form, edited by Charles F. Wingate, lies before us. It bears on the first page the cheering announcement that "the reading columns and opinions of this paper are *positively not for sale*; . . . no reading notices, editorial puffs, or other similar matter will be obtainable." Col. George E. Waring, jr., will be a regular contributor to this journal.——The *Scientific American* for Dec. 22 contains a cut representing Mr. Thomas A. Edison's "Talking Phonograph," an outgrowth of the telephone more marvellous than its parent. It records by indentations on a revolving cylinder the sounds uttered through a telephone, and permits these to be reproduced mechanically at any time and in any place to which the indented strip of the cylinder has been transported. The perfection of this machine may enable future generations to hear the exact tones and pronunciation of distinguished men who have flourished ages before, and to test both the contemporary and the posthumous reputation of orators, actors, and singers in a way now wholly denied us.——Mr. Wm. J. Thoms announces in the *Athenæum* of Dec

1 the formation of a Folk-Lore Society, for the collection and publication of relics of popular antiquities. He remarks, for the benefit of the future Littré of the English language, that the word "folk-lore" made its first appearance in the *Athenæum* on Aug. 12, 1846.——No. 12 of the new journal *O Vulgarisador*, published at Rio, contains an interesting account of the collections in the museum of the Geological Commission of Brazil, under the direction of Prof. Ch. F. Hartt, and of the work going on there in the various offices and laboratories.——The Old-Catholic movement has now a fortnightly review, *La Réforme Catholique*, in Paris (New York: F. W. Christern). M. Léon Séché contributes "Old-Catholic Portraits," beginning with Père Hyacinthe. Dr. Doellinger's theses at the Synod of Bonn are translated in No. 1, which also contains an extract from "Lord" Gladstone's 'Rome and the Pope.' M. Wallon contributes a letter of sympathy and a document to No. 3.——The *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) shows of late less reliance on artists from across the Channel for its illustrations; the principal ones in the November number are English, and Mr. C. O. Murray in his portrait of Murillo, and Mr. Ernest George in his architectural subject from Tournai, are not conspicuously inferior to the usual French etchers of the *Portfolio* except in a certain want of freedom of line, common to both. Among the letter-press, Mr. Townshend's paper on domestic architecture and decoration is as pithy as any we have seen.

—Callaghan & Co., Chicago, announce a forthcoming translation of Professor Roscher's 'Principles of Political Economy,' with additional chapters by the author, prepared expressly for this edition, on Paper Money, International Commerce, and Protective Duties. This great work has passed through thirteen editions in Germany, and has been translated into most of the languages of Europe. The French translation was made by Wolowski, who prefaced it with an essay on the "Historical Method in Political Economy," which will also be added to the forthcoming volume. This, the first English translation, will be made by Mr. J. J. Lalor, who gave us last year in English the first volume of Dr. Von Holst's 'Constitutional History of the United States.' Mr. Lalor's industry was temporarily interrupted by the Ashtabula disaster, of which he was one of the victims. Upon the completion of Roscher, the translation of Von Holst's second volume will be undertaken, the advance sheets of which (in German) are now arriving. The good service which Callaghan & Co. are doing, by bringing out works of such solid merit as these, will, we have no doubt, find its reward in a sufficient market on both sides of the Atlantic.

—A few gift-books remain to be acknowledged while there is yet time. 'Some Highways and Byways of American Travel,' by "Edward Strahan," Sidney Lanier, Edward A. Pollard, and others, is the third compilation from *Lippincott's Magazine* put forth this season. Like the two mentioned last week it is illustrated, and it possesses the same kind of merit. From another Philadelphia house, Gebbie & Barrie, we have two quarto volumes of tasteful exterior, 'Great American Sculptures,' by William J. Clark, jr., and a translation of the Marquis de Belloy's 'Christopher Columbus.' The first-named is a poor production in every way. The illustrations on steel, of the well-known *Art-Journal* stamp, appear to be from worn plates, or else to be reproduced by some photo-lithographic process, for they have quite lost their sharpness. The text is absolutely worthless: as instruction it is incredibly antiquated, while as criticism it is almost puerile. There is no allusion to the works or to the existence of the sculptors Launt Thompson, L. G. Mead, Martin Milmore, and H. K. Brown. The Life of Columbus is written in a popular style, with comparatively little rhapsody, but without any pretension to originality. The author's imagination is soberer than that of Columbus's contemporaries, but his artist, Leopold Flameng, depicts the aborigines very much as sixteenth-century artists did. Flameng's half-dozen full-page etchings are of more consequence than all the wood-engravings (also his designs); the portrait of Columbus which serves as a frontispiece being a spirited ideal. Both the letter-press and the illustrations of J. H. Bufford & Co.'s edition of the 'Ancient Mariner,' from Sir J. Noel Paton's designs, appear to have been reproduced in fac-simile by lithography, and to have lost about equally in the process, yet not so much that these strong and original conceptions cannot give nearly as much pleasure as the original engravings, of which the size has not been reduced.

—An esteemed correspondent writes us from Wisconsin:

"I enjoyed your article on 'Palace Cars,' but was disappointed that the greatest nuisance in them wasn't mentioned—the horse-blankets under which you have to swelter, or be covered only with a sheet. If they would substitute for them two or three common blankets, of the same combined thickness, so that one could adjust his covering to temperament and temperature, I, for one, should be freed from the greatest discomfort of sleeping-cars. Moreover, there is too much harping on Western cookery, though no doubt traditionally it is very bad, and bad too still in the domestic sphere—as where I boarded in Ohio they used to cut up the roast meat an hour or so before dinner and let the slices sizzle in the grease. But public cooking in the West is not bad. It is in New England that you can get nothing but cake and pie at railroad restaurants. I never knew one in the West where you couldn't get a good sandwich, and good bread and cheese, and—across the street—a good glass of lager. And the railroad eating-houses are almost invariably good. I have tried them from Altoona, in Pa., to Portage, in Wis., and from the ferryboat at Detroit to Dunlap in Iowa, and they are as a rule very good. It is very true you don't get but twenty minutes, but the service is so prompt and efficient that this isn't so bad; and if you look on it (as you ought) not as a *dinner* but as a *lunch*, it does very well. A real defect is that in these places they make no provision for anything but a meal; but I have never had any difficulty in getting a cup of tea and a roll at a reasonable rate for persons who didn't come into the dining-room."

—An important paper recently presented by Professor C. E. Norton at the Academy of Arts and Sciences (Proceedings, vol. xiii., p. 145–170), throws new light on the mode of construction of the Greek temples. It has now for some time been known that the Greek architects *did* make use of mathematical proportions; that they "attached great value to simple ratios of low natural numbers"; and that, in particular temples, such and such proportions are found. But further than this, the principle which controlled the choice of *particular* "low natural numbers," which determined why the architect used some low numbers in preference to others—of this little has hitherto been known, and in suggesting a possible answer to this question, Professor Norton has opened the way to much further elaboration of the science of these ratios. From a very few data as to the Temple of Zeus at Olympia (and these such that he has reason to correct them) Professor Norton tries to find its dimensions and proportions, and succeeds, by well-nigh conclusive evidence—so interdependent are his various results—in almost building up the temple as it might have been on the architect's paper (if the architects of that day ever drew out their designs). His results are especially interesting from the fact that the discoveries of the German excavators, now at work on this particular temple, may soon give an opportunity for the comparison of the actual measurements with those which Mr. Norton has worked out by means of his knowledge of the theory of their proportions. Examining the ratios which he had thus reached, Mr. Norton has noticed the remarkably frequent occurrence, in both, of the numbers 3, 5, 7, and 35. 3, 5, and 7, he remarks, were numbers of especial dignity and sacredness with the Pythagoreans; while 35 they named "harmony." "It would seem," he says, "that the architect, having determined to base his design upon 35, the number called harmony itself, had exercised his ingenuity in devising such dimensions for his temple as should form a complete and most complex composition of harmonic relations. . . . It is not unlikely (although we have no evidence as yet of the fact) that" some of the Greek architects, "adopting the Pythagorean doctrine of numbers as the key of nature, . . . believed that the most perfect works of their art were to be achieved by the conformity of their designs to the principles of the architecture of the world."

—If a book like Tissot's 'Voyage aux Pays des Milliards,' a mere caricature of German manners, goes into forty editions, and his translation of some discontented German's satire reaches nearly as many, the Germans have their own mode of revenge. There are great rejoicings in Germany on the 2d of September, the anniversary of Sedan. It is a sort of Fourth of July, and the schools bear a large share in the celebrations. The whole village assembles at the school-house, and there, under the lead of the master, who himself often takes part, the scholars declaim speeches, recite dialogues, sing songs with rousing choruses, in which is set forth the valor of their countrymen, their disregard of the fierce Turcos and agile zouaves, the greatness of the Emperor William, the vainglory and weakness of his opponent. Sometimes the whole history of the war, from Saarbrück to Sedan, is sung—a history in which MacMahon retreats constantly till he is entrapped, Bourbaki is thoroughly cowed by Werder, and Bazaine is introduced only to be caught at Metz. The Germans have an easy task in setting forth the superiority of their nation, and the patriotic (or chauvinistic) verses are no doubt sung and heard with unbounded enthusiasm. The versification is very remarkable, coming from poets who were evidently neither born nor made. The framework of some of the poems is equally original. In one, a small army of Prussians, slain in the moment of victory, present themselves at the gate of Paradise, and, still intoxicated by the ardor of the conflict and the

fumes of powder, they take it by storm. St. Peter loses his head, and in his perplexity consults *der gute Gott*, who refers him to "Old Fritz." Frederic is found discussing points of strategy with Blücher, and vents his surprise at the interruption in an exclamation in his favorite French. An officer advances, presents arms, and relates the campaign of 1870; but, as he had fallen at Metz, and so could not know the end of the war, Fritz's old general, Ziethen, is sent down to earth to learn the news. When he returns with the tidings of the fall of Sedan, Paradise (which seems to be decidedly German in its political leanings) is filled with rejoicing. St. Peter reserves one of the finest spots for the victorious legions, and is advised by Old Fritz to seek repose from his duties. "Hereafter there will be no need of shutting the gates of Heaven. I'll just place a Prussian sentinel there, and he'll keep 'em out." Of course, all this seems very deplorable to the French, who cannot too much insist upon the discourtesy and poor taste displayed, and, indeed, the wickedness of bringing up the German children to hate their neighbors. Doubtless the French method is the more refined, as when the *Revue des Deux Mondes* condemns the English novel 'Eugénie,' because the heroine, a Frenchwoman, persists in loving a Prussian officer throughout the war between the two countries. "Improbable. The war would have killed all love for a man who had invaded her country."

—From Germany we derive the following items of literary intelligence. The third part, section 1, of F. Blass's 'Attische Beredsamkeit' (Demosthenes) has recently appeared. A. Gerber and A. Greef have begun a 'Lexicon Taciteum.' The first volume of a new edition of G. Curtius's 'Verbum der griechischen Sprache' has appeared. R. Kühner, the well-known author of the large Greek grammar (first ed., 1834, second ed., practically a new work, 1869), has published the first volume of a similar Latin grammar. The 'Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum' has reached the end of the fifth volume (vol. v., part 2, Inscriptions of Cisalpine Gaul, edited by Mommsen). A. Vanicek, who gave us a useful little dictionary of Latin etymology in 1874, has just issued the first volume of a Græco-Latin Etymological Dictionary. F. Neue's 'Formenlehre der lateinischen Sprache' has reached the end of a second edition. The Leipsic *Theologische Literaturzeitung*, besides its reviews of books, continues to be noticeable for its theological bibliography in all languages, including articles in periodicals and critiques. *Heft* 94 of the *Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen*, on 'Kanäle und Sammelbecken,' tabulates all the navigable canals in Germany, whether built or only projected, with full particulars of their length and capacity. Similar data in regard to the canals of the United States are added from the 'American Cyclopædia.'

—The second number of the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* (containing parts second and third in one) amply realizes the high expectations raised by the first. It contains six leading articles, eleven shorter miscellaneous contributions, and a large number of reviews and notices. The first article, by W. Vietor, on the origin of the Virgil legend, is devoted to showing that Comparetti's theory of a popular legend separate from the literary legend is untenable, and proving the literary sources of the various local legends of Naples relating to the poet. T. Braga concludes his article on the Portuguese *Cancioneiro* in the Vatican library, and A. Stimming begins a series of studies of Comine's syntax. T. Auracher edits for the first time the Old-French version (supposed to be in the dialect of Poitou) of the Chronicle of Charlemagne attributed to Turpin. This version is chiefly interesting from a philological point of view, although it presents some noteworthy departures from the Latin original. In the Miscellany, A. Weber contributes some interesting notes on the legends in the 'Vitæ patrum,' and R. Köhler shows that the stories in the 'Dodici Conti morali d'un Anonimo Senese' (Bologna, 1862) are taken from French *contes dévots*. E. Manzoni communicates the very interesting discovery by himself of the table of contents of the famous lost Italian *canzoniere* known as the 'Libro Reale.' Among the reviews the most extensive is one by F. Liebrecht of the recent collection of Sicilian popular poetry by S. A. Guastella, 'Canti popolari del circondario di Modica' (Modica, 1876).

—A valuable contribution to the ecclesiastical history of the Middle Ages is 'Peter von Ailli,' by Dr. Paul Tschackert, a *Privat-docent* in the University of Breslau. Cardinal Ailli, Bishop of Cambrai, was, as is well known, the leader of the party of reform within the church at the time of the Great Schism; and he and his pupil, Chancellor Gerson, had more influence than any others in the Council of Constance. The two principal acts of that Council—the deposition of Pope John XXIII. and the burning of John Huss—were in a large degree the work of these two men. Dr. Tschackert traces the life of his hero in detail, and shows him to have been a man of learning, eloquence, and unquestioned honesty and courage—as is shown in his resolute opposition to his spiritual lord, John XXIII., and his temporal lord, Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy. That his views as to church reform were insensibly modified by his career as a prince of the church was not unnatural; his writings at the time of the Council are, however, shown to support in the main the same policy as the writings of his youth. Neither, in those times, was his treatment of Huss without its excuse. But Ailli cannot rank as a really great man; for, with an earnest desire to reform the abuses of the church, and an influence certainly equal to that of any other member of the Council, he nevertheless failed utterly in this. He failed because, when the decisive moment came, he allowed national antipathies (against England; it was just after Agincourt) and the interest of his order (the College of Cardinals) to govern him, and was willing to postpone the reform until after the election of the new pope; and then reform was no longer possible.

—The elaborate work on costume by A. Racinet, the author of 'L'Ornement Polychrome,' has been alluded to before in these pages, as the completest example of a systematic historical treatment applied to dress that has yet appeared. The numbers are now appearing at rather longer intervals than was promised, and the third is just received, with twenty-five pages of illustrations (New York: J. W. Bouton). Among them is a fine reproduction in colors of a tapestry executed from the designs of Le Brun, representing Louis XIV. receiving Cardinal Chigi—a composition which appears to have served as a document for Gérôme, in his well-known "Louis XIV. and Molière." Another, with a hundred figures, represents a Dutch state funeral of 1647, being the obsequies of the Stadtholder Frederick Henry, from an engraving by Nolpe. Leonardo's portrait of Eleonore of Arragon is copied for the details of a sixteenth-century costume, and the remaining illustrations are taken from Persian paintings, Greek vases, fashion-plates of the French Revolution, Japanese and Brittany photographs, etc. The greater part of these appear in full suits of color, with use of gold and silver whenever appropriate, with that categorical accuracy, satisfactory, even though a little hard sometimes, which goes with good chromolithic work, and can never be associated with hand-painting. The text conscientiously gives authority for every figure, and is learned in the technical names of articles of costume. So much earnestness and research are embodied in this study, whether by artists or writers, that the subject seems elevated quite beyond the atmosphere of the milliner, and acquires a grave historic interest. The variety of subjects already represented in the seventy-five plates now issued is imposing, and would seem to be exhaustive in any matter less incalculable than the vagaries of fashion. The work is not only an amusing and even an inspiring portrait-gallery of many civilizations, where the age and body of past time shows its form and presence, but is a severe running criticism on the historian, the historical painter, the dramatist, and the romancer.

—At a meeting of the learned societies of France, held in 1856, the Government was asked to undertake a work similar to that which is nearly completed in Belgium—namely, the making a descriptive catalogue of all the works of art belonging to the nation. No attention appears to have been paid to this request until the year 1874, when M. de Fourtou, then Minister of Public Instruction, appointed a commission of twenty-four under the presidency of M. de Chennevières, director of the Beaux-Arts, and including Clément de Ris, Henri Delaborde, Edmond de Goncourt, and other well-known names. The commission immediately issued circulars to the prefects, the keepers of the archives, directors of museums, presidents of learned societies, and the clergy, bringing the contemplated work to their notice and asking co-operation. Accompanying these were elaborate codes of rules to be followed, and descriptions of the Musée de Tours, the church of St. Etienne du Mont, the Hôtel Soubise, and the Petit-Trianon, with their contents, by members of the commission, to serve as examples. Everything which can be properly regarded as a work of art, interpreted in the broadest sense, is to be included, provided it is national property. The design is not merely to make a catalogue but to give the history in brief of each work, so far as it can be ascertained—the artist, school, age, etc. The publications are to consist of two series, the first being devoted to the national collections, the second to the provincial and municipal museums, the churches, and the historical monuments of the nation. Volume one of the second series has just appeared, with the title 'Inventaire général des richesses d'art de la France. Paris: Monuments religieux' (Paris: Plon). It contains descriptions of twenty-nine of the churches of Paris, including Notre Dame, St. Merry, and St. Germain l'Auxerrois. The general plan adopted

is, commencing with a brief historical and architectural sketch of the building, to give first the sculptures on the exterior, and then the paintings and sculptures on the walls or over the altars, as well as the treasures contained in the sacristies. At the end is a very full index of subjects, artists, and authors. An idea both of the extent of the undertaking and of the wealth of these churches in works of art may be gained from the fact that a column of this quarto volume is devoted to enumerating the paintings of Hippolyte Flandrin, nine columns to representations of the Virgin, and nearly twelve to the Saviour. According to the report of the commission contained in this volume the scheme has met with an enthusiastic reception throughout France, and documents in answer to the circulars are flowing in from all parts of the country. It is hardly necessary to add that to the student of art the work will prove of inestimable value.

VICTOR HUGO'S 'HISTOIRE D'UN CRIME.'*

"THE 'Histoire d'un Crime,'" wrote a French reviewer, "is not a book but a fact." The dictum has the epigrammatic smartness and inaccuracy characteristic of a Parisian journalist, but for all that it pretty well hits the mark. For Victor Hugo's last book, though it contains some curious information of which future historians will make use, is scarcely a contribution to history. All that he tells has been told and well told before by others. Tenot's work, which appeared towards the end of the Empire, is still by far the best account of Louis Napoleon's conspiracy and of the causes which favored its success. Schœlcher's indignant narrative, published within a few months after the events it narrates, is still the best record of the sentiments entertained in 1851 and 1852 by all honest men. Nor, again, have Victor Hugo's reminiscences either the rhetorical vehemence or, we must in truth add, all the literary power which might be expected from a protest against an infamous and successful crime uttered by the greatest of living French writers. There are, no doubt, touches which none but Victor Hugo could give. The last chapter of this volume reads like an unpublished fragment from 'Les Misérables.' The working-woman who, at the peril of her life, carries a letter to the archbishop; the religious republican who believes that Catholicism is the true friend of democracy; the liberal abbé who urges the prelate to play a great part and show that the Church is the protector of human freedom; the archbishop who hesitates between popular sympathy and ecclesiastical principles—who in his chamber curses Louis Napoleon as the enemy of God and man, and within a few weeks celebrates in Notre Dame a Te Deum for the success of the *coup d'état*—are each of them persons who might stand side by side with Jean Valjean and his immortal bishop. The picture of Dupin's weakness or treachery; the description of the judges of the High Court of Justice, who faintly wished to play the part of great magistrates, but were still more anxious to risk neither their lives nor their position; and the account of the wit and vivacity of which the hardships and ignominy of imprisonment could not deprive the representatives of France, are all given with the skill of a master in literary art.

Still, on the whole, the work is as a literary performance not quite equal to its author's reputation. It reads (as far, at any rate, as we can judge by the first volume) rather like notes for a 'Memoir on the Coup d'état' than like a finished literary production. But in truth the book ought to be criticised neither as a contribution to history nor as a literary performance. It was not published to gratify the curiosity of future antiquarians or to add to the fame of a writer who needs no increase to his reputation. The work is, to use the words of our French critic, a fact. It is a deadly blow dealt at men who lack only the power to repeat in 1877 the crime of 1851. Victor Hugo's strokes fall on the Conservatives who, with far less excuse, are exaggerating all the errors committed twenty-five years ago by the party of order; on the President who struts on the public stage as the imbecile imitator of Louis Napoleon; and on the remnants of the gang who enslaved France in 1851, ruined her in 1870, and who would deal her a death-blow in 1877. If the book be considered as a political pamphlet, aimed at the conspirators of to-day, it will be perceived to be a work of which it is hardly possible to exaggerate the importance. The admirers of the Empire are already scheming for its restoration. A victim of the *coup d'état* steps forward to tell all the world the half-forgotten story of the base plot in which the Empire originated, and to let the friends of freedom know what were the circumstances that made possible the success of the meanest conspiracy which has ever overthrown the freedom of a great nation. No one who reads the 'Histoire d'un Crime' can doubt either the unutterable baseness of the arts, by which the crime was achieved, or the meanness of the men to whom the success of the crime brought wealth and infamy.

It is not without a purpose that the first volume has been published alone. The massacre on the boulevards will doubtless meet with its due commemoration, but it is well that men should remember that slaughter and bloodshed are not the special characteristic of Louis Napoleon's plot. Force has been used by other men and has not covered them with infamy. Cavaignac suppressed insurrection with merciless severity, but the men who hated did not despise the Republican general. Thiers showed no mercy and probably scant justice to the soldiers of the Commune, but the capital which he had conquered lamented over his grave. Our ancestors felt at least no contempt for the great Protector. The 18th Brumaire did not meet with due execration till it was seen to be a precedent for the second of December. The fusillade in the boulevards would perhaps not have injured the lasting fame of Louis Napoleon. What has condemned him to perpetual execration was not the violence but the baseness of his conspiracy. He gained power by the arts not of a soldier but of a burglar, and of a burglar who saves his own skin by corrupting the servants who ought to defend their master's house. The entrance into the Palace of the Assembly was achieved not by arms but by treachery. The history of the first stage of the conspiracy is nothing but the record of bribery and intimidation; it would read like a farce if readers did not know that it had ended in a tragedy. A general hesitates to lead his troops against the Assembly—his scruples are removed by a handful of bank-notes; a cab-driver detects part of the plot—the saviours of society lock him up in a room with a purseful of napoleons and a bottleful of brandy; the soldiers called upon to overthow the liberties of their country are stimulated to their task by drink and cigars. Nor in truth did soldiers play the leading rôle. Spies and *mouchards* were the true heroes of the night. The detectives whose exploits have recently occupied the English law courts are of the same stamp as the men who arrested the generals and statesmen of France. The convict Benson who, in 1870, edited an Imperialist paper, entered public life just nineteen years too late. In 1851 he would have been a count and a minister. No knave was too base for employment; no statesman was deemed too respectable for corruption. The speaker of a parliament generally respects, if not his principles, yet his dignity. Dupin betrayed the Assembly, and afterwards was rewarded by its destroyers. Nor was the baseness of Louis Napoleon's arts a mere accidental necessity of his position. No one who reads Victor Hugo's reminiscences can doubt that the President meant to degrade his opponents. It was part of his game to treat opposition as a crime, and lower politicians to the level of criminals. The jealousy of established reputations which exists amid the baser part of mankind was gratified by the sight of ministers and deputies thrust into prison-vans and filling the cells of prisoners. True to the policy which marked the Empire from beginning to end, Louis Napoleon played off class against class and party against party. The workingmen were gratified by the insolent arrest of the men of order. The Conservatives were soothed by seeing that the utmost severity was reserved for the leaders of the Left. The police were roused against the people by the recollections of what they had suffered at the hands of the populace. The troops were urged to avenge the defeat of February and the slaughter of June, 1848, whilst the mob were reminded that the men whom the President arrested had disarmed the people after the days of June. To crown all, the man who was destroying the Republic stood forth as the restorer of universal suffrage, and affected to dissolve the Assembly because (at his own instigation) the majority had deprived thousands of Frenchmen of the franchise. Louis Napoleon boasted from the first that he represented the nation. The boast was well founded. In 1851 he represented the jealousy and suspicion which have been the curse of French politics at home, as in 1870 he represented the ignorance and ambition which have been the disgrace of French policy abroad.

The very picture of the means by which the President won his game suggests to intelligent readers how great would be the difficulty of playing again exactly the same game with success. That the cards which Marshal MacMahon has or had in his hands are not, or were not, such bad cards as they might appear to Anglo-Saxon critics, is our firm conviction. But a detailed study of the *coup d'état* shows that the conspirators of to-day have to deal with a state of affairs very different from that which favored the schemes of Louis Napoleon. In 1851 the Assembly was discredited and unpopular. Victor Hugo himself admits that the workingmen of Paris saw its dissolution with indifference, if not with pleasure. No party

* 'Histoire d'un Crime. Par Victor Hugo.' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1877.

was really zealous for the Constitution. The Right wished to restore the Monarchy; the Left wished to restore universal suffrage. The nation was puzzled, divided, and wearied. The army was discontented, hated the Republic, and favored the Empire. The President was sheltered by the protection of a great name, and had a full opportunity for exercising the one talent which he possessed—the talent for conspiracy. This one gift, it may be added, never failed him. He was ruined in 1870 because he required for his safety generalship and statesmanship. As a conspirator he even then succeeded, for he was the first to attack, and gained ten days or a week, which, in competent hands, might have changed the character of the war. In 1851, a desperado playing his game with consummate skill and recklessness outwitted and vanquished an Assembly divided within itself, destitute of popularity, wanting in purpose, and deficient in leaders. In 1877 the plagiarist of Louis Napoleon has some few of the great conspirator's advantages. MacMahon has with him the priests, the civil service, and probably a large portion of the wealth and selfishness of France; but in everything except these advantages he stands in an utterly different position from that of the hero of the *coup d'état*. The Assembly is popular, the majority is united under leaders who are known and admired. Gambetta has his faults; but even soldiers may think that the dictator of 1870 compares favorably with the defeated general of Sedan. The army itself is, if report says true, more than half won over to the Republic. What, however, is more than all, the French nation is aroused. Victor Hugo tells how France was seized and bound by traitors when she was unarmed, unprepared, and asleep. The very tale is a warning to those who attempt to bind France, armed, awake, and on her guard. The attempt may yet, like other seemingly hopeless attempts, succeed, but the history of the *coup d'état* does not give much encouragement to the attempt to repeat the crime of the second of December.

HANDBOOKS AND HISTORIES OF THE POTTER'S ART.*

THE taste for collecting and studying pieces of earthenware and chinaware, partly for their beauty, partly for their historical interest, partly because of the ethnological questions which some early pieces raise, partly for their rarity alone, and to enjoy the chase and capture—a taste which had been growing fast in America for some years—has been wonderfully stimulated by the International Exhibition of 1876. Ten years ago, in New York, there were in all eight shops where there were now and then curious or ancient pieces of pottery for sale. About twice as many buyers, or would-be buyers, occasionally visited those few dealers and looked about for new arrivals of objects of interest. It was seldom that they were gratified. The commonest bits of Oriental modern manufacture were easy to get, but all the other branches and departments of the ceramic art were unrepresented, except by occasional windfalls, as some owner sold a few pieces to Sypher or Drake, or as Tiffany & Co. received a pair or two of delicate vases from their Paris house. The collectors and students used to think, then, that the dealers were very slow to provide for their wants. Boston and Philadelphia importers would write to our New York buyers (as, no doubt, the New York dealers used to write to Boston and Philadelphia), and careful appointments used to be made to see new importations before they should be sold. To be the first to see new goods when unpacked was to have perhaps the only chance of securing anything of value. Moreover, most of the dealers knew nothing of the relative value of their newly-received goods, and the first-arrived collector had a fair opportunity to get what he might desire rather cheaply, by the simple process of saying nothing in praise of the piece he might prefer, and pointing out, rather, the rarity and value of the others.

But those primeval days are gone, and now, with the number of importers doubled, and auctions coming frequently, there is a still greater change in the character of the articles offered for sale. Any one of half a dozen shops, to-day, offers more really valuable articles of rare old china than all New York, and Boston too, ever had at one time previous to 1870. Moreover, customers are found for all this, and probably as many fine pieces are bought in Europe by travellers and brought home as are bought in America. Such an occasion as the Loan Exhibition now going on at the Academy of Design brings to the knowledge of each other the multitude of new "collectors." The committee is advised to try Mr. Smith, "who had, five years ago, a few very nice pieces of Delft." But the committee find that Mr. Smith has made during those five years a very interesting collection of Dresden *figurines*, or of blue-and-white Chinese plates, or something of the sort; and, moreover, he can give them the names of half a dozen people they never heard of, all "collecting," and each the owner of a few very choice pieces. A directory to private collections has become very desirable.

Of course, all of this is but a weak copy of the "China mania" of London. It is partly from the world of London that our inspiration comes. Our books on China come, most of them, from the same source, either originating there or brought over from the rival world of Paris, and "translated"; and if we have now to mention and describe three American books on the same subject, they are the first. In the list given below the English and French books are merely little manuals of the commoner marks found on pieces of pottery and porcelain; dictionaries, so to speak, of those various indications by which the student is sometimes helped to the school or period of the piece before him, and sometimes led astray. The little book of Messrs. Hooper and Phillips is one of the best hitherto composed. It was received some time ago and has lain unnoticed, but not unused, ever since. We are glad to be able now to compare it with other books of exactly the same character. In this one, the marks are given on a small scale, but neatly and clearly engraved in *fac-simile*, in a column on the left-hand side of each page; then, in the middle column, comes the description of the piece so marked and of the mark itself, whether painted or incised, etc.; and on the right the date of its manufacture. The book is divided into two chief parts: the first, a dictionary or vocabulary of the marks, arranged under the subjects represented, such as *anchor*, *animals* (of different sorts in order), *hayfork*, etc.; the second part in the reversed arrangement, alphabetically by nations and factories, and subdivided into, first, the manufactures of Italy; second, those of the rest of Europe; third, those of the East. As this second part gives the decorators' names and some other items not included in the first, it is much the longer.

Mrs. Bury-Palliser's book is arranged according to a single classification, and not like a dictionary at all. First come the marks of Majolica, and occupy nearly a quarter of the book—as, indeed, they should, for the marks of the Italian potteries of the Renaissance are very significant, well understood, not often imitated, and carry authenticity with them. Second in order comes the other earthenware of European factories, but not including England. Third, a short and unarranged list of Chinese and Japanese marks, and finally all those of English factories, together. The marks themselves are given on a larger scale than in the Hooper and Phillips book, and very carefully and neatly engraved; the whole left-hand page is devoted to them, and the opposite page to their elucidation. An index, at the end of the volume, gives some aid in using it, but this index fails to give or to make accessible the information contained in Messrs Hooper and Phillips' first part. If, for instance, one finds a *trident* or a *star* of some sort painted in blue under the glaze on the bottom of a saucer, that *first part* enables him readily to find it, or to be sure that it is not included in the book. But with Mrs. Bury-Palliser's volume the student can only run his finger up one page and down the next until he has found or despaired of finding the indication sought. This index does not help except to find names of factories and the like, and is incomplete even for that.

The work of Ris-Paquot is the reverse of the last named, and is in itself an index, like the first part of Messrs. Hooper & Phillips' book. It has the distinction of giving all the marks in their original colors—red, buff, blue, orange, violet, or black—the impressed marks being given in black. The European marks, composed of letters, come first, arranged alphabetically; then the European marks composed, or partly composed, of numerals, such as dates; thirdly, symbolical or figurative marks, which can only be described (but of European wares only); and, fourthly, the Oriental marks, together. This book seems to be the largest of the three, giving apparently many more marks than either of the others. But with perfect frankness and naïveté the author leaves untranslated and unexplained just as many of his marks as he is in the dark about; he misspells his German and English names quite *à la française*, and no doubt put his book together with swift dexterity, but without revision,

* 'A Manual of Marks on Pottery and Porcelain: a Dictionary of Easy Reference. By W. H. Hooper and W. C. Phillips.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1876. Square 16mo, pp. viii.–238.

'The China Collector's Pocket-Companion. By Mrs. Bury-Palliser.' Third edition. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Low & Searle. 1875. Small 8vo, pp. 162.

'Nouveau Dictionnaire des Marques et Monogrammes des Faiences, Poteries, Grès, Terre de Pipe, Terre Cuite, Porcelaines, etc., Anciennes et Modernes, Reproduites avec leurs Couleurs Naturelles, 2,700 Marques, par Ris-Paquot.' Paris: Eugène Delaroque. 1873. Small 8vo, pp. xviii.–234.

'Majolica and Fayence: Italian, Sicilian, Majorcan, Hispano-Moresque, and Persian. By Arthur Beckwith. With Photo-engraved Illustrations.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 185.

'Pottery and Porcelain, from Early Times down to the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876. By Charles Wyllys Elliott. With 165 Illustrations, and the more important Marks and Monograms.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1877. Square 8vo, pp. 358.

'Pottery and Porcelain of All Times and Nations, with Tables of Factory and Artists' Marks for the use of Collectors. By William C. Prime, LL D.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1877. 8vo, pp. 531, and about 300 Illustrations.

This leaving unexplained the marks he did not understand is not wholly reprehensible: it is a better course than to give apparently clear meanings which have no authority, and, moreover, it is what all the compilers have to do with the Oriental marks in general.

But of the three books we have been describing no one approaches completeness. Indeed, neither Chaffers' big octavo, devoted to the subject, nor the lists given in Jacquemart, or Marryatt, or Ris-Paquot's larger work, nor the new books of this year, which we have to mention below, come any where near giving all the marks one finds. No possessor of a dozen bits of china but finds one or more of them marked with a stamp or a painted cipher which none of our authors has heard of. And, as for the Oriental pieces, the translations of the inscriptions are often very doubtful, the significance given to the emblems is generally misunderstood, and no person but an Oriental scholar has any sure means of knowing how to judge or to separate right from wrong, certainty from guesses. These compilers follow one another, as is natural, so that it is no confirmation to find that they agree in any case. It may not be a very important matter, for, after all the fuss made about marks, they are but of partial utility; but if it is of moment enough to engage the attention of a born compiler and index-maker, we shall yet have a book of marks and monograms, dates and ciphers, which will be the slow work of years of observation and comparison, with the aid of scholars of the West and of the East.

Mr. Beckwith's book is different in character from those we have described. It also has been too long on our table, as it was issued soon after the closing of the Exhibition of 1876. It gives but little space to marks and monograms, and is rather concerned with the manufacture of pottery, and with the æsthetic considerations which should have weight in its decoration. The immediate cause of its existence seems to be the presence in this country of the Castellani collection of Majolica. By far the greater number of the illustrations are drawn from that splendid collection: they are photo-lithographic fac-similes of the author's sketches, and have much of that ugliness of aspect which the photo-lithographic process, as practised in this country, generally carries with it. But it would seem that the drawings from which they are reduced must be of merit, for the expression of the original painting has been well preserved; the amount of error and inaccuracy (as no Majolica painting is scientifically accurate) is generally well given, neither exaggerated nor caricatured unendurably; and these slight studies have the merit denied, as we shall see, to more delicate-seeming work, of looking like flat decoration on pottery, instead of studies from nature and from solid objects. This praise, which we have to give, as if against the will, to these ugly prints, is but a feeble echo of what one has to say of the book, slight as it is, brief as it is, off-hand as is its discussion of the interesting topics introduced, peremptory as are its decisions. It is full of common sense and the result of close observation. The chapters entitled "Art" and "Propositions in Ornament" are naturally the places where the hostile critic lies in wait for his author, and looks to see him show his shallowness; for who can reason aright of art and of ornament? But Mr. Beckwith struggles bravely through even these Serbonian bogs of misconception, or rather he skips across them, seemingly unaware of their dangerous character. These chapters, like the rest of his book, are written hastily—too hastily; they seem like the work of a busy man setting down in the briefest words the conclusions arrived at long before. There is evidence in every paragraph that the writer has thought out his subject, and that the hasty writing is but his way of limiting his circle of readers, and leading the too hasty to conclude that the book has no value for him. Errors may be found, no doubt, for there is a great deal of historical statement given as briefly and off-hand as are the ethical and æsthetical discussions of the chapters named; and to give, in hasty memoranda, the latest discoveries and conclusions of the historical experts concerning Sicily and the Moors, Persia and the Oriental influence in Italy, is to invite minor errors of all sorts. But an ordinary reader may be willing to take the errors with the information, spending no time in separating the few tares from the excellent grain. This author, of whose work we know no other specimen, would seem to be so well prepared for the discussion of these subjects that even a full and elaborate work by him might fulfil the promise of this casual monograph.

Mr. Elliott's book is chiefly made up of articles from Appletons' *Art Journal*. Frequent reference is made to the Exhibition of 1876, and that great show seems to have suggested the production of the volume. It is agreeable reading; it is chatty and discursive; it deals with opinions and impressions, and moralizes in the American fashion over decorative art; so that it is quite fit for reading aloud to ladies, and would do for summer-time. Things which the author is not quite sure of, he frankly confesses he doesn't understand; naïvely, and as if in a private letter, he tells the reader where he has seen the only piece he knows, of this or that make; what is unexplained as yet he "gives up" with a pleasant frankness, adding his suggestions of what may be the truth about them. The book may well make an impression upon those readers whom it is hard to catch and hold long enough for their own proper understanding of more methodical works. The many illustrations in this book are those to which we made allusion above, in speaking of Mr. Beckwith's sketchy drawings. These Elliott woodcuts are smooth and finished, but they do not give the idea of flat decoration on pottery. A plate with a fish painted on it is made to look as if it were a deep bowl, with the fish swimming in it; the vase, No. 106, must be actually of porcelain, with painted dragons, but it looks like glass, with the dragons swimming about inside, like goldfish in a "globe." This is an important fault, and one which is wonderfully well avoided by the best French book-illustrators, to whom, and especially their chief, Jules Jacquemart, both as etcher and draughtsman for wood blocks, these American beginners ought to go for models of perfect work.

Mr. Prime's book is a complete history, in brief, of the art of the potter. Its material is frankly taken from the most recent European books, partly from one, partly from another, and especially, we think, from Albert Jacquemart's 'Histoire de la Céramique'; but this is, of course, quite inevitable, and no writer can ignore, or even fail to copy freely from, such writers as Mr. Fortnum on Majolica and its congeners, M. Tillon and M. Pottier on the varieties of French faience, and M. Jacquemart on porcelain. There is much original matter besides, and a good deal of the book which no other man perhaps could have written. The chapters on American pottery are, of course, almost wholly new. The Peruvian, Aztec, and unknown early wares are treated for the first time with method, though too briefly, and the modern factories of the United States are named and described. For the first time the Cesnola collection from Cyprus has affected the discussion of the ancient pottery of the Levant and of Greece. For the first time, we think, the many mysteries which remain unsolved have received something like their due recognition. Mr. Prime is well known as the master of the largest and most nearly complete of all American collections of ceramic ware—a collection which, whatever *lacunæ* remain in it, would be of moment in any community. This collection he has worked at for years, enlarging it in every direction (though apparently leaving to others to complete the study of the art of China and Japan), and enjoying especial opportunities and especial good fortune in some of the outlying departments. Hard buying and a bottomless purse will suffice to deal with Sèvres and Dresden porcelain, with Rouen and Delft pottery, and with the English wares; but for Rhodian and Persian tiles and platters, for porcelain of unknown origin found in the Levant, for Arabic and Moorish modern pottery, and for the pots and pans of Peru and Arizona there must be paid a different price. Personal attention and a large acquaintance, travel far and wide, and ceaseless observation, these, with good luck, go to make up the outfit of the great collector, and money without them is powerless, or at least can only act by purchasing the services of those who will act vicariously, with intelligence and zeal—services hard to come by. This book is embellished by anecdotes of Mr. Prime's own adventures in Europe and in Palestine in search of the ever-new object of chase. The pieces especially named as the results of such investigations we recognize as having been exhibited at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, and indeed the Trumbull-Prime collection generally has been so freely loaned and so freely shown to all, that one writes of it as if public property. Cases full of choice specimens selected by the owner himself are now included in the Loan Exhibition of the Society of Decorative Art.

This book has, therefore, the strong recommendation to Americans of being written by an American student and active collector. It does not require argument to show how good it is for our countrymen to have an authoritative book which is written from their own stand-point, so to speak. There is also much that is directly addressed to American collectors, and the final chapter, with its anecdotes about our maleficent custom-house, with the rulings and decisions that determine its action, and the author's appeals to common sense against our monstrous tariffs, is peculiarly apropos. We have no space left in which to review fairly those parts of the book which seem to us most worthy of attention, nor to speak of its index and bibliography (in which there are strange omissions, we think), nor to remark upon the numerous wood-cuts. There is no doubt that a second edition will very shortly afford fresh opportunity to discuss the book.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.—III.*

WE are a little puzzled to know for what class of readers 'The Magic Valley' is intended. It is rather "mixed" for students of comparative mythology, boys addicted to base-ball would hardly care for it, and it would be cruel to give it to readers of less robust nerves. It is a fairy tale—but the fairies are Provençal: Lutins, Dracs, and Fadas, uncomfortable and unaccountable creatures, river monsters who seize unwary little girls, and who summon hill-spirits and fiends of the air to help them, with human malignity and superhuman power, and who make a grewsome world in spite of orange-trees and jasmine, grapes and pomegranates. If the book could be written over, leaving out about half, and working the other half into harmony and coherence—fairy coherence—then the fresh dramatis personæ and the unhackneyed *mise en scène* would be very attractive.

'The Prince of Argolis' seems like (though the publishers assure us it is not) an attempt to make a child's story out of a part of the adventures of Theseus, especially his journey to Athens and recognition by Ægeus. It is difficult to spoil these legends, and the book is not wholly devoid of cleverness, but it is like a copy of a familiar picture where every figure is a little out of drawing; you receive some pleasure from association, but none from workmanship. We are at a loss to see the advantage to American readers of any age in representing the reply of the Delphic Oracle as given in vulgar doggerel ending with "High diddle diddle," or in the chief of the Pallantidæ bidding Ægeus "tr-r-r-emble" *à la* Micawber. To vulgarize in order to familiarize is easy, but the educating power of story or history is lost thereby. The book is profusely illustrated and showily bound.

The 'Flossy and Bossy Stories' has "for girls" stamped upon the cover, just as 'Helen's Babies' might be dedicated to the reading of boys only, on account of the sex of the heroines and heroes respectively. Children may and do take delight in these chronicles, but can certainly be better employed over something else. Flossy and Bossy's amusing mishaps are described with much cleverness, and without exaggeration, and without reference to a plot of any kind. The talk of all the characters, both young and old, is well managed, and we should judge the writer capable of a higher effort.

A cook-book with a sequel is an unquestionable novelty, but our readers may remember that 'Six Little Cooks' dealt almost exclusively with the lighter products of the kitchen, such as rolls, cakes, pastry, jellies, etc. Evidently this was a one-sided training for the future American mistress, and breakfast and dinner still loomed up portentously with their soups, meats, vegetables, and made-dishes. With a versatility that does her great credit, the author invents an emergency which places Miss Dora in her absent mother's place for several months, and then her aunt steps in and guides her through a labyrinth of raw and incompetent and fugitive "help," and lends her that inexhaustible receipt-book which the "Six Little Cooks" were allowed to draw from so freely. The story does not flag either, and is enlivened with some good character-sketching. The housewifely advice is sound, sensible, and civilized. We cordially recommend these two books as containing almost the whole gospel of domestic economy, and really calculated to instruct young housekeepers in the best principles and practice.

The good and rather rare qualities of the author of 'Long Ago' reappear in its sequel, 'The Cedars,' so that children who have read the earlier instalment will not be disappointed by the present. The story continues to be autobiographical, and evidently from actual experience, and if it has become somewhat more romantic we suppose this is due not to conscious embellishment on the part of "Ellis Gray," but to the increased age of her youthful characters. Ellie is now twelve and at boarding-school, while Dick is within a year of entering Harvard—say sixteen. It is one thing to reproduce the ways and thoughts and talk of the nursery, and another to catch the likeness of the less interesting teens. We can recall plenty of failures in this more arduous task, and we give our author the benefit of a doubt when we say that we think she has not failed, even if her success is not remarkable. Her highest praise consists, we apprehend, in the fidelity of her descriptions and suggestions of Boston and suburban life a quarter of a century ago.

The second volume of Mr. Abbott's "Long Look" series carries the Merrill family past the cares of housebuilding into those of grading and laying out the grounds, fencing, tree-planting, setting up of rustic seats and arbors (if we may so describe the shelter over the sand-pit called "The Crow's Nest"), stile-building, and open-air Sunday-school mission work. The scene of the story being Cambridge, and the time the period of the "epizootic," we were prepared to have the Boston fire brought in, as there must have been a fine view of it from Long Look. But Mr. Abbott steadily holds to his purpose to avoid the sensational, and not to excite the imagination of his listeners, and so keeps them multiplying 200 feet by 200, and ciphering out the loss in taking a carriage to reach a nursery in one direction instead of the horse-cars in another; tries their recollection of what *permeable* and *impervious* mean; points out the moral lesson of the "scuffler"; and is, in short, as realistic as the worst enemy of fiction could desire. While this volume appears to be an improvement on its predecessor, it only confirms our doubt whether Mr. Abbott is a born story-teller.

The new edition of Charles and Mary Lamb's 'Poetry for Children' has a two-fold attractiveness. The singular disappearance of the original edition of 1812, of which a copy was only discovered this year, and in Australia, makes the work a literary curiosity; and it still has power to instruct youthful readers, even if its power to interest has by change of fashion and of diction been somewhat diminished. Perhaps its authors intended it to be read aloud, and judicious parents will doubtless find this the best way still, since it makes selection easy and permits the harder words to be explained. Mr. Shepherd's bibliographical preface gives an account of all Charles and Mary Lamb's writings for children, with special fulness of detail concerning the composition and rediscovery of the present work. We perceive that the *Nation* was instrumental in bringing to light copies of an American reprint not heretofore suspected to exist and almost as rare as the original publication. On the question of the divided authorship some light is to be found in Lamb's other works, and a few pieces can be assigned with certainty; the sister wrote by far the greater number. Mr. Shepherd undertakes to indicate Lamb's unacknowledged pieces, though without stating his criterion. For the most part we agree with him, though we should be disposed to ascribe to Lamb also "Going into Breeches"—both from its easy versification and from the very subject, as one to be "picked out by an old bachelor," to quote Lamb's words; and "Cleanliness," which has all the swing of the "Farewell to Tobacco." Mr. Shepherd ascribes freely to Mary Lamb pieces containing such objectionable rhymes as "sex" and "protects," "withdrawn" and "forlorn," "Anna" and "manner," etc., which he "cannot imagine" the brother making; yet he allows him to have written "Choosing a Name" (p. 9), in which these rhymes occur:

> "Now I wonder what would please her,
> Charlotte, Julia, or Louisa.
> . . . . .
> They would say if 't was Rebecca,
> That she was a little Quaker;"

and in the undisputed "Three Friends" we meet with—

> "If the first excelled in feature,
> The other's grace and ease were greater"

—which even Hosea Biglow's "one pecooler feetur" can hardly make tolerable. So Mr. Shepherd ought to feel doubly ashamed of the offence of which he confesses himself guilty in a previous edition of some of these poems, in substituting half a verse of his own in order to correct the faulty rhyme. The best test of authorship lies, we believe, in Charles Lamb's finer humor combined with greater skill in versifying. The humor of "Two Boys," for instance, is worthy of him, but it is clumsy of execution. How neat, on the other hand, is "Choosing a Profession," in which the little Creole preparing for Westminster under a wise mistress—

> "For nature's kindly bent she held not vain"—

comes to her one day,

> "Joy sparkling in his eyes; and said, the same
> Trade he would be those boys of color were
> Who danced so happy in the open air.
> It was a troop of chimney-sweeping boys,
> With wooden music and obstreperous noise,
> In tarnished finery and grotesque array,
> Were dancing in the street the first of May."

This absurd conclusion, almost to be thought a satire on the doctrine so

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* 'The Magic Valley; or Patient Antoine. By E. Keary.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.

'The Prince of Argolis. Illustrated by J. Moyr Smith' New York: Henry Holt & Co

'Flossy and Bossy Stories. By Margaret H. Eckerson.' Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 1877.

'Dora's Housekeeping. By the author of 'Six Little Cooks.'' Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1877.

'The Cedars: More of Child Life. By Ellis Gray, author of 'Long Ago.'' Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1877.

'Out-Doors at Long Look. By Edward Abbott.' With illustrations. Boston: Noyes, Snow & Co. 1877.

'Poetry for Children. By Charles and Mary Lamb. To which are added Prince Dorus, and some uncollected poems, by Charles Lamb. Edited, prefaced, and annotated by Richard Herne Shepherd.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.

well expressed in the line first quoted, was quite beyond Mary Lamb, to whom the severer moralizing and the more gloomy topics alike came natural. So we doubt if the "First of April," conceding it to be Lamb's, would do much to convince boys of the sinfulness of April-fooling. As for the excellent fable of "The Men and Women and the Monkeys," it deserves a place in any Darwinian First Reader. The fairy extravaganza of "Prince Dorus," appended to this reprint, will tickle old and young alike. Lamb's uncollected poems are not striking.

A Compendious German and English Dictionary, with notation of correspondences and brief etymologies, by Wm. D. Whitney, assisted by A. H. Edgren. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877.)—Very little, as it seems to us, could be said in dispraise of such a work as this, except that we might wish it to have been larger, and to have afforded the linguistic student a still more comprehensive manual of the German language. As it is, the size is convenient, and a somewhat cursory examination leaves the impression that of genuine and current classical words it contains more than most of our ordinary school dictionaries, and that, in connection with a grammar and a text-book, it will afford sufficient help for acquiring an extensive and accurate knowledge of German. Its characteristic features are so prominent that they cannot fail to attract the attention of the most superficial examiner. The plan is clear and simple. There is no introduction of useless matter. The authors seem to conceal rather than to display the linguistic scholarship of which the work gives abundant evidence. The vocabulary is carefully selected. Many purely scientific words have been omitted, and wisely, we think, for none of the general dictionaries, not even so elaborate a work as Lucas's, contains all the scientific terms, and specialists will, therefore, find the use of a *Technologisches Wörterbuch* to be of considerable advantage. But for the reading of general literature, particularly for the works of Goethe and Schiller, Prof. Whitney's dictionary will be decidedly valuable and amply sufficient.

Words like *ent-*, *ver-*, *zer-*, *-bar*, *-lingen*, *-stahl*, *-thum*, *-wart*, *-würfig*, etc., which, for the most part, are found only in compounds, have been inserted and explained in their alphabetical order—a feature which cannot but be acceptable to teachers and the more advanced students. The selection of the English equivalents is good. The words are so arranged that they tell their own history and show the gradual development from one signification to another; as, Ger. *Plan*=Eng. "PLANE; PLAIN, grass-plot; PLAN, project, design, scheme, plot." Ger. *Zettel*=Eng. "bit of paper (serving as a notice *or* token), billet, bill, note, card, ticket, label, placard, playbill." This dictionary does not always give quite as many definitions under a word as, *e.g*, Köhler's dictionary. Sometimes a paraphrase is used where a single word in addition might have been desirable, as, Ger. *Oberlehnsherrschaft*=Eng. "right of the lord paramount, sovereign jurisdiction." Here the word "suzerainty" might have facilitated translation. So, also, under *Erbgut*="hereditary property, patrimonial estate, heirloom," the word "patrimony" might have taken the place of the second definition. But such instances are by no means frequent. In general, both a definition and several equivalent single words will be found.

The etymologies are masterpieces of brevity, and at the same time of scholarly accuracy. There seems to be no *ipse dixit;* for wherever the derivation is unknown, or obscure and not generally accepted, it is either left undesignated or carefully marked as "probable." This not only gives a favorable impression of Prof. Whitney's conscientious cautiousness and abstinence from dogmatizing, but will also tend to arouse curiosity and stimulate investigation in the learner himself. The etymological value of the work is, moreover, greatly increased by the ingenious way in which it is printed. Prof. Whitney's mode of marking words of kindred derivation or formation, so as to make them conspicuous and noticeable at first sight, is, in our judgment, a happy one, which lexicographers would do well to consider. Yet the word-formation designated by small capitals is not unfrequently carried a little beyond the strictest analogy. The brief etymological notices at the end of certain words are, as stated in the preface, intended to supplement each other in the two parts of which the work consists. Thus, in the Ger.-Eng. part we find, *e.g.* under *Zettel*, "from Lat. *schedula* (Eng. SCHEDULE)"; and then, in the Eng.-Ger. part, under SCHEDULE, "from Lat. *schedula* (diminutive of *scheda*, 'strip of paper')." Under *Kauf* we have "Anglo-Saxon *ceáp*, akin with CHEAP"; and then again under CHEAP, "abbreviation of *good cheap* (Germ. *Kauf*), 'good bargain'"; and so on under many other words. This is all that most students will require, and one more inquisitive will find that he can, with comparative ease and advantage, take up some more elaborate work on German or English derivation when he has mastered the contents of this volume.

In giving our praise to Prof. Whitney we should not forget his assistant, Dr. Edgren, who, as is well known, has had the lion's share of the detail work, and to whose ability and fidelity in carrying out the plan of Prof. Whitney the book owes, no doubt, in a large degree its merits.

**** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Price.*
Allison (J.), David Kent's Ambition	(Cong. Pub. Soc.) $1 00
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1877.

The Week.

THERE has probably not been such a Christmas, as regards weather, within the memory of the oldest inhabitant in this part of the country, and the present buying capacity of the public seems, in spite of the hard times, to have undergone no abatement. Moreover, it looks as if the close of the year left business in a better condition than most of us feared or were led to expect. If it were not for the cloud in the financial sky created by the silver agitation and the approaching reassembling of Congress, the new year would open with a considerable degree of hopefulness; and it is not so much the chance that the silver-men may succeed which is depressing as the state of mind on financial matters revealed by their performances, which are on the whole so dishonest, and barbarous and moblike that it seems as if it would put the whole machinery of civilization in peril were it to grow. That the alarm excited by it thus far, although it is undoubtedly serious in Europe, is not very deep-seated here is, we think, proved by the steadiness of gold. We think we may say, too, with great confidence that the agitators are not likely to be able to secure a two-thirds vote for their scheme in the Senate, and will almost certainly not secure it in the House. We may add that there is a widespread and growing desire and hope that as soon as we get back to specie payments the regular Christmas article in the newspapers, on the true meaning of the festival and the spiritual condition of their readers, and the advantages of peace and good will on earth, will disappear. It is now so unctuous and perfunctory, and comes in some cases from such queer pulpits, that people have come to associate it with the era of inflation and corruption, and look forward to being rid of it after 1879, and having something sincere and simple in its place.

Mr. Evarts's speech was the principal feature at the last dinner of the New England Society, and showed that the cares of office had done no damage to his wit, which flowed as freely and was as laughter-compelling as ever. The interest of the speech, however, lay in the serious part, where he touched on politics, especially on the question of civil-service reform. Here the audience undoubtedly expected something definite, but got nothing. Mr. Evarts said that, as regards that, "there should be no step backward"; that "magistrates, statesmen, preachers, teachers, editors, and the people" should "go on," and that it is for the people to say whether or no "the paths of public life shall be clean and bright and noble," and "ever tending upward." This suggests the inference that the difficulties in the way of civil-service reform come from the people, and perhaps it is true that one of these difficulties is popular apathy. But it is nevertheless not to be forgotten that a convention, elected by the people, last year at Cincinnati drew up and adopted a platform containing the principles of civil-service reform clearly set forth; that on this platform a candidate was nominated who gave in his adhesion to these principles in language which was almost needlessly emphatic; and that he was thereupon elected and put into office. What more can the people do? They have said distinctly that they wish public life to be "clean and bright and noble," and that they wish the President and his Cabinet to "tend ever upward"; but it is not their business to go to Washington and see that their wishes are carried out.

We do not desire in this matter to lay too heavy a burden of responsibility on the Administration, and are familiar with the fact to which attention is so often called, that the President and his Cabinet perforce are, after all, men, and not angels. But it may be proper to say, in view of all that has occurred, and in view of the fact that the President is about to send in a message about civil-service reform when Congress meets, and probably, we are told, will once more recommend the adoption of the old Curtis-Medill scheme, that the limits of the President's duties and of that of Congress are not only as plain as possible, but are perfectly well known. Undoubtedly there cannot be systematic reform of the civil service without Congressional legislation; but the President can, by his nominations and removals, give the public an illustration of what the civil service ought to be, keep the popular attention fixed on it, make its practicability visible, and prove his own faith in it. These are most important duties, and they remain imperative, whatever Congress may do or leave undone. Therefore we must not be, and we feel confident that we shall not be, treated to a repetition of the Grant plan —of one year of mingled reform and abuse, followed by an appeal to Congress to take charge of the whole business, and, failing that, an alliance between the Executive and Congress for the perpetration of all kinds of civil-service corruption and disorder.

The *Tribune*, whose change of front with regard to the South and the Administration and the civil service, is exciting increasing attention, had last week a solemn appeal to the President "to do one thing at a time"—that is, to devote his energies to restoring "harmony" in the party for the defence of the public credit, and to let civil-service reform alone for the present. This, of course, means, being interpreted, that he should let Senator Conkling have his way about the offices. It will occur to most intelligent people, however, that this advice should be given to Mr. Conkling, and is adapted to him only. The President has said his say about the public credit, and is pledged to do whatever may be necessary, although the matter has not yet come within his reach. Conkling, on the other hand, although the public credit is now in his hands as a legislator, has apparently given no thought or attention to it, and is not occupied with it. He represents a State which more than any other in the Union is interested in the currency, and its Senator ought to lead in all discussions on the currency. He, however, has not yet had a word to say on the silver question, and is busied in endeavoring to seize a share of the President's nominating and removing power. We suggest, therefore, that he should now devote himself to his own work, "do one thing at a time," "restore harmony" by letting the Custom-house alone, and bring his powerful mind to bear on the attempt now pending to lower the national standard of value. This is essentially the business of a New York Senator, and the chief business at this juncture. The subject will not interest the powerful mind probably half as much as huggermuggering with Messrs. Arthur and Dutcher about offices; but then even Senators have to do some drudgery now and then.

President Eliot did the public a service at the New England dinner, in the midst of the general tameness of the speaking, by the utterance of some plain truths about the scheme recommended by the President in his late message, of establishing a "national university" in Washington. This was probably the only surprising passage in the message, and the origin of it has caused a good deal of speculation. The plan is one which has now been on foot for some years, but has certainly not been helped by the discussion it has received, and the President ought to have some better adviser or inspirer on the subject, if he has not given it full consideration himself, than the present head of the Bureau of Education. The experience of every year shows more and more clearly the danger of having any portion of the more delicate machinery of government within the immediate reach and control of Congress. The recovery of the country from the losses of the war is now and has long been retarded by the deplorable fact that Congress has got hold of the currency; and the history of West Point, and of the Army and Navy, contains abundant illustration of the unfitness of that body to do the work

of immediate supervision, which it so jealously claims, over everything for which it votes money. A national university set up by it now would rapidly become a national shame and scandal, and would probably soon be the pet, or the *bête noire*, of some of the most ignorant and uncivilized members of both Houses. When a man like Mr. Stanley Matthews asks, in discussing coinage in the Senate, "What is 'abroad' to us?" the friends of the higher education cannot be too shy of letting the Government start colleges. Many Senators and Representatives seem to be working their way towards the mental outlook of Sitting Bull and Chief Joseph, who doubtless often ask Mr. Matthews's question with much bitterness of soul.

General Butler has, after long silence, unbosomed himself at a dinner of his friends and admirers in Boston, in a speech composed of the usual materials, and interesting as containing the creed of the average Republican office-holder and office-seeker of the day. He prophesied with great gusto the passage of the Bland Silver Bill over the President's veto within sixty days, and referred with satisfaction to his doctrine that prior to the passage of the Act of 1869 the United States bonds were payable in greenbacks, and evidently thought payment in silver the next best thing. He explained his recent silence by saying that the President had told him last spring that he thought he could build up a Republican party at the South, and he had been watching the experiment, which, of course, he considered a total failure. Civil-service reform, he said, he did not understand, and never heard it mentioned at Washington by Congressmen except as "a butt for a joke," and thought the President had now abandoned that plank in his platform. He was very hopeful about the Republican party in 1880, however, and thought it would then be as "victorious" as possible. Among his auditors were Messrs. Simmons and Boutwell, both Government officers by the sufferance or appointment of the President; and both, we have no doubt, agreed with and enjoyed every word Butler said, except perhaps his views on silver. In fact, Mr. Boutwell, we believe, makes no secret of his thorough sympathy with Conkling and of his contempt for civil-service reform and reformers, and weight is given to his naturally feeble criticisms by his having been made a sort of codifier of the United States statutes after a career of great mischief under General Grant.

We find this in the Chicago *Tribune:*

"Having for nearly a year denied the secrecy of the demonetization job, the *Nation* now confesses it, saying that it was not necessary to let the public know anything about it at the time it took place."

The untruthful assertions of the *Tribune* about the facts of the silver question have been tolerably shocking during the past year, and have furnished the main portion of the support it has given to the craze, but no other paper could spare the space or time to follow them up. The above reference to the *Nation*, however, calls for sufficient attention from us to say that it is wholly and ingeniously false. It contains two propositions each of which could only be properly characterized by the late lamented Greeley. We have no doubt whatever that the editors of both the *Tribune* and the Cincinnati *Commercial* will live to be ashamed of the part they are taking in this wretched agitation, but they ought to make their mischievous activity as decent as possible.

The South Carolina Legislature adjourned last week for the holidays, one of its last acts being the ratification, by a two-thirds vote, of a constitutional amendment providing for an annual tax on polls for educational purposes exclusively. The fact that there is no longer any Republican party in South Carolina appears, therefore, to be of less consequence than those who denounce the President's "policy" would have led us to suppose. Kukluxing and massacres have ceased; the negroes vote without molestation at the polls and convict white men from the jury-box; the colored militia companies are reviewed by the State authorities, complimented, and reorganized for their greater efficiency; and, finally, a measure introduced by the carpet-bag government which had squandered and plundered the school-fund for a dozen years, is taken up and made part of the Constitution, and it only remains to deal justly with the State's creditors to complete the picture of ruin so often painted for us by Republican Senators in Congress. None of these things could have been achieved under the Chamberlain or any similar régime, except the passage of the constitutional amendment; and that would have lacked the essential element of good faith, viz., the intention to administer the school-tax honestly after it had been levied. It is needless to add that the conviction of Republican thieves like Cardoza and Smalls could never have occurred with Elliott for attorney-general. The Legislature's work in this direction is not yet complete. The Senate resolution for still further investigation of Patterson was captured for the Committee on Federal Relations, through the influence, it is said, of Senator M. C. Butler, who, for reasons not connected with the "policy," is disposed to leave Patterson in peace. Butler's competitor, however, D. T. Corbin, was honored with a special committee of investigation, who will enquire whether in his efforts to reach the Senate he was guilty of bribing members of the General Assembly.

The assault of the Excise Commissioners on the liquor-dealers in this city, to which we have already referred, has had an almost ludicrous termination, but one very characteristic of our city government. After a very large sum had been received from the alarmed dealers for licenses, or in anticipation of licenses, it was deposited in bank in the name of one of the Commissioners, named Owen Murphy, and he, feeling in need of funds, drew out $50,000 of it on Saturday last and absconded. Not only was the money deposited to his sole order as Treasurer of the Board, but he had given no bonds. Murphy, too, was a retired Irish plumber, who was supposed to be well off, but was a "good fellow," jolly and careless in his ways, fond of gambling, with little or no education, and had risen into prominence during the Ring period through the usual gradations of ward politics, beginning, of course, as a volunteer fireman. The other Commissioners are now trying to believe that they are not personally liable for the amount of the defalcation, but it is to be hoped they are mistaken. As has been often remarked, there is nothing more curious in the government of this city than the kind of men who carry it on, and the way in which they are prepared for their arduous duties. Never before in the world's history was the administrative class drawn from such a social stratum as furnishes our officers, and in saying this it is its moral and mental characteristics we have in mind, not its pecuniary means. Murphy was a kind of man whose admission to any place of trust or emolument was forbidden by all human experience.

Dr. Lambert, the President of the "American Popular Life Insurance Co.," has been convicted of perjury in making false returns as to the condition of the company, and is now in the Tombs, following Mr. Case, the President of the "Security," convicted of a similar offence. Case being older was probably less to blame than Lambert, but both can plead the vicious system on which most of the more recently established companies have been founded, in palliation of their offence, for it is a system of which the public has had full knowledge. We mean the system of getting up companies not so much to do a legitimate business as to provide places for a president or secretary who is unable to find an opening elsewhere or has failed in some other calling. Officers who are put in in this way cannot in the nature of things be expected to be very vigilant or efficient, and are sure to be in the hands of somebody else, who is the real manager and prepares the returns and affidavits. It will doubtless do good to have the danger of taking oaths on trust brought home to officers of corporations, but the late offences are the natural product of the loose, good-natured, devil-may-care way of doing business which became common after the war.

British consols fell ⅛ of 1 per cent. during the week on account of the talk about England becoming involved in the war when the

time comes for a settlement of the Eastern Question. United States bonds declined ⅛ and ¼, but less on account of the general depression in the London market than because of the advices from this country respecting silver remonetization. The current of U. S. bonds as between New York and London still runs towards this city, and bills on London have advanced half a cent during the week. The Treasury will pay out nearly $24,000,000 on account of January interest, beginning on Wednesday. The large part of it which belongs to European holders would, except for the silver agitation, remain here. Silver itself was steady during the week at 53¾ to 54¼*d.* per oz. Gold fell from 103 to 102⅝, closing at 102¾, the Treasury disbursements of $24,000,000 being sufficient to weigh down the price and temporarily to neutralize the effect of the silver mania. The bullion necessary to make a 412½-grain silver dollar had a gold value at the close of the week of 90⅞ cents. The promise of the Government to pay one dollar (the U. S. legal-tender note) had a gold value at the close of about 97⅜ cents.

The excitement in England over the rapidly-approaching crisis in the Turco-Russian conflict grows deeper every day, and has been intensified by the settlement of the French imbroglio, which divided popular attention, and by the summoning of Parliament for the 17th of January instead of, as is usual, the middle of February. There are two leading conjectures as to the object of the Ministry in calling it together. One is, to pass an act of indemnity for warlike measures taken in advance; the other is, to take the responsibility off the shoulders of the Cabinet of deciding what ought to be done. This latter is rendered more probable by the fact that the Cabinet is unquestionably divided as to what the policy of England ought to be, Lord Derby and Lord Salisbury being in favor of letting Turkey shift for herself, and Lord Beaconsfield in favor of some sort of demonstration, he probably does not well know what, against Russia. In the meantime events are pressing on each other rapidly. The Turkish resistance is visibly relaxing, and the Russian demands are as visibly rising. It is more than probable that the Russian publication weekly of their losses up to date is a sort of butcher's bill, intended to give notice of the increase in their expectations. The pro-Turkish party are losing ground in England, owing to their inability to say what ought to be done, in view of the absence of an army and the inability of the fleet to get at the Russians. The small amount of influence the Turkish fleet has exerted on the war is, indeed, a sort of warning to England of her own powerlessness. The thing to which the mind of the bellicose party seems now to be turning, however, is the annexation of Egypt, and if Disraeli was younger he would perhaps seize it. But he is old and sick, and probably has not nerve enough for the job.

In the meantime there is no sign of relief from Germany. Bismarck is more outspoken than ever in his determination to let Russia have her way, and Austria seems hardly less backward. Moreover, Russia now appears to be determined to force Turkey to treat with her directly and to refuse all mediation, which again would be a serious blow to English diplomacy, and threatens positive humiliation. And yet for this as well as for the war itself English diplomacy only will be to blame, for the smallest pressure on the Turk after the Conference would have made him submit, and, as Mr. Gladstone has pointed out, a few ships of war in the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, to prevent the drawing of troops from Asia, would have prevented his fighting very long in any case. Even after Russia had finally decided on aggression, however, she offered Lord Derby a chance of keeping a hold on her, which would have given him the right to intervene at this juncture, by proposing to carry on the war as the agent of the Powers represented at the Conference, but this, too, was peremptorily rejected. The consequence now is that Russia has a complete answer to any offer of mediation or advice.

Everything in France seems to be moving on very smoothly. The new Ministers have stopped all the pending press prosecutions, and ordered the reinstatement of the municipal councils removed by M. Fourtou. The Left is now pressing for a restriction on the power of dissolution, and for the admission of the Legislature to a share in the right of proclaiming a state of siege, and, these obtained, it might safely be said that all cause for apprehension about 1880 would be removed. The late elections of Councils-General, moreover, show a Republican gain of forty-five councils against thirty-six formerly held. A little sensation has been produced by the cashiering of a captain of infantry, by the Marshal's decree, for having said, on Nov. 13, that he would not march to Paris to assist in a *coup d'état*, and it seems to be exciting suspicions among some of the Radicals that a *coup d'état* was really intended, and that some preparations had been made for it; and there is some talk of an enquiry about it, which would plainly be very unwise. Whether a *coup* was meditated or not, discipline requires that an officer who charged the President with intending it, and announced his intention to disobey orders in advance of receiving them, should be promptly punished, so that the captain's case is not one for prudent politicians to take notice of. Extensive changes are also being made among the prefects, Fourtou's most pliant tools being probably dismissed. The shortness of their reign and the promptness of their punishment will undoubtedly render the conduct of another canvass like the last more difficult than ever, even should the Marshal's mind be again "poisoned." The abuse heaped now by the clerical papers on the Duc de Broglie, which is very fierce and coarse, forms a somewhat comic termination to the famous crisis which will now be known in French politics as the "16 Mai." The restrictions put by Fourtou on the circulation of the newspapers through the colporteurs have also been removed.

A terrific snowstorm which prevailed in Rumania and Bulgaria in the early part of the week suddenly interrupted the movements of troops begun by the Russians after the capture of Plevna. Drifting ice on the Danube tore away the military bridge at Braila, which is a very severe blow to Zimmerman, in the Dobrudja. The effects of the storm in the Balkan regions are as yet unreported. A force under Skobeleff is stated to have entered Troyan, south of Lovatz. The position of Komartzi, in the mountains east of Sophia, is still held by the Turks, though the Russians seem to have been moving against that city further west. Suleiman Pasha has withdrawn his more advanced posts towards the quadrilateral, and gone to Adrianople by way of Constantinople, to superintend the preparations for a defensive campaign south of the Balkans. According to an indirect report, ten thousand of his troops came with him from Varna, and others were expected to join him in Rumelia, by the mountain defiles. The Russians are reported to be preparing for the siege of Rustchuk, while the Rumanians and Servians are jointly to blockade Widdin. The troops which are to operate against Rustchuk have been placed under the command of General Todleben, to whose direction the successful issue of the siege of Plevna is attributed.

The Servians, a few days after crossing the frontier, occupied Fort Mramor, near Nissa, and Prokoplie, southwest of that town, unopposed, and after a stubborn engagement destroyed the Tchetchina bridge of the Bulgarian Morava, cutting the communications between Nissa and Leskovatz. On December 24, after eight hours' severe fighting, they captured Ak-Palanka, between Nissa and Pirot, and began the bombardment of Nissa. A severe Servian repulse elsewhere is reported from the Turkish side. The Montenegrins have been checked in their operations against Antivari and Scutari by the successful advance of Turkish troops from Podgoritza. Half of the fresh Egyptian contingent, consisting in great part of Nubians, sailed from Alexandria on December 24, as rumor had it for Crete, where the insurrectionary movement is said to be assuming threatening proportions. In Armenia the Russians, under General Komaroff, on the 17th, stormed Ardanutch, a small fortified post west-southwest of Ardahan, near the line of communication between Batum and Erzerum. The latter city is reported to be almost invested, the Russian infantry being massed north and east of it, and the cavalry roaming through the surrounding plain.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE AND THE PUBLIC CREDIT.

THERE is one mode of testing the real character of the agitation in favor of the remonetization of silver which we believe to be perfectly accurate, but the result of which would be very disheartening. We mean proposing to the advocates of the measure that silver should be legal tender at its bullion price in gold. This would meet completely the argument that it was unwise to throw out of use as money one of the principal products of the country, and also the argument that there was not gold enough in the world to do the work of exchange. Nevertheless it has never been suggested by the "silver-men," and we feel quite sure would meet with no acceptance among them. The reason is, in our opinion, that this arrangement would offer no opportunity to anybody of getting the better of his creditors—or, in other words, would want the flavor of fraud which gives the remonetization scheme most of its attractiveness. We may add, too, that it was the absence of any tincture of fraud—or, if you please, of any opportunity of making anything out of anybody—which in part caused the demonetization of silver to attract so little attention. Those who suppose that the tuneful voices now raised at the West in favor of "the dollar of our fathers" would have been silent in 1873 if this dollar, instead of being worth three per cent. more than gold, had been worth three per cent. less, deceive themselves grossly about the honest "silver-man's" powers of observation. He lay silent during demonetization not because he was asleep, or "Ernest Lloyd" and the "money sharps" had drugged him, as he now pretends, but because he saw no profit in opposition. Had the bill seemed likely to take away from him the chance of even one per cent. of unpunishable swindle, he would have filled the air with his protests and lamentations.

This view of the case is made all the stronger by the threats with which the silver movement has during the last few weeks begun to be supported, of an attack on the whole fabric of the public credit in case the demands of the agitators are not complied with. This threat was first uttered in a manner to attract any attention by Mr. Bland, the author of the Silver Bill, and addressed to the deputation of merchants who went on from this city some weeks ago to oppose the measure before the Senate. He is a person, however, so wanting in knowledge and discretion, and, indeed, as his writings and speeches seem to show, so crackbrained, that, mortifying as it is to see an American Congress putting him on a quasi-scientific commission and allowing him to initiate legislation on so serious a matter as the currency, it would hardly do to treat his denunciation as a sign of danger to the national debt. But within a few weeks the threat has been resorted to very extensively as a means of backing up the silver movement, and plugging the holes which have been knocked in the case of the agitators during the course of the discussion. At the Western meetings and in many of the Western articles we are told, as a summing up of the whole case, that whether the demonetization was a fraudulent expedient or not makes no difference; that if "the people" are not allowed to pay the public debt in silver they will not pay it at all. At this point the political demagogue who professes to be on the side of honesty and good faith, steps in and says that nobody can see more clearly than he the error of the silver agitation; nobody is more desirous of seeing all the public obligations carried out, not in the letter only but in the spirit; but that, as a practical man, he cannot shut his eyes to the facts of the case The creditor has his rights, it is true, but so has the taxpayer, and both must be respected. It is pleasant for the creditor to receive, but it is unpleasant for the debtor to pay, and the debtor's feelings must be taken into account. At present, the debtor does not want to pay the entire debt; it would be disagreeable and hard for him to do so. A small discount, however, would satisfy him—say the ten per cent. which would be accorded him by taking payment in silver. True, this would not be a very reputable or wise thing, but then something worse is to be feared—viz., that if payment is not accepted in silver the whole debt will be repudiated; no one would regret this more than he (the Demagogue), but such is universal suffrage. When universal suffrage resolves on a thing, what is the use of opposing it? Universal suffrage owes all this money, and unless things are made entirely agreeable for it, it will not pay a cent. It is already breaking loose; he, with the assistance of a few friends, may be able to restrain it for a short period, but he will not answer for it very long, and if it once gets out of the enclosure it will not leave a creditor alive. It is, in fact, a many-headed beast, not immoral exactly, but unmoral, with which it is useless to argue, and which is to be managed sometimes by deceiving it but always by humoring it.

Now, this view is not new. It was presented to us on this very subject of the public credit in 1867, when the late Senator Morton and the present Mr. B. F. Butler began an agitation in favor of paying the bondholders in greenbacks. They used very much the same argument as the silver-men, viz., that the bondholders had taken advantage of the national distress; that the people were sorely burdened; that the bonds did not say in what species of currency they were to be paid; that it would therefore be "right" to pay them in lawful money of the United States, and that if we looked in the dictionary under the word "lawful," and under the word "money," we should find that lawful money meant greenbacks; that anyhow, no matter what it meant, the people would never consent to pay the bonds in coin, and that the bondholder had better make the best terms he could while compromise was still possible. At this point Senator Sherman stepped in and proposed a compromise, which was that the bondholder should convert his six per cent. bonds into five per cents., without the option of being paid off. He did not pretend that this was an equitable arrangement; but he knew it would be a prudent one. Universal suffrage was getting restive; its chain was beginning to give way, and if it once got loose, God help the poor bondholder; therefore he was the best friend of the bondholder who induced him, during the few hours that were left, to abate something of his demands.

We think it will not be denied by anybody that the United States presents just now in matters relating to pecuniary honesty a somewhat shocking spectacle; that in no commercial country, and at no period, have so many examples of fraud, both public and private, been crowded into so brief a space of time. States, counties, cities, and towns seem to be vieing with each other in repudiating obligations which they solemnly contracted, and by which they have substantially profited. We say nothing of the breakdown of corporate management, and the wide-spread disregard of the morals of the fiduciary relation in private life, of which there are so many revelations every day. We confine ourselves to what is going on in public life among public bodies. What we are witnessing here is but the natural result of the doctrine which has been covertly permeating politics now for half a century, and which public men now preach with the utmost brass, that men in a mass, or "the people," as it is called, are not necessarily moral, and need consult no law but their own will; that, in short, power in any particular case raises them above morality, and that it is no harm to cheat when you can cheat without legal punishment; that, in short, as Ben Butler tersely put it, a nation has no conscience. This doctrine is seldom preached directly, but it is preached indirectly with great effect, and receives abundance of encouragement from very good men. To no agency does it owe more of its strength and diffusion than to the growing practice of treating widespread desires or opinions as irresistible and not to be gainsaid. The people, of course, here, as in every other country, is liable to be deceived by fallacies, to have its judgment perverted or its conscience clouded by its self-interest, or what appears to be its self-interest, and to be carried away by gusts of passion. We have had many examples of this within the last twenty years. But the great use of a free press and of a body of men who have won popular confidence by long public service, and who are qualified by wide experience to take a clear and calm view of what constitutes the permanent public interest, is to furnish at such crises a ready means of bringing the people rapidly to its sober second thought and to furnish proper materials for that sober second thought. Now, it is no exaggeration to say that of late prominent men in public life have shown a greater and greater

reluctance to be used for any such purpose, and a greater and greater readiness to act as mere viziers of a despot, rather than as the ministers of a free state, and to treat even the wildest and hastiest popular cry as a final decision, and to occupy themselves with finding the means of its execution rather than with the work of procuring further enquiry or more mature consideration.

This tendency on the part of public men, again, is encouraged by the fact that no amount of tergiversation seems to forfeit the respect even of that portion of the community which professes to cultivate morals. A man like the late Mr. Morton, who for the last fifteen years of his life seemed to take pains to show that he had rid himself of convictions on all public questions, and was ready to advocate anything which was likely to have plenty of votes, found himself surrounded on his deathbed by sorrowing divines who represented his departure as in some sort a blow to the moral government of the world. The school of which he was a distinguished master grows apace, and grows owing to the tolerance and silence of honorable and thoughtful men; and the effects of this tolerance and silence on the popular conscience are bad and likely to be worse. The theory that universal suffrage is a brute without conscience, or scruple, or memory, or judgment, or anything but desires and will and power, with which it is useless to reason, is one which has always produced the lowest and most debased class of demagogues, and which, if carried far enough and practised long enough, would make free government impossible. It has found and is finding most dangerous expression in this silver agitation, and it is hardly possible to speak too severely of the complacent optimism which makes honest men at such a crisis so silent and hopeful. Resistance to the mania is left everywhere to a few newspapers. The bulk of those who see it in its true light, and hear their country described in terms which really represent it as a den of brigands, find sufficient vent for their indignation in fireside or street-car chat. This non-combativeness of the good is a sure preparation for some irreparable disaster. The world can neither be saved nor bettered by "harmony" or being "friendly all round." There is hardly a good thing in it that is not the result of successful strife; hardly a step upward in government which good men have not fought for and by which "sentiments" have not been "embittered." And we would warn those who are disposed to treat the silver movement as a mere question of finance the settlement of which may be left to experts, that it is supported in a spirit and by arguments which, if once fairly embedded in our politics, would make that portion of the next generation on which we are now bestowing our most careful moral and intellectual training, rightfully ashamed of their country.

OUR MEXICAN TROUBLES.

DURING the ten years since Marshal Bazaine embarked for his return voyage to France, and Maximilian was shot, nothing of a political character has occurred in or emanated from Mexico which has given or should occasion ill-feeling on the part of the Government or people of the United States. The successive Presidents, Benito Juarez, Lerdo de Tejada, and Porfirio Diaz, the last of whom seized the chief magistracy one year ago, and still holds it notwithstanding the plots of the Church party, were all liberals, and all have shown the utmost desire not only for peace but for the most friendly relations with this country. Whatever difficulties have occurred or may be impending are attributable wholly to the weakness of the central authority and the strength of the horse and cattle thieves, white, Indian, and mestizo, on the Rio Grande. These difficulties are of a very varied character owing to the diverse population and opportunities along the extensive border.

The present excitement arises from causes with no international significance and of small original importance even in the secluded locality concerned, El Paso County. Between the geographically Texan but intrinsically Mexican town of San Elizario, not far from the line of New Mexico, and the abandoned but to be restored Fort Quitman, lie extensive salt marshes which for all historic time have been common property, where all the farmers and rancheros on both sides of the river freely gathered all the salt they required. Lately some enterprising speculators took up the land from the State in the usual manner, and now charge a "royalty" of a dollar or some smaller sum per wagon-load. This has occasioned conflicts between the owners and the incensed and saltless people, some of whom come from the neighboring Mexican State of Chihuahua, but much the larger part are residents of San Elizario and vicinity on our side, the population there being to a large extent of Mexican birth, and having little regard either for the laws of the United States or any law whatever. There is nothing in this struggle between smart capitalists and stubborn squatters or poachers which might not occur in many thinly-populated parts of the United States, and it is to be settled in the usual way—by police, if strong enough, and if not, by the army. That the extent of the riot requires the aid of the regular army has no more to do with the so-called Mexican Question than did the strike of railroad employees last summer in West Virginia and of coal-miners in Pennsylvania.

Passing down the stream of the dividing river, a long-continued source of annoyance has existed in the incursions of the Mescalero Apaches and a band of Comanches, who habitually occupy a region in Chihuahua, and have often raided into Texas by the fords at Presidio del Norte, hiding themselves from pursuit in the inaccessible defiles of the Sierra Blanca. Many horses and mules have been carried off in these sudden incursions, and even Government transportation trains captured. These Indians, now suffering from famine produced by want of rain in their old home, have made friends with the tribes south of the Rio Grande, between Fort Duncan and San Carlos, and, shifting their line of operations, have added to the depredations made on the Texas side by the latter, who are Lipans and Kickapoos. Though the first-named of these more eastern bodies comprises not more than one hundred and twenty-five souls, and the Kickapoos about two hundred—who have made their escape to the far south after being hustled by our national Government all the way from Lake Superior, and now pay back the favors received—their regular practice of crossing over to supply themselves with horses at every new moon, choosing the "dark side to come and the light to return," has been a serious and hitherto uncontrollable evil. It would, however, be unfair to charge it to the negligence, and still more to the intention, of the Government of Mexico, it being simply a part of the troublesome Indian problem regarding which our country cannot for very shame take high ground. We do not now keep the settlers in our Black Hills secure from Indian attacks, and when Sitting Bull's warriors come again on the war-path from beyond our northern frontier, we probably shall not declare war against Great Britain if the Dominion authorities have done their best to prevent the continuance of incursions from their side of the border, though doubtless we shall expect more efficient aid from the Governor-General than we know is possible from a perplexed Mexican president struggling daily with internal treason, the rallying cry for which is his sympathy with the United States and desire for a fair commercial treaty.

Between Fort Duncan and Laredo there is little trouble, but between that town and Brownsville begin the only inroads which from their extent and the character of those concerned in them are really dangerous to international peace. They are made not for horses but cattle, and not by Indians but whites—that is, if Mexicans can in their general hybridity be properly characterized as white. No cattle, or so few as to be utterly insignificant for the supply of the local market, are raised on the Mexican side, yet the price of beef in Matamoras averages less than half that at Brownsville. The rancheros are idle, but apparently thriving on their elegant leisure. Nearly the whole of the present cattle-raising section of Texas is confined to the counties extending within twenty-five miles of the Rio Grande near the southern point of the State, and many beeves from there are furnished to the butchers of Matamoras at moderate rates, being brought in by drovers of the Rob Roy style. Robberies by organized bands have extended, accompanied with the occasional killing of herders, to within twenty miles of Corpus Christi. The local authorities are absolutely powerless to

prevent lawlessness when the whole population is composed of thieves, receivers, or beneficiaries. Canales nominally governs the State of Tamaulipas, but the bandit chief Cortiña is its actual ruler. This remarkable outlaw has made himself a modern Robin Hood, securing popularity by generosity to the poor, and so organizing his force that though at three days' notice he can summon probably one thousand armed men at any point on the lower Rio Grande, the same men are at all other times peaceful rancheros, precisely as the guerillas of the Potomac counties of Virginia were simple farmers with loyal tendencies. When we complain of the central government of Mexico we should remember that our own boasted power has not always prevented the invasion of our northern neighbor by "patriots," nor has it wholly restrained the shipment of volunteers and munitions of war for Cuba.

Our remedy is the simple one of lining our side of the Rio Grande with a sufficient force to provide against the exceptional evils arising from the character of the population on both sides of the border, and which no government can at once remedy. From Brownsville to Ringgold Barracks is three hundred miles by water, though only one hundred and twenty-five by land. From Ringgold Barracks to Laredo the river distance is one hundred and twelve miles, and from Laredo to Fort Duncan also one hundred and twelve, thus leaving five hundred and twenty-four miles to be guarded by four hundred soldiers. It is not difficult to explain how thieves can break through and steal if they are fond of Texan cattle. The whole Rio Grande border, including the part where the Indians ford, is about fifteen hundred miles long, and the same ratio of guard has perforce been kept up by our War Department, and furnishes a fraction of a soldier per mile. The expense of new permanent forts is not necessary, as cantonments of a judicious reinforcement of troops near the places where fording is possible are, in that climate, sufficient. Either the character of the inhabitants will be improved within a few years or the relations of the neighboring governments will be changed, so that large fortifications on our southern lines will be as useless as are now the costly structures on the old Canadian frontier.

The fact is that the boundary river makes no sharp division of the real nationality or habits of the population. The "greaser" is common on the hither side, and the bandit chief Cortiña could not be successful in his raids if there were not many in connivance with him who profess to be citizens of the United States and give him aid, comfort, and, when necessary, concealment, within the belt between the great river and the cattle-raising counties. State troops of Texas, if relied upon for police purposes, might be composed of many in league with the bandits, as is alleged of the soldiers of modern Greece, or might be confined to the so-called "American" element in Texas, smarting under personal loss, hating the Mexican with hereditary rancor, and anxious to make reprisals on any one on either side of the line who should be found guilty of speaking Spanish. Nothing can secure tranquillity and order but a respectable force of our regular army, with officers and men free alike from the heat of revenge and schemes for loot. Annexation will not remove the necessity for such an armed force, for if Tamaulipas were to-day, with all peace and quietness, an American instead of a Mexican state, the character of the people would require for many years a large army of occupation, as there is no magic in the Stars and Stripes that will reform a community of cattle thieves; and our statesmen should ponder well the fact that an addition to the territory of our Republic gives us so many more masters instead of subjects.

LANDTAG AND GOVERNMENT IN PRUSSIA.

GERMANY, December 2, 1877.

THE intrigues of the ex-King of Hanover, with a view to repossessing himself of his crown, formerly induced the Landtag to give the Government full power to withhold the indemnity of sixteen millions granted to the ex-sovereign, and to employ the interest in counteracting those machinations. For years the Cabinet has been accused by all parties of using some of this "Welfen Fond" in a way to make every patriot blush. Everybody is satisfied that a considerable part of it is spent in paying the good services of a number of papers which pretend to be quite independent—*i. e.*, in falsifying and thereby demoralizing public opinion. Every attempt, however, to redress the mistake made in a weak hour of blameworthy over-confidence has met with signal defeat. The Cabinet stands on the letter of the law, and nothing can induce it to let go its hold of the dangerous weapon. Nevertheless the *Fortschrittspartei* lately ventured a new interpellation, desiring to learn just enough about how the money was employed to be satisfied that it was not spent in a downright illegal way. The interpellation was generally deemed quite in place, though nobody expected a satisfactory answer. The Cabinet thought fit to repeat its unqualified refusal in a manner which could not but be considered insulting to the House, though it was, perhaps, not intended to be so. None of the ministers, though they had consented to the interpellation, was present. One of their commissioners read a declaration on behalf of the Cabinet, stating, in three or four lines, and in a provoking tone, that the House would not learn anything whatever with regard to the money. One could not help being reminded of the times when the then *Herr von* Bismarck addressed the House with his left hand in his trousers pocket, and his right hand busily engaged with a toothpick. The *Fortschrittspartei* at once demanded the presence of the ministers, according to section 60 of the Constitution. This demand was declared out of order as well by the President as by the House, because the rules forbid a motion to be entertained while an interpellation is being discussed. The question of order was, however, merely the appropriate form to attain the real end of the majority, viz., to avoid an open conflict before the meeting of the Reichstag. For this reason the motions which the *Fortschrittspartei* made with regard to the right of the House to demand the presence of the ministers will have no immediate practical result, though they will, perhaps, be partly agreed to by the National Liberals. The only practical consequence of this unexpected intermezzo is, that the two principal liberal parties are denouncing each other with more bitterness and violence than ever before, while the good understanding between the Cabinet and the National Liberals has certainly not been strengthened. Even the most moderate of their respective organs sum up their reasonings in the one word, that "the situation is very uncomfortable" (*sehr unbehaglich*).

At the same time the *Culturkampf* is going on in a very lively style; but the public, thus far, pay comparatively little attention to the mutual onslaughts, for which the still unfinished debate on the budget for Dr. Falk's department offers ample opportunity. The charges and countercharges are, in the main, the same which we have heard all these years. Somewhat, though not quite, new, however, is the direct and emphatic demand of the Ultramontanes for Catholic universities, and the equally emphatic answer of Dr. Falk, that they would never get any, either from him or from any other Prussian minister. Those parts of the debate which have nothing to do with the *Culturkampf*, have enlisted the interest of the public in the highest degree. Though Dr. Falk has not been able to keep his promise to present the draught of a new school-law, yet his declarations, so far as they go, have been well received. He has intimated that the fear of seeing his draught wrecked on the rock of the financial question will probably prove to be unfounded. He and Mr. von Camphausen seem to have come so near a complete understanding that we may hope to see the ship launched in not too distant a future. It is about time. Mr. Knoercke reminded the House that the bad condition of the common schools (*des Volksschulwesens*) has been ever since 1801, so to say, standing on the order of the day, and the evils complained of are in some respects so great and crying that it is a sin to delay the cure another moment. The salaries of the teachers are sometimes not sufficient to pay for the most necessary clothing, and when they are pensioned they have "really to starve": in this respect the aged teachers ought at least to be put a little above the level of the common soldiers. The speaker knew the widow of a teacher who had been fifty years in service; though she is herself unable to work, her pension amounts to but 50 thalers a year. Dr. Miguel urges upon the attention of the Government the general complaint that the pupils of the higher schools, and more especially of the gymnasia, are overburdened, and Mr. Schmidt illustrates the evil by the fact that, "from *Tertia* to *Prima*," fully 20 per cent. of the scholars have "weak eyes." The Government commissioner acknowledges the complaints to be well founded to some extent, and promises to redress the grievances whenever specific charges are brought to the Government's knowledge. The principal difficulty lies in the fact that, as a rule, the parents indulge in mere general talking, while they very often fail to give the teachers the necessary support in forcing the pupils to make the proper use of their time. He would, for instance, beg the House to remember how much the beer-

saloons are frequented by scholars. This remark was universally assented to. I might add that, at this very moment, the head of the educational department in Baden has sent an official communication to the proper authorities in Freiburg, reminding them that schoolboys are not allowed to visit drinking-houses.

Another complaint, in regard to which the Government has manifested an entirely satisfactory disposition, is the amount of pecuniary aid it affords to the higher schools of the cities. In the eight old provinces of Prussia the amount paid by the Government in 1869 towards defraying the expenses of these schools was but 32 per cent., while at present the amount is about equally divided between the state and the communities. The trouble, then, is now not so much that the Government does not pay enough, as that the several provinces are treated in a very different manner. In some of them the Government pays 79 per cent., while others get but 27 per cent. Some cities receive everything, others nothing, and some have to pay as much as 100 M. per head for the children from the country, who do not contribute anything whatever to the support of the schools. "This state of affairs has developed itself in the course of time without real injustice, and yet it is so unjust that it can no longer be borne." The last subject considered by the House has been the presumed fact that there is a most alarming and constantly-growing lack of teachers. This is happily not the case to such an extent as to justify the apprehensions which have been pretty commonly entertained of late years. The whole number of teachers, male and female, in Prussia, is 56,649—2,153 more than in 1875, and 3,466 more than in 1871. In Berlin alone 560 new places for teachers have been established. In December last there were 470 girls in the seminaries for school-mistresses (*Volksschullehrerinnen*). Since then another such seminary has been established in Xanten, and one more is to be established in Schleswig-Holstein. On the other hand, there have been, in the past two years, but 42 added to the whole number of "ordinary teacherships" which could not be filled. In 1876 there were 92 schools in the whole state where no teaching at all was possible, "and these schools were mostly situated in highly mountainous or quite isolated regions."

So the whole debate has tended to render Dr. Falk a stronger and more popular man. Only one thing has been greatly regretted by those on whose support he may count. He was requested to publish the draught of the school-law before presenting it to the Landtag, so that there might be ample time to study and discuss it publicly. This request he has left unanswered.

Correspondence.

THE FINE ARTS GROUP AT THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The number of the *Nation* of October 12, 1876, contained a communication which I thought it my duty to make with regard to the irregular action of the Centennial Exposition authorities. This irregularity was the acceptance by them of awards made in Group XXVII. by a small majority of the judges after the Group had formally and deliberately made its report, adjourned and separated. At the last regular meeting of the judges in Group XXVII. the reports of the different committees were handed in with the awards properly filled up and signed, according to the official rules. These separate reports were formally adopted in the sessions of each committee, and were written by the chairmen of these committees. These chairmen were: upon painting, Charles West Cope, R.A., of England; upon sculpture, myself; upon engraving, Mr. Frank H. Smith; upon photography, Professor Henry Draper. The report of Mr. Mitchell on the part of the committee upon the remaining classes was not ready on that day, and note was made in the general report that it would subsequently be furnished. All of the above-named reports were brief but comprehensive, and received almost unanimous approval. Those upon painting and sculpture were of special importance, for they stated the plan upon which the awards were made in those classes. Without this statement these awards are meaningless. After the approval of the reports of the committees a short and clear account of the organization and work of the Group of judges as a whole was presented and embodied with reports of the committees, all of which was formally adopted as the General Report, signed by the chairman, Mr. James L. Claghorne, and by the secretary.

This report, with all the books and papers in the office, I placed in the hands of Mr. Walker. I have before me what professes to be the 'General Report and Awards of the Judges of Group XXVII.' It is an official document, "edited by Francis A. Walker, Chief of the Bureau of Awards," and is just published. This so-called 'General Report' is prefaced with the following note:

"International Exhibition, 1876.

"Professor F. A. Walker, *Chief of the Bureau of Awards:*

"Sir: I forward on behalf of the judges of Group XXVII. their reports upon Art Exhibits in the International Exhibition.

"Very respectfully,

"James L. Claghorne, *Chairman.*"

Following this are two reports—one upon painting and sculpture by John F. Wier, the other upon industrial designs, etc., by Donald G. Mitchell.

I desire through your journal to publish my earnest protest against the action of the Exposition authorities in this case. This is not the General Report of the judges of Group XXVII. Mr. Mitchell's paper should have formed a part of the General Report. The document from Mr. Wier never was in the General Report. It never was offered in any of the regular sessions of the Committee on Painting or Sculpture, or in any of the regular meetings of the Group. Other members of that committee proposed to make reports, which they desired to have adopted, but the judges of the Group would never have consented to adopt as their collective judgment the individual opinions of any one of their members. This official document, then, is not the General Report of Group XXVII. The General Report has been suppressed by Mr. Walker, and the criticism of Mr. Wier substituted in its place. I make these assertions with positive knowledge of the facts. So far as Mr. Claghorne is concerned in this affair, when he wrote the letter given above, it would be charity to suppose he did not attach the full value to the meaning of words. The action of Mr. Walker certainly needs explanation.

Geo. Ward Nichols, *Secretary Group XXVII.*

Cincinnati, December 17, 1877.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The explanation required by Mr. Nichols is cheerfully given. The official action of the judges of the Philadelphia Exhibition was originally limited to offering recommendations for awards to individual exhibitors. It was the expressed intention of the Centennial Commission to reduce Group-action to a minimum, and substitute the discretion and responsibility of an individual judge for the jury or caucus system which had prevailed at European exhibitions.

By a resolution of the Commission in June, the judges of the several Groups were requested to make reports of a general character upon the display in their respective departments. These reports it has been my duty to edit for publication. When I came to Group XXVII. I found what Mr. Nichols calls its General Report. This covered forty pages of manuscript, of which not more than nine full pages, in the aggregate, were devoted to description or discussion of the Fine Arts Exhibition, in the four departments of Painting, Sculpture, Photography, and Lithography and Engraving. The remainder of the "report" consisted of lists of the successful exhibitors (elsewhere printed), and of the journal of the Group, detailing its sessions, resolutions, etc. In no case have the minutes of a Group been published, nor would there be any propriety in such publication. But Mr. Nichols thinks there was a special reason for publishing the Journal of Group XXVII. inasmuch as it contains the resolutions under which the judges made their awards. This fact would of itself constitute an additional reason against such a publication. The record in question contains resolutions and minutes in direct contravention of the rules of adjudication established by the Centennial Commission. It is notorious that the action of the Fine Arts judges caused a great deal of trouble at the time, and involved the reassembling in August of those judges who still remained in the country, in order that the work might be completed according to the system prescribed. Even had the minutes of other Groups been published, the Commission could not have stultified itself by printing a record of proceedings had in direct opposition to its authority, by judges who owed their official character solely to its own appointment.

As to accepting the few pages of remarks, more or less critical, which were scattered through the Journal in question, as a compliance with the requirements of a general report, it was manifestly not to be thought of. I therefore, on the 20th of January, addressed Mr. Claghorne, of Philadelphia, the Chairman of the Group, requesting such a report from him. Mr. Claghorne replied, expressing strongly the opinion that a report should be rendered, but stating that he did not feel able personally to undertake its preparation. I then addressed myself to Prof. Wier, Di-

rector of the Yale School of the Fine Arts, a judge in Group XXVII., who, on my urgent solicitation, produced the admirable paper which is now before the public, and which will form a most agreeable feature of the permanent literature of the Exhibition. FRANCIS A. WALKER.

NEW HAVEN, December 20, 1877.

CONCERNING THE CHANGE IN THE STANDARD OF VALUE BY THE DEMONETIZATION OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been refreshing my combativeness by looking over your article: "Why the Demonetization of Silver did not Attract Popular Attention."

The demonetization of silver is the joint product of a section of the coinage regulations and a section of the Revised Statutes—neither precisely expressing the purpose, but together juggling the silver option away from the people.

Allow me to say that the only discussion of the question was in speeches that no one heard and in documents that nobody read. I have advertised in vain for a member of Congress who can say that he voted for the demonetization of silver, knowing when he cast his vote what it meant. I have appealed to the press for an editorial article, published in the year 1873-4, for or against the change from the double to the single standard, and the conclusion is that no such article appeared in any American newspaper. President Grant wrote a letter six months after he signed the act of coinage regulation in 1873, proving that he did not know what he had done.

There was an open attempt to demonetize silver. Senator Sherman reported a bill for that purpose June 9, 1868. Senator Morgan, of New York, made the conclusive report against the bill that it was a movement to change the coinage that did not proceed from the people, and that a country making such a change should be comparatively free from debt.

The demonetization of silver that occurred without public knowledge I conclude did not proceed from the people, and the indebtedness, public and private, in the country was largely increased between 1868 and 1873. The fact that the attempt was openly made to take from silver the office and character of money, and that it failed, raises the presumption that the noiseless successful attempt five years later was contrived to be secret.

You quote Dr. Linderman to show that "the silver dollar had become obsolete, in fact." In the first place I may be permitted to say that Dr. Linderman is not good authority. He has not missed an opportunity for several years to disparage silver as money and to invent excuses for the change in the money standard. This does not, at this distance, seem to be a necessary part of the performance of the duties of his office. In the second place, the doctor knew enough to know that *the presence of silver in the standard* was of vast importance to the American people. Then notice that when the old dollar was dropped, the trade-dollar was introduced. The dollar of 412½ grains of standard silver was worth 103, and was legal tender without limit. Why make a dollar of 420 grains, and limit it as lawful money to five-dollar payments? Simply because the purpose was to change the standard of value—that there should be no lawful silver money. The pretence that the dollar of 420 grains was wanted for the Chinese trade was not true. The trade-dollar was invented for use as the juggler's false piece in the manipulation by which the silver dollar was abstracted from the coinage and the money measure changed.

Permit me one more paragraph. You say:

"But then, it is said, the Demonetization Act was a speculative measure. The men who 'engineered' it *knew* silver was going to fall, and therefore determined to get it out of the way as a legal tender for the benefit of the bondholders, who desired payment in gold. How could they know?"

I desire to tell you how they could know—just how they must have known. The object of the money-changers—the experts who had the alteration of the standard of value in charge—was to impose upon us the single standard, that is, to make our money measure of one metal instead of two metals. They had knowledge that the discarded metal would depreciate—that the metal in which they placed the standard exclusively would appreciate. The history of money metals in all times told them that. It was a scientific proposition, an axiom, that silver, demonetized by the very country that produced it would decline in the metal market. They couldn't help knowing it. M. HALSTEAD.

CINCINNATI, December 22, 1877.

[A proper reply to our article would have shown, not that the general public did not notice the demonetization of silver, or that some members of Congress voted for it without knowing what they were doing (large numbers of them vote in this state of mind on all financial questions)—for these things we have admitted—but that the promoters of the measure avoided or omitted some of the usual means of publicity. Mr. Halstead does not attempt to show this, because he knows it to be untrue, and knows that any detailed account of the process by which silver was demonetized, such as we published weeks ago, makes the charge of "conspiracy" and "juggle" and "noiselessness" very ridiculous. A proper reply would also have given some reason for believing that, had popular attention been called to the measure, a popular protest would have been raised against it; but on this point also Mr. Halstead is judiciously silent. That Senator Morgan made a report against demonetization in 1868 does not prove that there would have been any popular opposition to it in 1873. The monetary situation in the Western world had greatly changed within those five years, and the assertion that a country discarding silver should be comparatively free from debt is one which owes all its value to circumstances. Applied to a poor country about to demonetize by recoinage at great expense, such as Germany has incurred, it may have some weight; applied to a rich country about to demonetize without any cost at all, it is simply an opinion like another. Honest payment of debts in silver by the United States is no harder now than it was in 1868—that is, silver will now, as then, bring its market value in Europe. Mr. Halstead's objection to Dr. Linderman's authority seems to have no better basis than that Mr. Halstead does not agree with him, and is, therefore, a roundabout way of begging the question; we, on like grounds, repudiate Mr. Halstead himself, and pronounce his assertion that Dr. Linderman "knew enough to know" that Mr. Halstead is right about silver, one of the oddest propositions we have ever seen in a financial discussion.

Mr. Halstead's mode of proving that the promoters of the demonetization knew silver was going to fall, is substantially the young lady's argument—"they knew because they knew." In what he says on this point Mr. Halstead's confusion of mind reaches its climax. The source of all his delusions on this silver question is, as we have before now taken the liberty of pointing out to him, his confounding "standard" and "legal tender." He evidently thinks these synonymous terms, whereas what they describe are totally different things. Silver before 1873 was a legal tender, but it was not a standard or "money measure." Neither Mr. Halstead nor any one else in the United States had for forty years before 1873 bought, sold, or contracted in silver, or had it in mind in any mercantile transaction, or used it in the settlement of any account, or even seen it, except in small change; and yet it was all this time a "legal tender"—that is, a thing in which a man *might* pay his debts if he chose. The "money-changers" and "conspirators," therefore, made no change in the standard of value—had they done so they would have roused the country; but they did make a change in the legal tender. For similar reasons Mr. Halstead's deduction from "the history of money metals," and his "scientific proposition," and "axiom," have no application whatever to the case before us. Whether they have any application to any case, or whether they are not the product of an excited silver imagination, we have no space here to discuss. The demonetization of a metal depreciates it *if it is a metal in use*—that is, if at the time of its demonetization it is the active standard of the country (not legal tender); if bargains are made and accounts settled in it. In 1873 silver was not the standard in use in this country, and had not been for years. It was not in circulation, even as small change. Our demonetization, therefore, exercised and could exercise no influence on the market price of it. It threw none of it out of use, and, as a matter of fact, the price did not begin to decline for two years afterwards, or until the Germans began to sell it heavily and the mines began to increase their yield. No "expert" or "money-changer" was simple-minded enough to suppose that he could lower the value of a commodity for which there was absolutely no demand, by enacting that people should have no further need of it.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

DODD & MEAD have brought out the second volume of Clarence Cook's edition of Lübke's 'Outlines of the History of Art.'——The *Galaxy* has been absorbed in the *Atlantic Monthly*. The announcement of H. O. Houghton & Co. to this effect intimates that some of the features of the defunct magazine will be preserved.——The changes in the New York Code introduced by the recent legislation at Albany have produced no less than four volumes, and several more will, we believe, be called for by the legislation of the next session in completion of the work. We have already noticed Mr. Throop's Albany edition of the Code. An edition of much greater practical utility to lawyers, Bliss's 'New York Annotated Code,' has just been issued by Baker, Voorhis & Co. It is a large volume of 1,245 pages, with references to all the cases decided under the old Code of Procedure (these must number nearly ten thousand), and with explanatory notes showing the changes involved in the new; and is a monument of professional industry.—— Mr. Charles H. Moore, who has been for upwards of a year past in Venice, has recently sent to the Art Club at Harvard three copies of the Old Masters which he has made under the most favorable conditions, thanks to Mr. Ruskin's influence. One is a small copy of the head and bust of Carpatio's reclining Saint Ursula; another represents the group of Apostles in the lower part of Titian's "Annunciation," and the third is from Tintoretto. Mr. Moore is now in Florence.——The enlargement of the Harvard College Library building was finished during the summer. We are sorry to say that the apprehensions as to the success of it which we expressed when it was first proposed have been realized. The original building is not lighted by artificial light, and is always closed in winter at sunset. A great difficulty has always been that workers there had to cease their studies a half hour or more before that time, and that the card catalogue, kept in drawers, was often inaccessible long before sunset. Yet the enlargement, being perversely upon the east side, must suffer from want of light even more than the old portion. Another difficulty is that the room for the cataloguers, being one story high and having a glass roof and looking southward, must be an intolerably hot working-room in the summer.——Mr. U. H. Crocker has been making some interesting communications to the Boston *Advertiser* on the controverted subject of the date of the old 'Book of Possessions.' He leaves it more than probable that the date is earlier than that assigned by Mr. Whitmore, and that the first part of the book is in the handwriting of William Aspinwall, the Notary Public of 1644–1651.

—From C. F. Tretbar, of Steinway Hall, we have received numerous specimens of a series of 'Analytical Reviews of Classical and Modern Compositions,' for the use of amateurs at musical entertainments, and for the better appreciation of the beautiful in music. The best way of arriving at a thorough understanding of a complicated composition is of course to hear it repeatedly; but, unfortunately, the number of concerts given in our cities is as yet so limited, and the list of works which demand a hearing so great, that frequent repetition is out of the question. A preliminary description of the characteristics and contents of a composition, therefore, cannot but be of some use to the ordinary concert-goer who is to hear the piece for the first or second time. Such an analysis should give a brief account of the circumstances under which the work was written; of the leading emotional ideas which the author intended to convey by it, if any such are recorded; of the number of the *opus*, showing how it is related to his earlier or his later style—for composers differ even more than authors in their own manner and style at different periods of their lives; and of the first performance of the work and its reception by the public and the critics. Finally, the leading melodic and harmonic ideas or motives should be given in musical notation, so that by playing them over several times on the piano the reader may fix them in his memory, and consequently take a greater interest in observing how they are developed and treated by the master. If, judged by such a standard, the 'Reviews' before us are not all that could be desired, still, as far as they go, they are better than the majority of the newspaper criticisms which most people are so anxious to read before they pronounce an opinion on the new pieces heard at a concert. The paucity of musical books in our great libraries makes it difficult to compile all the facts desirable in an analysis of a great composition; but for future numbers much valuable information might be obtained from the bound volumes of the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*. The more modern the composition analyzed the more, as a rule, is there to be said about it, for the contents become more and more definite, until we come to programme music, pure and simple. On the other hand, some of the Symphonies of the older "classical" period, being little more than pleasing combinations of sounds for their own sake, with no underlying feelings, do not call for any descriptive remarks.

—The following recent botanical publications are deserving of notice. 'Arboretum Segrezianum: Énumération des Arbres et Arbrisseaux cultivés à Segrez,' by A. Lavallée (Paris: J. B. Baillière et fils, 1877), is a beautifully-printed volume of some 300 pages, containing a catalogue of more than 3,000 species and varieties of ligneous plants made by M. Lavallée on his ancestral estate at Segrez, not far from Paris, with their synonyms and native countries, and with reference to the botanical works in which they are figured and described. In a short preface, M. Lavallée describes the difficulties he has encountered in bringing together and properly arranging in scientific order his vast collections—difficulties which will be appreciated by those who have undertaken a similar work. He also gives a brief historical sketch of the most important collections of exotic trees which have been found in France from the middle of the sixteenth century down to the present time, many of which are of peculiar interest to Americans from the large number of American trees which the Michauxs and other French travellers in this country introduced into them. The 'Arboretum Segrezianum' will be found very useful not only to the professional keepers of scientific collections of living plants, but to those who desire to improve their estates by intelligent planting—a class which it is desirable should largely increase in this country. The few errors which we have observed in the body of the catalogue are strictly technical, and will naturally disappear in a second edition. A volume of plates, with descriptions of some of the rare and little-known species of the Arboretum, is promised.—Fern-books are numerous and popular in England, and the growing interest taken in ferns all over our country, both by amateur collectors and by serious students, may well justify Prof. Daniel C. Eaton's undertaking ('The Ferns of North America,' Part I. Salem, Mass.: S. E. Cassino). It is no small one; for, as the work proceeds in bi-monthly parts, it is intended to give colored figures of all the species of ferns indigenous to the United States. The whole ground is pre-empted in the first fasciculus, now before us, which, besides appealing to popular attention with our climbing fern (*Lygodium palmatum*), contains a new fern from the southern end of Florida, and another from southern California. The latter, "Mrs. Cooper's Lip-fern," is wholly new to science; the former is a tropical spleenwort, of the bird-nest group, recently found within our borders. As the name of the editor warrants, this work is to have true scientific value, as well as popular interest. The five pages of quarto letterpress attest the author's aptitude for popular description. The neat synopsis of the known United States species of *Cheilanthes*, and the technical characters generally, are as useful to the botanist as to the fern-amateur. The plates, in chromo-lithography from drawings by Mr. Emerton, are excellent. That of the two species of Lip-fern is most to our liking. By gas-light, that of the Climbing Fern is too dull, and that of the Spleenwort too blue, although otherwise admirable.—'Notes on Botrychium Simplex,' by Geo. E. Davenport (Salem, 1877), claims a word of mention here. It is a quarto pamphlet in the same style, of 22 pages and two plates in heliotype, crowded with outline figures of all the various forms assumed by this little fern and its two nearest relatives, with which it has been more or less confounded. This confounded—we mean confounding—group of ferns has given the botanists and fern-collectors no end of trouble.

—The recent refusal of a Congregational counsel to instal the Rev. Mr. Merriam at Indian Orchard, Mass., because he believed there was a chance of salvation for the "impenitent dead," has led to some systematic enquiries how far Mr. Merriam was singular in his belief in his own denomination and profession, and how far the action of the council met with clerical approval. The Springfield *Republican* asked the Congregational clergy of Western Massachusetts by circular, (1) whether they taught that "endless conscious suffering awaits the impenitent," and (2), whether they would have voted to instal Mr. Merriam. The Boston *Congregationalist* subsequently addressed a slightly larger number of pastors (100) picked from all over the country, and has printed their replies in full to the questions (1) whether they thought there had been "any essential departure from the faith in the doctrine of eternal punishment," and (2) "how far a belief in this doctrine should be insisted on as a prerequisite to the ministry in our Congregational churches." The *Congregationalist* was more successful in eliciting responses than the *Republican*, yet the silence of even a fifth remains to be explained on some other ground than negli-

gence. Taking the two circulars together, a large majority of the respondents teach the doctrine of endless punishment, and are of opinion that it is held substantially unimpaired by the laity. A smaller majority would have voted with the council against Mr. Merriam, and insist upon the application of the doctrine as a test of qualification for the ministry. The minority show all degrees of laxity in doctrine and practice. One minister says: "My church has never had in its creed one word in reference to the endlessness" of punishment; another: "My church believes in evitable retribution for sin, and that the everlastingly incorrigible will suffer everlastingly," and adds for himself, "Belief in eternal damnation is not enough to make a good minister, nor peculiar views about it enough to spoil one."

—There are several obvious reasons why these enquiries were misdirected, if the object was really to ascertain the vitality of the dogma of hell. Ministers whose function it is to preach it—who live by it, so to speak—are naturally the last to observe and the most loath to confess publicly its decay, or to counsel "letting it slide" altogether. A more pertinent series of questions for them would be: Do you in your preaching lay the same stress upon the existence of a hell as you once did? Do you rely upon it as much as you once did to arouse the thoughtless or alarm the impenitent? Do you attach to it in theory or in practice anything like the importance, either as a dogma necessary to salvation or as an instrument of conversion, which the preachers of even fifty years ago did? Do you regard it as an indispensable sanction of morality? How do you account for the decline in purely doctrinal preaching? A candid answer to these enquiries, with the writer's name enclosed in a sealed envelope, not for publication, would certainly throw more light upon the matter in dispute than all that the *Republican* and *Congregationalist* have accomplished. In the midst of the discussion there have been two remarkable signs of the tendency of the doctrine of eternal punishment. On Sunday week, Mr. Beecher announced his disbelief in hell in terms borrowed from the early Unitarians and Universalists, and of undiminished intensity—terms which used to bring upon them denunciations of infidelity such as the religious press of our day reserves chiefly for Thomas Paine. Across the ocean, Canon Farrar had already been declaring in Westminster Abbey of the Scriptural words "hell," "damnation," and "everlasting":

"I say unhesitatingly, I say with the fullest right to speak, and with the necessary knowledge, I say with the calmest and most unflinching sense of responsibility, standing here in the sight of God and our Saviour, and it may be of the angels and spirits of the dead, that not one of these words ought to stand any longer in our English Bible; and that, being in our present acceptation of them simply mistranslations, they most unquestionably will not stand in the revised version of the Bible, if the revisers have understood their duty."

—For the newest thing in "British interests" we must undoubtedly await the reassembling of Parliament, but all signs point to the seizure of Egypt as the immediate objective of the Sultan's best friend. In the meantime it is instructive to notice the same "interests" at work elsewhere *in partibus infidelium*, and how naïvely a British subject protests against them when his conscience is shocked at the vista which they suddenly open up to him. For instance, an interesting article on Formosa in the *Geographical Magazine* for December concludes as follows:

"The question has been often asked, Should such an island be left in the hands of such a government as the Chinese? To argue for a moment that the Chinese Government is in any respect superior, say to the British, would be ridiculous; but to suggest that therefore the Chinese should be deprived of part of their possessions is highly improper. Their sovereignty over the island is better established than ours was in New Zealand a very short time ago. They are employing their military in making roads through the savage districts (the most effectual way of eventually subduing them), and they seem anxious to develop the resources of the country. In more than one European newspaper there have been suggestions as to annexation; but an attempt at such a thing would, in my opinion, be nothing short of robbery."

We think we are right in inferring that it is British annexation which this writer squints at. It only remains to add that Russia would ask no better excuse for annexing Bulgaria than the superiority of her government to that of Turkey, and that the Chinese administration in Formosa would not suffer by comparison with the Turkish north of the Balkans.

—M. Lenormant's little brochure, 'Les dieux de Babylone et de l'Assyrie,' is a popular essay on the divinities of Mesopotamia, and is notable for wholly omitting the Bel-Dagan (the biblical Dagon), who figures in his Commentary on Berosus as one of the two manifestations of Bel, the second god of the first triad. The Assyrian fish-gods have been very confusing, every one of the triad being supposed to take his turn at this *rôle* —Anu as the Oannes who arose from the Erythræan Sea, Bel as Dagon, and Hea as the god of the waters. M. Lenormant now relieves this confusion by entirely dropping the fish element from all except Hea. The inscriptions have never given any authority for attributing to Anu this character, and it has been predicated entirely upon the resemblance between his name and that of the Oannes of Berosus. But Helladius gives the name of Oes to the Erythræan god who taught men wisdom, and this name, as well as the Aos of Damascius, may quite as easily be identified with Hea, whose name is more accurately transliterated *Ea*, although Rawlinson's "Hea" is more familiar to English readers. This Oannes of Berosus is more accurately given "Eahanes" by Hyginus, which Lenormant supposes to be from the Accadian *Ea-khan*, meaning Hea the fish. We presume he will soon publish a fuller justification of this important simplification of Assyrian mythology, and will tell us what is to become of Dagon, whose name occurs in the first line of the 'Standard Inscription of Assurnazirpal,' of which half a dozen copies exist in this country, and which begins: "This is the palace of Assurnazirpal, servant of Assur, priest of Bel and Adar, beloved by Anu and Dagon."

—The prolonged strife over the "music of the future" in Germany has given rise to a curious work of which the following is a literal translation of the title: 'A Wagner Lexicon. Dictionary of Incivility, containing coarse, scornful, odious, and slanderous Expressions which have been used against Meister Richard Wagner, his works and his disciples, by enemies and railers. Collected for the mind's amusement in idle hours by Wilhelm Tappert' (Leipzig: Fritzsch. 1877). This remarkable collection is arranged in alphabetical order, commencing with *Abderiten* and ending with *Zwittergeschöpfe*. Each word is accompanied by enough of the sentence in which it occurs to complete the sense, the name of the writer and the place in which it is to be found, together with a short comment by the editor in most cases. Most of the material of the work, which is a book of fifty octavo pages, is drawn from German sources, chiefly from the newspapers, but some English and French writers contribute to it. The "Ausdrücke" used are of a varied character. Wagner is called a rat, a goose, a wasp, and a werewolf. Spielhagen nicknames him "a ratcatcher"; Gutzkow, "a musical Heliogabalus"; and a French critic, "the Marat of music." His music is frequently styled "circus and cat music," and by Paul Heyse "a pathetic cancan." The "Rheingold" is an "aquarium," according to another, and its music "a three-hours long musical goose-march." A Berlin paper speaks of the style of Wagner as "*furchtbar-quatsch*," whatever that may be; and a Vienna critic makes him out a Jew, on account of his long "Talmud-Schnüfflernase." After all, in looking over this collection, one is struck with the poverty of the German language in vituperative terms. A single Maine backwoodsman or a California miner, when excited, would display powers of expression which would fill these German musical critics with envy.

—Some idea of the impetus given to English philology in Germany may be gathered from the circumstance that not only are there two new quarterlies devoted exclusively to it (*Anglia* and *Englische Studien*), but the older quarterlies are assigning to it a large proportion of their space. Thus, in Herrig's *Archiv*, Nos. 3 and 4, 142 pages are filled with Horstmann's text of the Gospel Histories in the Homilies of the Vernon MS., Callenberg's essay on Layamon and Orm, and Tiessen's "Contributions to the Elucidation of the Text of Shakspere." By far the most important article in this year's *Archiv*, however, is the one by Dr. Grabow on the "Standard (*dialectfreie*) Pronunciation of High German." The author's investigations into what is and what is not to be regarded as orthodox, unprovincial pronunciation are most thorough, and are based not only upon the history of the language, but also upon the physiological facts of speech and the tabulated statistics of the various German provinces. We commend, *e.g.*, p. 435 as a model of clear statistical arrangement, whereby the eye sees at a glance the development of the *sh* (*sch*) sound from *s* in composition with *c* and other consonants. We hope, also, that no future writer of German grammars will venture to ignore or neglect the results of Dr. Grabow's research, and that henceforth even our most empirical and superficial manuals will have something like scientific accuracy in their treatment of German sounds.

—Those familiar with German methods need not be reminded of the value of the materials scattered about in school-programmes, doctoral dissertations, etc. Hermann Varnhagen has recently published, as appendix to Schmitz's 'Encyclopædia of the Philology of Modern Languages,' a systematic catalogue of programmes, dissertations, and "habilitation" lectures upon philology in general, and especially upon English and

French, that have appeared since 1825. At least we conjecture the date *a quo* from a passage in the preface, although the editor has nowhere stated it explicitly. The number of titles is about 1,650. The introduction gives a condensed history of the programme and dissertation in Germany, and a critique of previous bibliographical works on the subject. Dr. Varnhagen waives all claims to completeness or perfect accuracy, and whoever has had the least practical experience of the difficulty of tracking such ephemeral productions will heartily sympathize with him in his regrets at not being able to do better. Suffice it to say, on the other hand, that he has produced an exceedingly useful catalogue, which should be in the hands of all thorough-going scholars. So far as we have been able to examine, notably in the Old-English lists, we have observed no serious omissions, but on the contrary a surprising degree of fulness.

JOSEPH COOK'S 'BIOLOGY.'*

THE "Boston Monday lectureship" promises to be a three years' wonder. Entirely unheard of till a year or two since, Mr. Cook is, now that his lectures are published in book-form, sure of having his words read and pondered among all sects of evangelical orthodoxy throughout the country—at any rate, his influence is no longer local. Moreover, the "lectureship" is now a business. A management has been organized, tickets are sold, and advertisements printed, and there are indications that another year it may "travel."

One of the chief "strategic points" of the lectureship is to evoke hostile criticism. Its success, and even existence, depends on whether an audience of clients, eagerly applauding every *coup* of their protagonist against threatening and heretical 'isms and 'ologies, can continue to believe that his shafts cause dismay among all orders of intellectual unregeneracy. Hence, in spite of the animosity with which Mr. Cook has here and there been assailed, many of his friends are beginning to complain of a "conspiracy of silence" on essential points. On the other hand, there are many of opposite bias who, urging his many misstatements of fact, his illicit inferences, the inadequate method with which the ultimate and outlying questions of all human knowledge are discussed, and the bad cookery (if so vile a pun may be quoted) with which scientific authorities are seasoned and served up, have also complained that thus far there has been no adequate and well-digested verdict respecting his work. The explanation is not far to seek. It is found in the growing belief that Mr. Cook is a sincere enthusiast who has questioned and doubted, and has reached at last the consolation—rare enough in these days—of unreserved conviction. Such a man, however crass or erratic his opinions, deserves a certain respect.

Again, he is comparatively unmolested, because his work is felt to be of significance for the culture of the New England clergy. He is liberalizing, if not even rationalizing, orthodoxy itself, by inoculating the most unscientific class of educated men with his small science. Now—thanks to his hardy courage—rural clergymen and studious laymen may be seen every Monday at the libraries and bookstores of Boston asking for Beale, Draper, Carpenter, etc., with the laudable purpose of following out Mr. Cook's course of reading. Now, the most unsuspecting theological student may visit any German University, and even *hospitiren* with Helmholtz, Wundt, and possibly Haeckel himself, if a few score of Mr. Cook's prophylactic axioms are well graven upon his memory, without danger of becoming "unchristianized or shaken in the temper of his faith." His creed, indeed, is as meagre, yet as unmistakable, as the tags nailed up in place of scenery on the early English stage, admonishing the audience never to forget that, although the language, costumes, and plot were contemporary, still all was really in ancient Roman. So, although we hear of "neural tremors," of "the white-gray keyboard of the brain," and are challenged to account for the "perfect eye of the trilobite," and taught why "variability of species is a lessening quality," we are constantly assured that all this is Christianity and not modern science; for "the microscope begins to have visions of immortality." "Everything scientific is Biblical, and everything Biblical is scientific." "Even the scientific method is of theological origin." Lotze, and even Helmholtz and Wundt, are "on their knees before a personal God." Of course all this is extremely vicious, much in the same way, indeed, as the infernal trappings on the stand of the early conjurers, who, instead of frankly acknowledging that all was the skilful sleight of human hands, appealed in puzzling abracadabras to extra-mundane agencies. Let us not be misunderstood. We do not propose to dispute, or even discuss, Mr. Cook's religious convictions, though probably none of his friends realizes how subtly the processes of secularization are accelerated by his methods, or how many of the impedimenta of orthodoxy are one after another silently abandoned while a whole corps of the theological army is being mobilized. To have occasioned this wholesome ferment is a didactic triumph which a wiser, more learned, better poised mind could never have achieved.

Mr. Cook's science is exceedingly "small"—for the most part, indeed, scarcely more than an advertisement of a department of research rapidly growing in importance, and which happens never to have been popularized in this country. His information on the subject of physiological psychology may be very briefly summarized; but to correct his errors and inconsistencies and make his crudeness patent to his hearers would require nothing less than a well-digested text-book on the subject. His uncritical credulity towards scientific authorities upon his own side is seen in his naïve acceptance of two of Ferrier's most conjectural statements—viz.: "Physiological activity of the brain is not altogether coextensive with its psychological function"; and "Mental operations are still capable of being carried on *in their completeness* through the agency of one hemisphere"; and of Beale's continued implication that psychic changes cause physical changes, and not the reverse.

That Mr. Cook is not well informed in physiological psychology is not surprising, and by no means so harmful as it would be in a scientific lecture-room. But what apology can we offer when he affirms that "the Boston lectureship is abreast of the latest German investigations"? If he would only extend his reading beyond Carpenter—whose work he calls "the best discussion of the relation of mind and body in modern times"—and a few others, to Wundt and Helmholtz, who are only names to him, and to Hughlings Jackson, Fechner, Vulpian, Schiff, Horwicz-Flechsig, and scores of others who have lately made original contributions towards the solution of the question of the relation between the nervous system and consciousness, and perhaps even discuss such subjects as aphasia, inhibition, muscular sense, Meynerts' schematization, etc., all of which lie directly in his path, but of which he seems never to have heard, his pedagogics would be less incisive. Mr. Cook himself, and still more his unscientific audience, who respond by "applause," "sensation," and occasional "amens," to so many of his wildest assertions, grossly violate that good old precept of Coleridge—viz., be sure you are not ignorant of an author's understanding before you affect to understand his ignorance.

Of his studied forensic against Huxley's bathybius, which for five years caused men to "tremble before the strong negation of the supernatural," but which is now a "myth and byword of derision," it is enough to remember that Huxley has long since abandoned his invention, and that Mr. Cook grossly misquotes and misrepresents what he said about it. Yet in elaborating the thesis that everything organic, even "your molecular brain, is first woven by your bioplasts," he goes beyond even Beale's widest speculations, from whom his charts, facts, language, and deductions upon this subject are borrowed; forgetting Mr. Stirling's wholesome admonition, that if all life is identified in protoplasm, it must be differentiated in protoplasms. Whatever is meant by the phrase, "An involution must precede every evolution," it is hard to see how this compels the belief in a personal God or an immortal soul. The concessions of evolutionists are undisputed and familiar: so comprehensive a theory of the universe must long remain more or less provisional; it is a question of the balance of probabilities and not of exact demonstration. Yet, even if it be true, Mr. Cook thinks it worth while strategically to urge that the body of religious truth is in no way affected, and to insist that the teleological, which is the one of "thirty forms of the theory of evolution" that he prefers, is, like Darwin himself, probably theistic. Of course, in contemplating the ultimate questions of human knowledge respecting nature or man, as revealed by the telescope, the microscope, and in the laboratory, the poetic faculties of men everywhere, as Mr. Shairp has so well shown, are prone to mythologize. *Aberglaube* is often truly æsthetic, and religion, whatever else it may be, is always the poetry of life. This is well; far better, indeed, than the blank philosophy of nescience. But let us not confound poetry with science, nor forget that there is no adequate proof of the dicta of theology in nature. Dogmatism in this direction may be more respectable, but it is certainly no more "educated" than the crass, obsolescent materialism whose decent corpse Mr. Cook takes pleasure in mutilating. This should be a wholesome warning to scientific men who are disposed to pass from their specialty, particularly in their more popular utterances, to speculations on the secrets of the universe; unless, indeed, they wish to be immortal-

* 'Boston Monday Lectures. Biology, with Preludes on Current Events. By Joseph Cook.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1877.

ized, as Comte has been by the socialists, for their vagaries. Such an apotheosis has already begun for the unfortunate Lotze. No writer can be more æsthetic, modest, fonder of the sacredness of "reposeful mental states," more averse not only to dogmatism but even to system-making, more anxious to make philosophy merely the "general expression of individual culture" than one who, "without assuming to arrive at fully demonstrated results, nevertheless finds in reflection and in conversation upon fundamental problems the noblest occupation of human life," and who, in the 'Mikrokosmus,' takes great pains to contrast what he understands by the phrase "personality of God" in every essential respect with human personality. We can hardly object if such a writer fancies the soul to live and move "in the fibreless parenchyma of the brain"; but the climax of absurdity is reached when Mr. Cook dramatically personates him as standing upon the Tremont Temple platform, swinging an apocalyptic millstone and rending materialism "thus—thus," as Mr. Cook tears his notes before a transported audience. The fact is that Mr. Cook is a neologist, poorly trained in the history of philosophical thought, and still more crude in his psychological analyses. God, materialism, immortality, etc., are for him terms of fixed and exact connotation, to be used without fallacy in an endless chain of syllogisms, instead of exceedingly composite concepts, varying with every shade of individual intelligence and experience.

A man of such vigorous health and of such robust magnetic personality as Mr. Cook, of such assurance and florid eloquence, who lives in what Hegel wittily terms the animal kingdom of mind, can always gather about himself an organization of curious or undervitalized women who love to be thrilled, of business and professional men who love to hear the best commonplaces about literature, politics, and religion, etc., and of somewhat uninstructed "good" people generally. Some such tendencies are already manifest in the "lectureship," and whether it results in a new "society," or something altogether new and strange, we would by no means disparage the possible public usefulness of any such consummation. Although as dramatic performer Mr. Cook violates all *Hamlet's* advice to the players, he still moves, and even thrills, his hearers. Though as philosopher his discussions seem more and more manufactured, they are still scarcely less than oracular for his disciples. We only hope the new departure which is inevitable will be well advised, and when he "settles"—which he should do before the heyday of his fame fades—that it will be to work of a more permanent sort.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S DIARY.*

THE volume before us, the twelfth, is the last instalment of what is certainly one of the most valuable contributions ever made to the sources of American history. From the first to the last its characteristics are the same; it is still the faithful record of the acts, the thoughts, the feelings of a very remarkable man, the story of a long life told day by day, while all the freshness of the present was about it, and covering nearly sixty-five of almost the most important years of all history. We are not unaware that the trustworthiness of this class of evidence has been called in question. Among the sceptics was Mr. Calhoun. Yet when some of his own acts were misstated, he invoked Mr. Adams's diary as bearing witness in his favor. The kind of witness which a diary bears is precisely of that kind which the historian who paints from the life requires. Without it we should never have had "Livy's pictured page" nor Macaulay's photographs of an age that has passed away. History is never so useful as when she tells the whole truth.

One of the most prominent traits of Mr. Adams's character, as painted in these volumes, is his steadfast adherence to the Scripture teachings of his childhood. He began the study of the Bible when a boy, and still made it the subject of his daily meditations in his ripe old age. No sooner was one reading ended than another was begun, and every reading was brought to the test of practical application. Mr. Adams looked upon self-examination as a duty, and set himself to the task with a grave conscientiousness. Common usages would have called him a religious man, and such he rightly thought himself. If any sect could claim him for its own it was doubtless the Unitarian. In this and in another way, also, he differed from Mr. Jefferson. Mr. Jefferson was a theorist, starting from an abstraction and following it logically to its remotest consequences; but when it reached those consequences he often became afraid and would have drawn back. Mr. Adams never was afraid of anything. Like his father, he always had the courage to stand by his opinions, and none the less resolutely from their not having always been in perfect harmony. Yet it may be truly said of him that men seldom live so long without changing more.

We have also called attention to Mr. Adams's bitterness. Years never diminished it. It would be falsifying history to conceal it. We give a characteristic specimen, June 15, 1844:

"I found the House in a chaos of confusion, with two stupid resolutions against the Bank of the United States, reported from the Committee on Elections by Cheselden Ellis, one of the weakest and most worthless turncoats in the House. They had been sprung this morning without notice or consultation with the minority of the Committee of Elections, and, by the screw of the previous question, moved by Ellis, were crammed down with the yeas and nays—one hundred and eight to sixty-eight. A meaner and more despicable fraud was never perpetrated."

Mr. Adams's fondness for writing verses never flags. He can never say "no" to a lady's earnest solicitation for a couple of stanzas. The wife of a clerk in the Treasury Department asks for some:

"I have little acquaintance with this lady," he writes, "but she has been very courteous to my wife and family, and earnestly solicits that I would write some verses addressed to her. I did write a couple of stanzas, which puzzled me in the composition not a little; for I began with a line of seven syllables, and in following out the verse fell unconsciously into the blunder of mingling seven and eight syllable lines together. I discovered it only by the want of harmony in the lines upon reading them over. I never knew before the peculiar property of the seven-syllable line, which consists in the uniform location of the accent and emphasis on the first syllable. The inadvertent admission of a word accented on the second syllable changes the measure to the eight-syllable verse, and the mixture of the two measures produces dissonance. It took me an hour to Procrustecize my lines to Mrs. Morris. She was here this day with Miss Paine. Miss Paine left word that I must not write any more verses for ladies."

The following passage recalls the way in which the Southern Unionists succumbed to secession:

"I met Mr. Thompson at the *Intelligencer* office, and had a long conversation with him and Mr. Gales on the subject. Thompson is a South Carolina planter, owner of one hundred slaves, and religiously believes that slavery was made for the African race and the African race for slavery. He opposes the annexation of Texas, on Southern grounds, as a Southern man. So did Calhoun; so did McDuffie; so did Hamilton—all now rabid annexationists. Thompson will be converted like them. He knocks down Walker, Wilkins, and C. J. Ingersoll with their own maul; but he smuggled through Congress the acknowledgment of Texas prematurely. He is as cunning as four Yankees, as sly as four Quakers, and just now admires the people of Massachusetts too much. I hope his letter will be eminently useful at the present crisis, and devoutly pray that he and Benton and the *Princeton* gun may be instruments for the deliverance of my country."

For a while the life of warfare, with the world for witness, ceases. He takes refuge in his library. It is instructive to see what books active minds resort to in their old age. Chancellor Kent is said to have gone to Scott; Adams, with a deep sigh, takes up Bacon. But we will let him tell his own story:

"Quincy, 18th.—I finished reading the life of Francis Bacon, Baron Verulam and Viscount St. Albans, by David Mallet, prefixed to the edition of his works in five volumes quarto, and I began the perusal of his works. This man was a prodigy and a paradox. He should be studied as a chronometer or a steam-engine should be studied—as a piece of moral and intellectual mechanism. Why did I not so study him fifty years ago? and of what use will it be for me to study him now? Indulgence of curiosity, a longing thirst for knowledge, a refuge from the sickening realities and desponding anticipations of the future, may perhaps carry me through this undertaking. The general reflection upon the life of Bacon is the melancholy aspect of great vicissitudes of fortune. His transcendant talents, rapacious ambition, and disgusting sycophancy combined to raise him to the pinnacle of opulence, of honor, and of power. The causes of his downfall were his connivance with briberies practised by his servants, with whom he shared the plunder."

"19th.—The confinement to the house is tedious. I endeavor to cheer it by reading, and travelled this day through the two books of Francis Bacon, of the Proficience and Advancement of Learning, Human and Divine."

"20th.—I made some progress in reading Bacon on the Advancement of Learning—finished the first and began the second book. In the dedication to King James, gross as his adulation is, it is not random praise. He extols him for four specific virtues: a virtuous *disposition*, a virtuous *ambition*, a virtuous observation of the laws of *marriage*, and a virtuous and most Christian *desire of peace*. These were real virtues of James's character, and they are genuine king-becoming graces; and it is piteous to reflect that, with all these virtues, and with all that learning for which he was not less famed, his character as a king and a man is universally despised."

"For the fulsomeness of flattery I was seeking some excuse, and it occurred to me that in monarchical governments this beplastering of the mighty man is conventional and formal, like 'your humble servant' at the close of a letter, or the greetings of acquaintances and mere strangers,

* 'Memoirs of John Quincy Adams. Edited by his son, Charles Francis Adams.' Vol. xii. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

professing to be very obsequious to each other, meaning, of course, nothing of what is said."

In September, 1844, he is busily engaged with an address to his constituents. The professor of rhetoric crops out in his manner of treating it. "After all the trouble and pains," he writes on the 26th, "I have taken to draw up an address to my constituents, I find that it wants unity of subject, point for impression, and humor to hit the fancy and secure the sympathy of the auditory, and pleasantry to amuse them. All these are essential to popular eloquence. There is nothing so fatal to the success of stump-speaking as dulness. 'Tous les genres sont bons, hormis le genre ennuyeux.'"

He has been invited to address the Young Men's Whig Club of Boston, and resolves to avail himself of the opportunity which this presents of clearing up some points in his own political history.

"I have determined," he writes, "to make this the immediate and single subject of my address to the Young Men's Whig Club at Boston, next Monday week; first, for the vindication of my own character from the vile slanders of Jackson, Ewing, Brown, and Charles J. Ingersoll; and, secondly, to expose to the world and to after-times the infamous means used to accomplish this annexation of Texas to the United States. How far this selection of my subject will be satisfactory to those whom I am to address; how far to the free people of this Union; how far I shall be able to enliven it with interest, is a problem from which I would shrink, if I could. I have fearful odds to encounter, and little to encourage me.

"'Truths would you teach and save a sinking land,
All fear, none aid you, and few understand.'

"My polar star must be my guide. The Florida treaty was the most important incident in my life, and the most successful negotiation ever consummated by the Government of this Union. And this is precisely selected, above all others, as an engine for the total destruction of my good name, and to charge me with treachery to my country and to my trust. I have long hesitated, not whether I should notice this conspiracy against me, but how and when. I have taken time to look over the documents, and can wind the whole body of conspirators round my fingers. My only danger is of losing my vantage ground."

We pause here in our task of selection. We have endeavored to execute it in such a way as to give a truthful picture both of the work and of the man. He belongs to a class almost extinct in this country—of hard-working statesmen who enter upon their task with a deep sense of its responsibilities, and shrink from no labor in the performance of them. Mr. Adams was not a man of genius, but a man of great parts and superior intelligence. He had already made great advancements in the discipline of mind at an age when most young men are still hesitating on the threshold. Hard work was natural to him, and we can hardly conceive of him as having passed an idle hour. Whatever well-directed industry could accomplish he never failed to accomplish, and the traditions of his patient labor, which are still preserved in the departments of state, place him at the head of hard-working men. We know of no better example to set before the young statesman than that of this old man preserving, even on the brink of the grave, the thirst for knowledge and the fiery energy of his youth.

SMITH'S DICTIONARY OF CHRISTIAN BIOGRAPHY.*

THE 'Dictionary of Christian Biography,' in conjunction with the 'Dictionary of Christian Antiquities,' the first volume of which was published in 1875, is intended to form a comprehensive cyclopædia of ecclesiastical history for the first eight centuries of the Christian era, terminating with the age of Charlemagne. As the 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography' includes the names of the principal Christian writers, it to some extent covers the same ground as the present work; but the articles in the new dictionary are, as might be expected, much fuller and more thorough. For example, the article on Clement of Alexandria in the 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography' occupies less than three pages, the one in the present volume more than seven; the article on Basil the Great in the former work fills but a single page, in the latter more than fourteen.

It has been the aim of the editors, according to the preface, "to supply an adequate account, based upon original sources, of all persons connected with the history of the Church during the period treated concerning whom anything is known, of the literature connected with them, and of the controversies respecting doctrine or discipline in which they were engaged," these being treated from a purely historical point of view. "At one time the intention was entertained of exhibiting a complete Onomasticon of the Christian world for the first eight centuries; but it was found that to aim at such an ideal would delay the work indefinitely." Another plan was, therefore, adopted. The labors of such writers as Baronius, Tillemont, Ceillier, and the great collections illustrating the Church history of particular nations (as the 'Gallia Christiana') being taken as a basis, the materials derived from them have been combined with the results of modern research, every statement being verified as far as possible by consulting the original authorities. On a large number of subjects, especially the lives of the principal Christian fathers, eminent contributors to the work have presented the fruit of special studies. The editors assert, and with apparent justice, that the Dictionary furnishes a more complete collection of materials for the ecclesiastical history of the period with which it deals than has hitherto been produced either in England or abroad. So far as we have examined the leading articles, they compare favorably, on the whole, with those on the same subject in the principal German works of a similar character, as Herzog's 'Real-Encyklopädie für prot. Theol. und Kirche,' and Wetzer and Welte's 'Kirchen-Lexicon'; while for the period treated the work embraces a much larger number of names than either of these encyclopædias. It is intended to include all persons mentioned in the writings of the chief Fathers of the Church, whether Christians or not. Roman emperors and pagans are admitted in its pages, so far as they influenced the external fortunes or the thought of the Church.

The list of contributors to the Dictionary contains nearly one hundred names, including many writers of eminence. Among the more elaborate and valuable articles may be mentioned those by Professor R. A. Lipsius, of Jena, on *Acts of the Apostles, Apocryphal* (14½ pages), *Abdias*, and *Apocalypses, Apocryphal;* by the Rev. E. Venables, on *Basilius of Cæsareia* (14 pages), *Chrysostom* (17 pages), *Cyril of Jerusalem, Diodorus of Tarsus;* and by Professor Bright, of Oxford, on *Athanasius* (24½ pages), *Cyril of Alexandria* (10½ pages), *Didymus*, and *Dioscorus*. We may also notice those on *Augustine*, by E. de Pressensé; on *Apollonius of Tyana* and *Celsus*, by J. R. Mozley; on *Buddha and Buddhism*, by Professor Cowell; on *Alcuin* and *Beda*, by Professor Stubbs; on the *Cabbalah*, by Dr. Ginsburg; on *Amphilochius of Iconium, Apion*, and *Apostolical Fathers*, by Professor Lightfoot; on *Clement of Alexandria* and *Pseudo-Dionysius the Areopagite*, by Professor Westcott; and the article *Creed*, by Professor Swainson. Many important articles—*e.g.*, that on *Clementine Literature*, are contributed by Dr. Salmon, of Trinity College, Dublin. Those on subjects of doctrine or discipline are principally by the Rev. E. S. Ffoulkes—*e.g.*, *Baptism, Church, Confession, Confirmation, Demonology;* others of this class, as *Angels, Death and the Dead*, are by Professor Plumptre, who also writes on the earlier Roman emperors. Our countryman, Dr. Schaff, treats in his lucid style of *Christology, Adoptionism, Arianism, Apollinaris the Younger*, and other subjects. Some of the most careful and scholarly articles in the Dictionary, as *Basilides, Bardaisan* (Bardesanes), *Abrasax; Adam, Books of; Adamantius, Apelles*, are from the pen of Dr. F. J. A. Hort. The very elaborate article, *Coptic Church*, by the Rev. J. M. Fuller (21½ pages), oversteps the limits of the Dictionary, bringing the history down to the present time. Mr. Fuller also writes on *Donatism* with somewhat excessive fulness (15½ pages). Special attention has been paid to the church history of Great Britain and Ireland. Among the principal contributors in this department are the late Bishop of Brechin (Dr. A. P. Forbes), the Rev. A. W. Haddan, Professor Stubbs, and the Rev. Charles Hole. The general reader will be disposed to regard this part of the work as overloaded with very obscure names, and will be thankful that the intention of making it a complete Onomasticon was abandoned.

The subjects, generally speaking, are treated with commendable freedom from strong dogmatic prejudice. In this respect the work contrasts very favorably with the 'Dictionary of Doctrinal and Historical Theology,' and the 'Dictionary of Sects, Heresies, etc.,' edited by the Rev. Mr. Blunt. In the article on Cyril of Alexandria, however, the admiration of the writer for Cyril's orthodoxy has perhaps prevented him from doing full justice to the character of that ambitious, rapacious, unscrupulous, quarrelsome, and revengeful Saint.

We have noticed few errors. In the excellent article on Clement of Alexandria by Professor Westcott, through a strange "heterophemy," ἀνατολικῆς is translated "Western" instead of "Eastern"; and in the article *Athenagoras*, an edition of that author is said to have been published in 1856 by "Dr. Paul Ludwig," for which read Dr. Ludwig Paul. The printing is generally very correct; but p. 155, col. 1, for "Leitalter" read "Zeitalter"; p. 807, col. 2, for "Dufreynoy" read "Dufresnoy," or rather "Lenglet-Dufresnoy"; and p. 901, col. 2, for "Gatland" read "Galland."

* 'A Dictionary of Christian Biography, Literature, Sects, and Doctrines: being a continuation of 'The Dictionary of the Bible.' Edited by William Smith, D.C.L., LL.D., and Henry Wace, M.A., Professor of Ecclesiastical History in King's College, London.' Volume I., A-D. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. xii.-914.

Among Christian writers whose names have been omitted, apparently through oversight, the following may be mentioned: Ammonius the presbyter of Alexandria (fl. cir. 458), the author of commentaries on the Psalms, the Gospel of John, and the book of Acts, of which considerable portions have been preserved in Catenæ,—not to be confounded, as he is by Alford and even by Tischendorf, with the Ammonius of the third century, author of a harmony of the Gospels, who also has no article assigned him in the Dictionary; Anianus or Annianus, the Pelagian, who translated sundry Homilies of Chrysostom on Matthew, and wrote a work against Jerome; Antonius the monk, disciple and biographer of St. Simeon Stylites; Aponius, or Apponius, author of a commentary on the Canticles, published in the *Bibliotheca maxima Patrum*, vol. xiv.; Athanasius, presbyter of Alexandria about the middle of the fifth century, expelled by Dioscorus, and from whom we have a 'Libellus adversus Dioscurum,' presented to the Council of Chalcedon; Athanasius Celetes, or Junior, bishop of Alexandria A.D. 490, to whom Euthalius dedicated his work on the Acts and Epistles; Aurelius, bishop of Carthage A.D. 390; and Basilides of Pentapolis. To these might be added half a dozen others of lesser note, whose names may be found in Cave, Oudin, or Ceillier.

In so comprehensive a work the accidental omission of some of the obscurer names which are entitled to a place in it can hardly be avoided. Such oversights may be easily remedied in a supplement. If the remaining volumes are as carefully prepared as the present, the 'Dictionary of Christian Biography' will be of the greatest utility to all students of ecclesiastical history, supplying a want which has long been deeply felt.

Une Colonie Féodale en Amérique. L'Acadie, 1604–1710. Par M. Rameau. (Paris: Didier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1877.)—M. Rameau is the author of 'La France aux Colonies,' a work of some value, as it embodies the results of much minute research into the census lists of Canada and Acadia. The present volume goes over much of the same ground, but gives also an historical sketch of the early history of Acadia, and contains, moreover, an exposition of the writer's views on American colonization in general. His central idea is that, in spite of prejudice to the contrary, it was all feudal in character. He admits that there were apparent exceptions. "Massachusetts, for example," he says, "wavered for some years in a ridiculous system of communal labor"; but he adds that the system of feudal grants failed not speedily to prevail. He is the bravest of generalizers; snatches at a detached fact and spreads it over as much ground as his theories require. According to him, "all the colonies of North America were established on the same plan, with certain variations in their institutions which perhaps had not all the importance since attributed to them." Among these colonies, he says, those of France were long preponderant. He speaks of these last as *purement agricoles*, in face of the patent fact that they lived chiefly by the fur trade. He tells us that, in the English colonies as in the French, the grants of land extended in regular lines along roads and rivers, with the difference that in the latter the grants of land were parallelograms, and in the former regular squares. These may serve as examples of his historical conclusions.

In his present work, unlike the former, he makes free use of second-hand authorities, and this without discrimination as to their trustworthiness. The book abounds in errors, due partly to this cause and partly to his own inexactness. He confounds Pemaquid with Portsmouth, Genesee with Fort La Tour, and both these with another fort called Naxouat. Récollet friars, he assures his readers, were identical with Capucins. He says that the Abenakis called the commandant of Acadia "Onontio," an Iroquois name given only to the Governor of Canada. The Indians of Maine are in his eyes a "peuple chevalresque."

His favorite thesis is the superiority of the French over the English colonist, a conclusion to which he says that he has arrived as the result of long and careful research; and this he regards as the true reason why the French colonies did not sooner succumb to the vastly superior number of their rivals.

"Audacity has since come to them with habitual success, but the Anglo-Saxons of 1650–1750 were very different from those of the present day. Very religious, very timid, more virtuous perhaps, and more social than their descendants, it must be confessed that nobody could be less bold or more inclined to stay at home than the English *pioneer* of this epoch. Their minds were feeble and timid; they were little fitted to form new establishments, and they succumbed in multitudes under privations which they could neither provide against nor resist."

The change of character of which M. Rameau speaks seems to have taken place very promptly, as he may see, among other evidence, in the famous speech of Edmund Burke:

"Look at the manner in which the people of New England have of late carried on the whale-fishery. Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Strait, whilst we are looking for them beneath the arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold—that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the south. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that while some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries; no climate that is not witness to their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people; a people who are still, as it were, in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood."

This notice is much too long already. M. Rameau's book is a curious example of the manner in which a man of confused brain and weak judgment, eager to see things in his own way, will distort some facts, overlook others, magnify others that are trifling into gigantic proportion, and all with no apparent intention to deceive anybody.

Our Inheritance in the Great Pyramid. Third, and much enlarged edition. By Piazzi Smyth, Astronomer-Royal for Scotland. (New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons. 1877.)—If we followed a celebrated modern "Autocrat" in considering insanity to consist simply in reasoning in a different way from the mass of mankind, it would be difficult to escape from classifying Professor Piazzi Smyth as an insane person. But can a person be insane who is able to manage his own business, administer a scientific office, and write with vigor on every subject to which he applies his pen, including the very one on which he seems to be a monomaniac? If our author were an ordinary enthusiast who had been carried away by some one idea, or if he were simply an ignorant speculator on subjects he could not understand, we should find no difficulty in forming a diagnosis of his case, and pronouncing his aberrations quite commonplace. But when a man of education, of some deserved eminence in the scientific world, the Astronomer-Royal for Scotland, and the Professor of Astronomy in the University of Edinburg, talks and reasons in a way which we are accustomed to associate with Second-Adventists, his mental condition and the theories to which that condition gives rise become invested with some interest. The theory which Professor Smyth has preached for nearly fifteen years, in season and out of season, is that the building of the Great Pyramid was in some way a work of divine inspiration, embodying in its construction many of the elements of modern mathematics and astronomy. The height of the pyramid was, to one side of its base, in the same ratio as the diameter of a circle to the half of its circumference, the length of the base being 764 English feet, and the original height 486 feet. The unit of measure used in the construction was the ten-millionth part of the earth's semi-axis of rotation, or nearly twenty-five British inches, while the side of the base contains as many of these units as there are days in the year. By a yet greater marvel the distance of the sun may be found by the simple process of multiplying the vertical height of the pyramid by the ninth power of 10, and the astronomers who sent out expeditions to observe the transit of Venus when they had the solar parallax ready at hand receive a severe castigation. A sufficient idea of the book can be gathered from these examples of its theories.

The A B C of Finance. By Simon Newcomb, LL. D. (New York: Harper & Brothers.)—Most of the short and easy lessons on the science of Money embraced in this little volume (one of Harper's "Half-Hour Series") were originally contributed to *Harper's Weekly*. The author says that the unexpected favor with which they were received encouraged him to reproduce them in more permanent form, and to add several chapters on the labor questions of the day. The chapters of most immediate interest, as bearing upon current topics, are those on Starvation Wages, on the Value of Paper Money, "Why has the Greenback any Value?" the 3.65-Bond Plan, the Evil of a Depreciating Currency, and the Public Faith. Professor Newcomb has not attempted, or only slightly attempted, to advance new points in economic science, or to argue controverted ones, but merely to bring well-established principles to the apprehension of common people, and to show their application to the society, industry, and legislation of the United States as now existing or as sought to be modified. In this modest but useful endeavor he has unquestionably succeeded, but he has still left the field open for an American Bastiat, if there be one, to illustrate, by parables and by examples from every-day life, the same truths in even more popular and engaging phrase. As the volume contains only 115 pages and is sold for twenty-

five cents, it is within the reach of nearly everybody who can read, and will undoubtedly be welcome to many to whom economic reasoning is generally irksome and distressing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott (E.), Out Doors at Long Look.....(Noyes, Snow & Co.) $1 25
Belloy (Marquis de), Christopher Columbus.....(Gebbie & Barrie)
Clark (W. J., jr.), Great American Sculptures.....(Gebbie & Barrie)
Frost (S. Annie), Ladies' Guide to Needle-work and Embroidery, swd..(H. T. Williams)
Fret Sawing for Pleasure and Profit, swd.....(H. T. Williams)
Toland (Mrs. M. B.), Stella. 5th ed.....(James Miller)

Fine Arts.

THE LOAN EXHIBITION AT THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—I.

DURING the weeks that have passed since the opening of this Exhibition the galleries have been well filled with paying visitors. Indeed, every visitor pays; since, to swell the receipts of the Society they are working for, even the hard-worked managers and members of committees have bought their season tickets. The pecuniary result ought to be a good one for the Decorative Art Society, as the expenses of the undertaking must be very trifling, always excepting the heavy rent paid for the galleries.

But it is this same rent which has caused, indirectly, most of the strictures upon the Exhibition, by inducing great haste, and consequent lack of system, in the preparations for the opening. The object of this show is, after all, to fill the treasury of the Decorative Art Society; if this is done better by means of a crowd of objects of beauty and value heaped together without arrangement and with no catalogue worthy of the name, than it could be done by means of a more perfectly organized and therefore more instructive collection, certainly no fault ought to be found with the managers. The criticisms made in the city papers (and we are thinking especially of Mr. Cook's letter in the *Tribune*) are not to be deprecated, for they are eminently just. It is a fact that European and Oriental porcelain are jumbled together on the same shelves, so that bewilderment to the beginner and fatigue to the more practised student must result from any attempt at study and comparison. It is true that one of Tiffany & Co.'s elaborate and florid silver vases towers above a little cluster of delicate antique glass and modern Spanish enamel of garish colors. It is true that embroidered silks are used for a background to pottery, enamels, silver-ware, and Japan lacquer—not a good background except that they add to the general idea of splendor of color—and are themselves half hidden by what they only half display. It is true that the objects are only half numbered, so that it is often impossible to identify any one by means of the catalogue; and that the "catalogue" itself is a mere list, not quite so full of blunders as might have been expected by those who know how it was made—by copying, in haste, the descriptions and the ascriptions furnished by the owners of the objects lent, with all the handwritings different, and no expert in charge to answer questions. But all these facts, though deserving mention, are not to be held up too prominently as faults or errors on the part of the managers. The Museum of Art could not afford to open such a heterogeneous show, but the Society of Decorative Art could not afford to do otherwise. Its problem was this: given galleries which must be paid for by the week, required that they be filled with precious and beautiful things fit to draw a crowd of visitors, and in such a way that the minimum of time be spent in preparation, and the maximum of time allowed for exhibition and for profit. The problem has been solved to the satisfaction of all concerned.

To the student of ornamental art the gathering of fine things is very attractive; and it is pleasant to see the indications of a great advance in the taste of our prosperous people. This exhibition has been made up with very little aid from the possessors of the largest collections of works of art, some of whom have sent nothing, others only a few pieces. The galleries, indeed, are small, and were quickly filled by volunteers, and it is certain that four times the space could have been filled as easily, and with even a higher average of excellence in the articles exhibited. To take an instance: New York is richer in Eastern art than in that of Europe, proportionally, and many more persons have learned to love beautiful things from Japan and China than can be found to care for Majolica or Limoges enamels. And yet of Oriental porcelain and pottery the show is small. Fine Chinese porcelain is almost wholly unrepresented. In the East gallery, in a case on the western side, are a number of pieces of "old blue" belonging to Mr. Andrews, many of them very delicate and choice, and among them one jar of a ware now greatly in demand. On the other shelf below are two or three pieces of Chinese porcelain painted in enamels, among which is noticeable one very good vase, the property of Mr. Coleman. On the opposite side of the room, at the south end, No. 968 is a good piece, as far as the dark place it is in allows it to be seen. In the northernmost case on the same side a large round dish seems to be one of those old pieces of porcelain which have had a varied experience: once a simple piece of blue and white, afterwards painted in enamel color, still in China, and finally adopted into European society by the painting, probably in Holland, of a shield of arms in the centre. It hangs in a shadow which is very profound on a bright day, or in the gaslight, and our reading of it may not be wholly correct. On the bottom of the same case lies the most costly piece of Chinese porcelain, a thin and delicate plate painted with a figure-subject and with ornaments, all in the most refined and elaborate manner. There are also several pieces of crackle-ware in different colors.

Of Japanese wares the old Hizen ought to take precedence. This is the hard white porcelain, decorated with dark blue under the glaze, and with iron-red and gold, and sometimes green and black, superposed: the ware known to our ancestors as "old Japan." Perhaps the finest specimen is No. 1035, a large covered jar belonging to Mr. Coleman, and set on top of a case on the east side of this same East gallery. One over the north door of the same gallery is fine and characteristic, and in a case near is a full set—a regular ancestral *surtout de cheminée*—of three pot-pourri jars and two "beakers." Near No. 1035, and also on top of the cases, are three large covered jars belonging to Mr. Belmont, which seem to be old Hizen ware of value, partly covered with lacquer. But this lacquer is not at all like the brilliant and highly-finished lacquer applied in Japan to modern porcelain and the soft paste earthenware of Kaga and other provinces. Every frequenter of the shops knows those vases, sometimes lacquered all over, and more often having panels or medallions in that decoration, the rest of the vase painted in the usual way. The pieces under consideration are more as if painted with oil-color, dusted with gold powder or bronze powder, and varnished, but not left very glossy. The forms of this unfired painting are European. Is the work Dutch? This sort of ornamentation frequently occurs, and there is some of it to be found upon unmistakable Delft. It is probably an attempt on the part of some Hollander to imitate the lacquer of Japan, and it may well be that it is perfectly well known and classified, though we have not found the description of it. Apart from this rather awkward decoration, the three large covered jars seem to be very fine. There are also at the south end of this room, on brackets, some large platters of the bold decoration of the later wares of the province of Hizen, very ornamental and noble pieces.

Of the pretty Kaga wares, only one piece attracts the eye, a charming gourd-shaped bottle, belonging to Mr. L. C. Tiffany.

But it is Satsuma ware, and the various buff, hard-paste, crackled potteries which pass for it sometimes, that are the most popular; and during the past year some very splendid specimens of both ancient and modern Satsuma have been brought to New York and sold. Before the Philadelphia Exhibition the finer specimens had hardly been seen here, and even at that exhibition there were few pieces of value. Now there are, in the East room at the Academy, several fine specimens, but the only piece which shows the highest class of the enamel painting which gives this pottery its value, is the little shallow cup in a case on the west wall, having on the inside a sacred personage with an immense gold halo around his head. On the same shelf with this are several delicious bits of that enamel painting, in subdued color and conventional patterns, which is perhaps the most perfectly artistic and appropriate decoration for ceramic ware yet invented. The large covered fire-pot decorated with disks, belonging to Mr. L. C. Tiffany, deserves the great admiration it attracts; a little cup, turned bottom up, and having written on a pasted label "7036, S. Coleman," is equally perfect as an instance in point; there are others nearly as fine. On two brackets at the South end of the room are two fire-pots belonging to Mr. Herter, and a splendid one belonging to Mr. Coleman is in a case which has been moved just now, at the time of writing, into the newly-opened South gallery. These specimens bring up the question of the authenticity of the ware; all our knowledge about the *fabriques* of Japan is very doubtful, but according to our usual standards of comparison the last-named piece is Satsuma ware of the middle period, and the former two fine specimens of the faience of Kioto. Two large vases set up on high seem to represent old and new Satsuma very well; at least No. 1045, the huge one over the door, is probably of the last century, and No. 1057, at the west side, painted with crabs as large as life, is of the manufacture of to-day. Finally, some plates in the case first mentioned are apparently of excellent quality, but are all in the shadow of the shelf above so as hardly to be seen. The one at the left side, painted with a strange ma-

rine view, may be equal to the finest pieces imported, but it needs a gray day and a strong glass to see it.

There are a few fine pieces of Chinese cloisonné enamel on copper. A few years ago, and perhaps up to the year of the Vienna Exhibition, this ware was assumed to be of greater rarity than it proves to be. Even the experts of Paris seem to have thought that every piece of it was worthy of a certain respect as a rare production; this rather comical awe of what proves to be as common a manufacture as stoneware having been caused, probably, by the great rarity of cloisonné enamels of European make. Now that boat-loads of it are brought to us it is hard to distinguish between styles and epochs. Such pieces as those from the Hurd collection, which were exhibited by the Boston Museum of Fine Arts three years ago, are as precious as they have ever been thought, and a piece as large, ancient, and splendid in color as the plaque for sale till lately at Tiffany's, must always be a costly rarity; but it is hard to know what is second quality and what is inferior, so far as those considerations go which after all do the most in fixing the money value. One is driven to decide according to the relative beauty of the pieces, and it may be fortunate that it is so. In the East room, in a case, are two shelves full of small pieces, nearly all belonging to Mr. Hoe. Of these the most beautiful, perhaps, and the most ancient and most precious, probably, is the square vase with flaring top. Among the others let each visitor select her or his favorite piece. The mastery of subdued but glowing color in the finer enamels of this sort is perhaps the strongest argument in favor of the claims of the Chinese decorators to surpass all others in color.

Of that Japanese cloisonné enamel in dusky colors and small divisions, delicate but mechanical and hard, of which our shops have been full, no specimen occurs; it is not to be greatly regretted. But No. 441, the cylindrical box belonging to Mr. Strobridge, is ornamented with incrusted disks and patterns of that sort of enamel; and this combination of the enamelling with the polished metal surface is effective, and not common. There is one variety, apparently of more ancient Japanese make, of which one good piece, belonging to Mr. E. C. Moore, is to be seen on the same shelf with Mr. Hoe's smaller pieces; and the bowl hidden behind this specimen seems to be of the same sort. This old Japan enamel has the metal lines as thin as in the modern work, but the colors are singularly harmonious and the design never very sharply made out. There is always a piece or two to be bought; but there seems little doubt that it is really ancient, and the supply limited.

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ERRATA.

Page 92, col. ii, line 17 from bottom. For "gentiles" read "gentes."
Page 229, col. i, line 35. For "eight" read "eighty."
Page 237, col. i, line 38. For "ground" read "guard."
Page 244, col. ii, line 38. For "political" read "polluted."
Page 277, col. ii, line 3 from bottom. For "Thursday" read "Tuesday."
Page 278, col. ii, line 13. Omit "his own city."
Page 286, col. ii, line 13. For "ingenisque" read "ingenique."
Page 310, col. ii, lines 16 and 5 from bottom. For "Cenci" read "Curci."
Page 357, col. ii, line 15. For "12th" read "11th." Line 31, for "California" read "Colorado."
Page 378, col. ii, line 18, for "*Vêstnik*" read "*Viestnik*." Line 17 from bottom, for "*Gouvernoi*" read "*Sovremenoi*."
Page 379, col. i, line 1, for "*Gouvernoi*" read "*Sovremenoi*," and the same in line 30 from bottom.

REGISTER OF BOOKS RECEIVED DURING THE HALF-YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1877.

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